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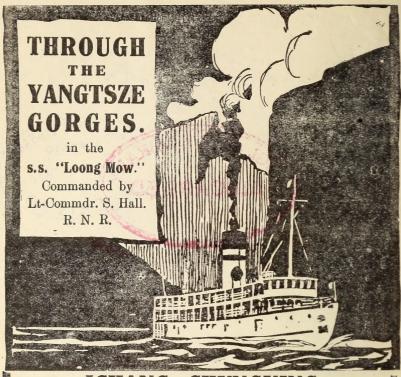
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THE CHINA YEAR BOOK

1921 - 2

中華年書

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EDITED

BY

H. G. W. WOODHEAD, C.B.E.

CHEVALIER OF THE ORDER OF LEOPOLD II @c.
EDITOR OF THE "PEKING AND TIENTSIN TIMES"

ASSOCIATE EDITOR
H. T. MONTAGUE BELL

Formerly Editor of the "North China Daily News."

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PREFACE.

When the publication of a China Year Book was first suggested the idea was that it should be printed and published in China. It was, however, found impossible at that time to make the necessary arrangements for doing so, and accordingly the first five issues were printed and published in London. The Year Book has now been brought back to China, and will

in future be published in this country.

There are obvious advantages in this course. The contents can be kept more up-to-date, Chinese characters can be inserted where required to elucidate the text, and, where Chapters are written by experts, proofs of their centributions can be submitted to them for revision. There are, on the other hand, certain disadvantages which cannot be overlooked. The type of the present issue has been set on linotype machines operated by Chinese, many of whom do not understand, while the others only have a limited knowledge of, English. The labour involved in proof-reading, therefore, has been almost overwhelming, and though the utmost care has been taken, the Editor cannot hope that the book is free from typographical errors. Indeed a few,fortunately of no great importance, were discovered while the book was being indexed from the printed sheets. In connection with the proof-reading the Editor is under very great obligations to Mr. W. V. Pennell, Assistant Editor of the Peking and Tientsin Times, who has not only read over the greater part of the book in page form, but has also made a number of valuable suggestions.

The transfer of the publication of the Year Book to China, and its compilation upon an entirely new basis, have been rendered possible by the backing of Mr. Tadasaburo Yamamoto, Principal of the firm of Shosho

Yoko, of Tokio.

The Editor has been fortunate in securing the ungrudging assistance of a number of experts, Foreign and Chinese, in the rewriting, revision and expansion of the present work. Some of these contributors prefer that their identity should not be disclosed. Acknowledgment is made here of the assistance received from the following gentlemen, who have been responsible for the rewriting, revision, or contribution of the whole or greater part of the sections which appear against their names:

Mr. W. Sheldon Ridge (River Basins in the Chapter on Geography.)

Mr. Forsythe Sherfesee (Forestry).

Dr. V. K. Ting (Mines and Minerals). Mr. H. A. Reeks (Chinese Post Office).

Mr. Rodney Gilbert (China's Army). Professor L. K. Tao (Education).

Rev. Arthur Sowerby and Mr. Grover Clark (Opium).

Mr. Yang Pao-ling (Grand Canal).

Rev. Milton T. Stauffer (Mission Statistics).

Messrs. H. H. Fox, C.M.G., A. Rose, C.I.E. and J.H. Hutchison (Revision of List of Factories, &c.)

Mr. Dwight W. Edwards (The Famine in North China).

Mr. Don B. Patterson (The Motor Car in China).

Mr. P. Campbell (Insurance). Mr. R. A. Whitamore (Shipping). For valuable assistance in various ways the Editor expresses his gratitude to Dr. W. W. Yen, Minister for Foreign Affairs; Sir Francis Aglen, Inspector General of Customs; M. Picard Destelan, Co-Director General of Posts, especially for the first complete list of newspapers printed in China; Mr. W. F. Collins (for permission to reprint his translation of China's Mining Law); Mr. W. R. Strickland, (Officiating Associate Chief Inspector of the Salt Revenue Administration); Dr. Wang Chung-hui; (Chief Justice of the Supreme Court); Mr. J. E. Baker (Adviser to the Railway Department of the Ministry of Communications); Mr. A. H. Ginman (of the Marconi Company); Mr. V. Petersen (Chinese Telegraph Administration); Dr. Wu Lien-teh; Mr. C. S. Liu; Mr. T. H. Yeh; Mr. Tyndall Wei; Mr. J. C. Ho; Sir W. J. Oudendijk; Mr. E. M. Gull; Mr. Ziangling Chang; Mr. A. B. Lowson; Mr. W. H. Donald.

Assistance has been received from numerous other gentlemen, who have supplied data regarding the railways, mines, conservancy, &c. Due acknowledgement is made in the text of quotations from other publications. In this connection the Editor is especially indebted to the Chinese Social and Political Science Review, and to Millard's Review (now the Weekly Review of the Far East) whose Editors permitted unlimited quotation from their

pages.

An unusually large number of documents appear in this issue. It is the belief of the Editor that the documents relating to the Consortium, China's War and Post-War Problems, the Russian Problem, and Mongolia are of sufficient importance to justify reproduction in full, if only for purposes of historical record. The book is intended to be an impartial work of reference. In the past, however, some criticism has been directed against the inclusion of Chinese official documents without comment or explanation in such a manner as to lead the otherwise uninformed reader to suppose that these documents were to be accepted at their face value. It is of the utmost importance, no less from the Chinese than from the foreign point of view that the actual facts regarding extraterritoriality, the Government of the country, the currency problem, the Shantung question etc. should be revealed, and it is hoped that this has been done in the present work without injustice to any of the parties concerned. The difficulty of securing precise information on a number of questions when China has for years past been torn by internal dissensions, and the so-called Central Government exercises no real authority over the country, need scarcely be emphasized. Some public services, such as the Customs, Salt Administration, and Posts, which are under foreign management, function throughout the country, and publish statistics annually. But it is impossible to obtain recent and reliable statistics of public justice, finance, and other branches of the administration under exclusively Chinese control.

The order of the Chapters has been governed by several factors. The Customs Trade Statistics for 1920 for instance, which appear at the end of the volume, were only available a few weeks before the book went to Press.

The Editor will welcome suggestions and corrections. Especially will he value fuller information relating to the factories in China that use foreign

machinery, a complete list of which is most difficult to compile.

The production of this Year Book is the most ambitious piece of work yet undertaken by the Tientsin Press, Ld. and it would be ungracious not to acknowledge the enthusiastic assistance rendered by the Foreign Staff of that Company, Messrs Nicholls, Anderson, and Taylor, all of whom have taken a keen personal interest in its production.

33, Victoria Road Tientsin. August 1, 1921 H.G.W.W.

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THE CHINA YEAR BOOK

1921. xx

CHAPTER I.

AREA AND POPULATION OF CHINA.

Chinese territory extends from latitude 53° N. to 18° N. and from longitude 74° E. to 134° E. It comprises China Proper (21 Provinces¹), Mongolia, Eastern Turkestan of the New Territory (Sinkiang) and Tibet.²

The frontier of this vast country marches from the N.E. westwards to the S.W. with Siberia, Russian Turkestan, India, Burma, Tongking, and the country is bounded on the E. by the Pacific Ocean and Korea.

Area.

The total area of Chinese territory is estimated at 4,278,352 square miles, apportioned as follows:—

	sq. miles.	
China Proper	1,896,500	(Manchuria 363,700)
Mongolia	1,367,953	
Chinese Turkestan	550,579	
Tibet	463,320	

[Stanford³ gives the area of the Empire as 4,376,000 square miles: China Proper 1,532,000, Manchuria 364,000, Mongolia 1,200,000, Tibet 700,000, Chinese Turkestan 580,000 square miles.]

The Population of China.

The taking of a census by the methods adopted in Western nations has never yet been attempted in China, and consequently estimates of the total population have varied to an extraordinary degree. Until last year the nearest approach to a reliable estimate was, probably, the census taken by the Minchengpu (Ministry of Interior) in 1910, the results of which are embodied in a report submitted to the Department of State at Washington by Mr. Raymond P. Tenney, a Student Interpreter at the U. S. Legation, Peking, and published in the Daily Consular and Trade Reports of July 13, 1911.

¹ Until 1907 China Proper comprised 18 Provinces, while Manchuria was governed as a separate dependency. By the Imperial Decree of April 20, 1907, the three Manchurian provinces of Shengking, Kirin, and Heilungkiang were combined into a single viceroyalty, the Viceroyalty of the Three Eastern Provinces.

² For the status of Mongolia and Tibet see the chapter on Greater China.

³ Stanford's Compendium of Geography, Asia, Vol. I. A. H. Keane, LL.D.

It was pointed out that even this census could only be regarded as approximate, as, with a few exceptions, households and not individuals were counted. The families of the whole Empire (exclusive of Tibet) were returned as:—

China Proper	56,312,256
Metropolitan District (Peking, etc.)	831,266
Manchuria	1,780,308
Sinkiang	453,477
Manchu Military Organization	309,151
Dependencies	138,460

A census of individuals taken in various parts of the Empire provided a clue to the number of persons per family. The average number was found to be 5.5, which multiple was used except in the case of Fengtien, in Manchuria, where the much higher multiple of 8.38 was adopted. Worked out on this basis the following figures were obtained:—

China Proper	304,003,000
Metropolitan District (Peking, etc.)	5,671,000
Manchuria	14,917,000
Sinkiang	2,491,000
Manchu Military Organization	1,700,000
Dependencies (exclusive of Tibet)	760,000
_	
Total	329,542,000

If to this total we add 1,500,000 as the probable number of inhabitants in Tibet (as compared with the Chinese estimate of 6.500,000), the total for China becomes 331,000,000. In 1904, it may be added, Mr. W. W. Rockhill, American Minister to China and a shrewd and scholarly observer of things Chinese, estimated the population of China Proper (18 provinces) at 270,-000,000. The total given in the accompanying table, 342.639.000, comprises the Chinese estimate of the population of Tibet and an estimate of the complete figures for Szechuan province.

The subjoined tables show the estimated population at various dates (obtained from various sources and abstracted chiefly from "The Middle Kingdom") and the latest official estimates of the population:—

1	.D. 1381	 59,850,000	A.D.	1412		65,377,000
	1580	 60,692,000		1662		21.068.600
	1668	 25,386,209		1710	23,312,200	& 27,241,129
	1711	 28,241,129		1736		125.046.245
	1743	 157,343,975		1753		103,050,600
	,,	 149,332,730		1760		143,125,225
		150,265,475		,,		203.916.477
	1761	 205,293,053		1762	*****	198.214.553
	1790	 155,249,897		1792		307,467,200
	1 812	 362,467,183		2.2		333.000.000
	,,	 360,440,000		1842		413.021.000
		404,946,514		1881		380,000,000
	1882	 381,309,000		1885	*******	377,636,000

In 1919 the organization of the Chinese Post Office was used to secure an estimate of the total population of China and the Outer Territories. The figures, which in most instances were procured with the assistance of local officials, will be found in the accompanying tables, and for purposes of comparison, those of the 1885 Census, and the Minchengpu Census are included.

AREA AND POPULATION OF CHINA.

Province.	Area, sq. miles.	Census, 1885.	Minchengpu Census, 1910.	Pop. per sq. mile.	Post Office Estimate, 1920.	Pop. per sq. mile.
Anhui	54,826	20,600,000	17,300,000	315	19,832,665	337
Chekiang	36,680	11,700,000	17,000,000	463	22,043,300	009
Chihli	115,830	17,900,000	32,571,000	281	34,186,711	767
Tukien	46,332	23,500,000	13,100,000	282	13,157,791	284
Honan	466,79	22,10.,000	25,600,000	376	30,831,909	454
Hunan	83,398	21,000,000	23,600,000	282	28,443,279	341
eh	71,428	33,600,000	24,900,000	348	27,167,244	380
Kansu	125,483	5,400,000	5,000,000	40	5,927,997	47
Kianosi	69,498	24,500,000	14,500,000	208	24,466,800	353
Kiangsii	38,610	21,300,000	17,300,000	448	33,786,064	875
Kwanosi	77,220	5,100,000	6,500,000	84	12,258,335	158
Kwangting	100,000	29,700,000	27,700,000	277	37,167,701	372
Kweichow	67,182	7,700,000	11,300,000	168	11,216,400	167
Shansi	81,853	10,800,000	10,000,000	122	11,080,827	134
Shanting	55,984	36,500,000	29,600,000	528	30,803,245	550
Chensi	75,290	3,300,000	8,800,000	116	9,465,558	195
Capture	918,533	71,000,000	*4000,000	105	49 789 810	866
Szechuan	146 714	11,700,000	8 500 000	000	0 830 180	79
king				; ;		5
Kirin	363,700	I	14,917,000	41	13,701,819	
Total	1,896,495	377,636,000	331,188,000	174	427,679,214†	183
Sinkiang		Without	2,491,000			
Manchu Military Organization	nzanon	IMAIICIINIIA/	760.000			
Tibet (Chinese Estimate)	e)		6,500,000			
T. T.			040 690 000			

* Mr. Raymond Tenney's Report to the U.S. State Department.

+ * The actual figures given are 16,400,000, but this represents the returns of only five-sevenths of the province. The uncertainty of Chinese figures is well illustrated by the estimates of the population of Szechuan.

3 Historia is included 2,519,579 for Sinkiang but no data were available regarding: a, 1 Historia and Mongolia in Peking District, b, 3 Historia in Manchuria, c, Tibet.

POST OFFICE ESTIMATE OF POPULATION OF EACH HSIEN ADMINISTRATIVE AREA IN CHINA.

PEKING DISTRICT.

Name		Population	Name		Population
Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)
Changpeh Changping Chihcheng Fangshan Hwaian Hwaiju Hwailai Kalgan Kuyüan, Chi Liangsiang Lungmen, Chi Miyün	高 高 高 高 高 高 高 。 家 。 。 。 。 。 。 。 。 。 。 。	295,375 40,444	Mongolia Paoan, Chi Peking Shangtu Shunyi Sining, Chi Süanhwa Tolunnoerh Tungchow, Chi Wanchüan, Chi Yenking Yüchow, Chi	· 順西宣倫 諸 解化爾州全	not obtainable 97,633 1,181,400 not obtainable 167,039 137,881 357,104 36,376 252,996 197,019 104,815 216,132 4,014,619

CHIHLI DISTRICT.

A			147.000			1	100 707
Anchow	安	州		Chochow	涿	M	159.353
Anping	安	本	166,433	Feisiang	肥	鄉	123,820
Ansu	安	肅		Fengjun	豐	潤	501.756
Changli		黎	368,617	Fengning	曲	甯	141.885
Changyüan		垣	339,133	Fowcheng	阜	城	117,440
Chaochow	趙	州	215,761	Fowping	息	本	71,833
Chaoyang	朝	陽	659,868	Funing, Chi	撫	甯	286,777
Chengan, Chi	成	安	52,975	Fusin	阜	新	28.960
Chengteh	承	德	643,900	Hantan	邯	單写	168.780
Chengting	TE.	定	190,606	Hengshui	衡	水	138.861
Chichow	祁	444	200,650	Hiunghsien	雄	縣	96,114
Chihfeng	赤	峯	666,200	Hokien	ins		270,000

CHIHLI DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name		Population
Romanised	Chinese	⟨Approximate⟩	Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)
Hwailu	獲 鹿	262,607	Nankung	南宮	250,400
Jaoyang	競 陽	179,977	Nanlo	南樂	181,132
Jenhsien	任縣	116,878	Nanpi	南皮	177,849
Jenkiu	任邱	202,539	Neikiu	內邱	112,547
Jungcheng	容城	66,446	Ningho	窗 河	241,688
Kaichow	開州	354,472	Ningtsin	常晉	309,615
Kailu	開魯	241,890	Ningtsing	雷津	453,497
Kaocheng, Chi	藁城	233,999	Pachow	霸州	157,311
Kaoyang	高陽	133,673	Paisiang	柏鄉	67,295
Kaoyi, Chi	高邑	65,326	Paoti	智 坻	315,660
Kiaoho	交 河	263,831	Paoting	保定	406,886
Kichownan	重 州	284,851	Paoting, E		12,152
Kichowpeh	薊州	256,347	Pingchüan	平泉	441,450
Kienchang, Chi	建昌	2,271,325	Pingku	平谷	33,674
Kienping, Chi	建平	37,550	Pingshan, Chi	平 山	199,981
Kingchow, Chi	景州	229,090	Pingsiang, Chi	平 鄉	94,679
Kingyün	慶雲	133,229	Poyeh	博野	94,540
Kitseh	雞澤	65,687	Sanho, Chi	三河	208,542
Kuan	固安	196,682	Shaho, Chi	沙河	142,434
Kucheng	故 城	118,005	Shanhaikwan	山海關	
Küchow	曲周	213,415	(Linyü, Chi)	(林楡)	223, 813
Külu, Chi	鉅 鹿	137,000	Shenchow, Chi	深州	338,426
Küyang	曲陽	123.181	Shentseh	深澤	115,693
Kwangchang	廣昌	55,058	Shulu	東 鹿	255,818
Kwangping	廣平	277,490	Shunteh	順 德	248,513
Kwangping, S	廣平(南)	59,963	Siangho	香河	28,460
Kwangtsung	廣宗	90,642	Sienhsien	獻縣	305,535
Laishui	淶 水	133,404	Sincheng	新城	204,021
Lihsien	鑫 縣	198,826	Singtang	行 唐	141,004
Lincheng	臨城	84,372	Sinho	新河	182,791
Lingshow	震 壽	97,082	Sinlo	新樂	129,780
Linsi		12,000	Suitung, Chi		29,228
Loting, Chi		256,970	Suning	肅甯	143,614
Lunghwa, Chi		280,377	Tacheng	大城	156,659
Lungping, Chi	1,	110,040	Taming	1 4	478,755
Lwancheng	750 1744	81,641	Tanghsien	/101	229,785
Lwanchow		500,000	Tangshan, S	唐山	76,010
Lwanping	凝 平	124,890	Tientsin		838,629
Mancheng		101,854	Tingchow		309,725
Nanho	南 和	108,853	Tinghing	定與	186,359

CHIHLI DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name	Name			
Romanised	Chi	nese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chi	nese	(Approximate)
Tsangchow Tsanhwang Tsaokiang Tsienan Tsinchow Tsingfeng Tsinghai, Chi Tsingho, Chi Tsinghsien Tsingsing Tsunhwa Tungan, Chi Tungkwang Tungming Tzechow, Chi Wangtu	滄贊棗遷晉清靜清青井遵東東東磁望	州皇强安州豊海河縣陘化安光明州都	411,585 67,615 309,088 369,200 164,842 303,831 259,155 147,698 217,059 192,857 327,266 278,527 205,320 238,000 224,218 81,594	Wanhsien, Chi Weichang Weihsien, Chi Wenan Wuki, Chi Wukiao Wutsing Wuyi, Chi Yenshan Yichow Yüanshih Yungping Yungtsing	圍威文無武吳武武鹽易元永	縣場縣安極强橋清邑山州氏平清田	119.036 589.849 163,416 151.700 155.988 122.183 203.419 291.705 187.486 277.792 268.975 127.997 137,516 171,074 268.129
•			SHANSI I	DISTRICT.			
Anyi	安	邑		Hwaijen, Sha		仁	71,122
Changtze Chaocheng	長趙	子世	156,158	Hwochow	霍	州氏	59,230 98,955

			SHANSI I	DISTRICT.			
Anyi	安	邑	102,861	Hwaijen, Sha	懷	仁	71,122
Changtze		子	156,158	Hwochow	霍	州	59,230
Chaocheng	趙	城	82,485	Ishih	猗	氏	98,955
Chiehchow		州	56,441	Juicheng	芮	城	69,767
Chinyüan	沁	源	35,990	Kaoping	高	4	92.546
Erhtaoho		首河	218,568	Kiangchow	絳	州	98,500
Fanghan, Sha	方	Ш	24,067	Kianghsien	絳	縣	41.995
Fansze		峙	90,783	Kiaocheng	交	城	89,740
Fenchow		州	144,612	Kichow 4	吉	144	50.010
Fengchen		鎮	119,985	Kiehsiu	介	休	100.849
Fensi		西	41,794	Kihsien, Sha	部	縣	142,896
Fowshan	浮	ग्री	47,878	Kolan	哥	嵐	38.617
Hinghsien	衄	縣	89,672	Kůwo	曲	沃	88.084
Hokü		曲	120,231	Kwangling	廣	震	79.895
Holinkoerh		格爾	29,890	Kweihwa	歸	化	236,583
Hoshun	和	順	60,629	Kwohsien	崞	縣	105.891
Hotsin	my	津	93,042	Lanhsien	嵐	縣	50.787
Hukwan		關	118,138	Liaochow	遼	州	51,236
Hungtung		洞	112,950	Licheng	黎	城	77,948
Hunyüan	渾	源	166,708	Lingchwan	陵	川	139,110

SHANSI DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name		Population
Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)
Lingkiu	靈邱	111.637	Taiyuan	太原	222.887
Lingshih	靈石	52,112	Taiyaan. S	太原南	80,549
Linhsien, Sha	臨縣	192,711	Taning. Sha	大富	16.750
Lintsin	路 晉	93.396	Taoling, Sha	1 林	15.988
Lopingsiang	樂平鄉	125.543	Tatung, Sha	大同	259.986
Luan	路安	179 317	Tienchen	天鎮	85.995
Lucheng, Sha	路城	105.839	Tingsiang	定襄	72.851
Ningsiang, Sha	窜 鄉	30,450	Tokoto	托克托	34.510
Ningwu		56.182	Tsehchow		276.476
Ningyüan	富遠	133,191	Tsinchow, Sha	证 州	48,521
Paoteh	保德	68,865	Tsinglo	靜樂	105.350
Pienkwan	偏關	28,991	Tsingshuiho	清水河	21.500
Pinglu	平鲁	30,714	Tsingyūansiang	清源鄉	84,515
Pinglu, S	平 陸	82,714	Tsinshui	沁水	70,056
Pingshua	本 順	90.499	Tsishan	稷 山	32.510
Pingting, Sha	平 定	287,042	Esoyün	左雲	75.987
Pingyang	平陽	140,745	Tungsheng	東勝	23,100
Pingyao, Sha	平遙	226,105	Tunliu	屯智	110.653
Puchow, Sha	蒲州	113,641	Wanchūan	萬泉	86,392
Puhsien	蒲 縣	38,211	Wenshui	文水	100,520
Saratsi	蓬拉客	200,298	Wensi	聞喜	110.504
Shanvin	山陰	45.117	Wuchai	五寨	35,649
Shenchih		42.285	Wusiang	武鄉	135,190
Shihlow	石樓	31,095	Wutai	五台	89,985
Shohchow	湖州	142,314	Wuyuan, Sha	五原	18,385
Showyang	壽陽	175,037	Yangcheng	陽城	186,423
Siahsien	夏縣	104,442	Yangkao	陽高	100.115
Siangling	裏 陵	42,850	Yicheng	翼 城	92,742
Siangning	鄉蜜	68,018	Yingchow	應州	85,310
Singyuan	襄垣	140,398	Yoyang	岳陽	50.805
Siaoyi	孝義	119,451	Yüankü		99.856
Sichow	隰 州	53,124	Yühsien, Sha	盂縣	85.250
Sinchow, Sha	好 州	156.205	Yungho	Trans.	76.867
Soping	朔 平	98,850	Yunghwo	永和	16.325
Sukow	徐溝	46,631	Yungning		157.097
Taichow, Sha	代州	131.608	Yüshe		45.001
Taiku	太谷	123.62/	Yusiang	1.0	52.181
Taiping, Sha	太平	79,589	Yütse	榆次	132.559
	76				
					11.080.827

HONAN DISTRICT.

A.Y.							
Name			Population	Name			Population
Romanised	Chin	ese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chin	ese	(Approximate)
Changko	長	葛	199,662	Loshan	羅	Ш	372,794
Changte, Ho	彰	德	294,265	Lushan	魯	ılı	189,586
Checheng	柘	城	289,250	Lushih, Ho	盧	氏	211,220
Chenchow, Ho	陳	州	1,572,960	Luyi	麁	邑	696,666
Chengchow	鄭	州	246,089	Menghsien	孟	縣	213,134
Chengyang, Ho	正	陽	205,666	Mengtsing	孟	津	112,029
Chenliu	陳	留	298,941	Mienchih	澠	池	89,332
Chenping	鎭	革	375,198	Mihsien	密	縣	289,074
Chihsien	淇	縣	89,513	Miyang	泌	陽	283,904
Chungmow	中	牟	179,269	Nanchao	南	召	184,827
Fengkiu	封	邱	127,751	Nanyang, S	南	陽	657,725
Fukow	-	溝	225,669	Neihwang	內	黄	184,025
Hiangcheng		城	179,638	Neisiang	内	鄉	401,325
Honanfu	河下	有府	591,037	Ningling	甯	陵	113,547
Hoyin	र्गा	陰	55,406	Paofeng		豐	151,602
Hsüchow	許	州	290,062	Shanchow	陝	141	143,177
Hwahsien		縣	596,887	Shangcheng	商	城	195,950
Hwaiking	懐	慶	482,629	Shangshui	商	水	230,127
Hweihsien	輝	縣	201,067	Shangtsai	Ŀ	蔡	469,260
Hwokia	獲	嘉	134,108	Shehsien	洪	縣	148,521
Iyang	伊	陽	142,129	Shenkiu	沈	邱	287,283
Juchow	汝	州	423,851	Siangcheng, Ho		城	302,909
Jungtseh	滎	澤	44,181	Siayi	夏	邑	179,712
Jungyang		陽	179,313	Sichwan		川	273,562
Juning		THE.	580,217	Sihsien		縣	271,995
Kaifeng	開	封	972,391	Sihwa		華	369,296
Kaocheng, Ho		城	152,702	Sinan, Ho		安	107.965
Kiahsien	婡	縣	230,223	Sincheng, Ho	新	鄭	197,913
Kihsien, Ho		縣	431,366	Sinisiang	417	鄉	214,072
Kioshan		山	209,105	Sintsai		蔡	287.932
Kunghsien		縣	278,558	Sinyang		陽	394,451
Kushih, Ho		始	506,335	Sinyeh	新	野	406.132
Kwangchow, Ho	/ -	州	355,492	Siping		平	234,102
Kwangshan		山	666,688	Siuwu		武	166,663
Kweiteh		德	326,444	Suichow, Ho	14777	州	401,617
Lanfeng	170	封	183,788	Suiping		平	233,906
Linchang	d bete	漳	150.980	Sunghsien	15.23	縣	309,553
Lingpao	24.	習	126.504	Sünhsien	溶	縣	281,120
Linhsien	林	縣	315.629	Szeshui	池	水	123.430
Linying	臨	潁	249,783	Taikang	太	康	414,703

HONAN DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name			Population	Name	Population		
Romanised	Chin	ese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese		(Approximate)
Tanghsien, Ho Tangyin Tengchow Tengfeng Tsiyüan Tungpeh Tungsü Weichwan Weihwei Wenhsien Wensiang Wuan Wuchih Wuyang	湯鄧登濟桐通洧衞溫閱武武	縣陰州封源柏許川輝縣鄉安陟陽	327,122 190,309 587,335 212,740 241,312 185,933 281,372 149,604 137,033 183,393 55,500 316,127 296,491 397,232	Yangwu Yehsien Yencheng, Ho Yenling Yenshih Yentsing Yiyang Yüanwu Yücheng Yüchow, Ho Yühchow Yungcheng Yungning, Ho Yüshih	鄢偃延宜原虞禹裕永	武縣城陵師津陽武城州州城甯氏	115,786 247,509 267,640 278,141 194,067 91,115 198,188 52,854 159,868 452,145 423,593 387,079 199,763 245,771

SHENSI DISTRICT.

Ansi	安	塞	15,447	Hancheng	韓	城	95,500
Anting, She	安	定	41,445	Hanchung	漢	中	176,609
Changwu	長	武	37,850	Hanyin	漢	陰	127,513
Chapyi	朝	邑	118,045	Hingan, She	與	安	341,767
Chenan, She	鎮	安	251,000	Hingping	與	平	209,640
Chengku	城	固	221,629	Hoyang	部	陽	135,905
Chowchih	盐	屋	93.551	Huhsien	那	縣	98,970
Chungpu	F	部	20,665	Hwachow	華	111	132,146
Chunhwa	淳	化	39,678	Hwaiyüan, She	懷	遠	10,480
Chwanping	磚	坪	57,383	Hwayin	華	陰	109,193
Fenghsien. She	鳳	縣	43,452	Ichün	宜	君	7,290
Fengsiang	鳳	翔	172,148	Ichwan	宜	jij	80,000
Foping	佛	25	24,000	Kanchüan	#	泉	6,100
Fuchow, She	庭区	州	23.872	Kaoling	高	陵	65,000
Fufeng	扶	風	121,888	Kiachow	農	州	94,818
Fuku	府	谷	15,175	Kienchow	乾	州	134,913
Fuping	富	本	158,000	Kienyang	汧	陽	54,347
	4.4.0		1	11	#/:k	100	

SHENSI DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name		Population
Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)
Kingyang Kishan Lantien Lichüan Lintung Linyu Lioyang Liupa Lochwan Lonan Lungchow, She Meihsien Micheh Mienhsien Ningkiang Ningshen Paiho Paishui She Paoan, She Paocheng Paoki Pinchow, She Pingli Pucheng, She Sanshui Sanyüan, She Shangchow Shangnan	米沔寧寧白白保褒寶邠平蒲三三商脂縣羌陝河水安城雞州利城水原州	143,519 11,630 10,597 124,443 93,000 91,358 152,648 163,677 50,256 116,920 229,746	Shanyang Shenmu Shinchüan Sian Siaoyi, She Sienyang Sisiang Suiteh Sünyang Tengcheng Tingpien Tingyüan, She Tsingkien Tsingkien Tungchow, She Tungkwan, She Tungwan, She Tungwan, She Weinan Wukung Wupu Yanghsien Yaochow Yenan Yenchang Yenchwan Yülin Yungshow	之清 靖同潼同紫渭武 吳洋耀延延延檢潤 邊州關官陽南功堡縣州安長 川林	213,852 18,530 50,842 701,573 41,282 89,940 226,269 147,831 141,000 243,581 33,000 98,902 66,470 56,846 143,364 38,746 32,500 22,131 194,319 143,652 68,870 214,110 39,283 16,967 12,863 67,431 85,216 33,893
	I	KANSU	DISTRICT.	1	
Ansi, Kan Anting, Kan Changhsien Chenfan Chenghsien. Kan Chengning Chenyüan, Kan	安潭鎮成正	86,635 46,998 205,229 168,774 18,182	Chungwei, Chwanglang Fukiang Fuyi Haicheng, Kan Hochow, Kan	莊伏撫海河	81,240 47,660 208,214 81,795 57,231 185,880 16,984

KANSU DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name		POPULATION	
Romanised	Chin	ese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese	⟨Approximate⟩
Hungshui	紅	水	13,675	Payenjungko	巴北戎格	25,496
Hwamachih	花思		10,583	Pingfan		103.958
Hwaping	化	平	20,320	Pingliang		66,598
Hwating, Kan	華	亭	25,714	Pinglo, Kan		48.679
Hweihsien, Kan	徽	縣	104,387	Pingyüan	平 遠	24,409
Hweining	會	Title.	56,600	Shantan	山丹	79,282
Kaichow Kan	階	州	3,500	Shunhwa, Kan	循化	70.000
Kanchow	甘	州	72,528	Siho, Kan		96.644
Kaotai	高	臺	43,923	Siku	西固	27.034
Kingchow, Kan	\ <u>\w</u>	州	68,650	Sincheng, Kan	新城	45,403
Kingyang, Kan	慶	陽	85,015	Sining	西宵	174,674
Kinhsien	金	縣	46,222	Suchow, Kan	肅 州	50,187
Kinta	金	塔	7,857	Taitzesze	太子寺	41,023
Kulang	古	浪	54,175	Tangar	丹噶爾	16.150
Kungchang	鞏	昌	92,619	Taochow, Kan	挑 州	53,497
Kuyüan	固	原	68,718	Taosha	池 沙	16,382
Kweiteh, Kan		德	13,232	Titao		121,856
Lanchow	蘭	州	368,608	Tsinan, Kan		186,036
Liangchow	凉	州	199,704	Tsinchow, Kan		382,453
Liangtang		当	27,009	Tsingning		140.144
Lihsien, Kan		縣	85,466	Tsingshui		86,195
Lingchow	製	州	37,824	Tsingyüan, Kan .		1.04,845
Lingtai		臺	62,732	Tsungsin		21,340
Lungteh	隆	德	46,085	Tunglo		40,555
Maomu	毛	目	5,876	Tungwei		123,879
Maopaisheng	毛	伯勝	47,374	Tunhwang	敦煌	15,029
Minchow		州	118,402	Wanhsien, Kan		9,384
Nienpai		伯	78,444	Weiyüan, Kan		30,125
Ningchow, Kan .	验	州	94,023	Wenhsien, Kan .	文 縣	107,041
Ningling, Kan		震	36,566	Yümen		11,867
Ningsia		是	45,178	Yungchang, Kan	永 昌	50,383
Ningyüan, Kan	篮	遠	199,202			
						5,927,997

SINKIANG DISTRICT.

Changki, Sin	昌 吉	16,217	Chohchiang	劫法	:: Y:	4,646
Chenghwasze	承化量	4,730	Fukang	13	康	5,922
Chensi	貓 沉	9,278	Fuyüan	李	源	7,350
Chimunai	舌木乃	4,400	Hami	μŞ	12:	14,795

SINKIANG DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name		Population
Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)
Hoerhkwosze Hotien, Sin Hweiyüan Kaishi Kitai Kuche Lohpu Luntai Ningyüan, Sin Pachu Paicheng Pishan, Sin Puerhtsinho	和惠伽吉庫洛輪甯巴拜皮爾津	2,696 216,174 22,498 76,560 50,142 46,635 197,750 21,084 116,250 56,889 14,580 65,039 3,430	Shuleh Sinping Soche Suilai Suiting Tahcheng Tihwa Tsingho Turfan Wensuh Wensuhlaocheng Wushih	迪精吐溫溜鳥烏花河番宿城	7,572 6,335 243,520 27,971 54,166 14,514 63,849 4,862 112,518 67,706 51,275 62,508 5,333
Puli	鄯沙沙	9,899 81,160 4,055 3,691 249,996	Yangihissar Yehcheng Yenki, Sin Yütien, Sin	葉紫耆	128,096 157,549 54,988 150,951

MANCHURIA DISTRICT.

	•		A DIOIMICH		
Aigun	璦 琿	21,962	Chwangho	莊 河	27,329
Ankwang		2,565	Faku		22.182
Anta		7,500	Fangcheng, Kir		45,541
Antu		14,118	Fenghwa, Feng		13,197
Antung	安東	57,699	Fenghwangcheng	鳳凰城	11.290
Ashiho		20,539	Fuchin	富錦	57,100
Changling, Kir	長嶺	132,508	Fuchow	復州	442,906
Changpai	長自	18,796	Fushun	撫順	180,841
Changshow, Kir.	長壽	21,954	Fusung	撫 松	7.736
Changtu	昌圖	435,488	Haicheng	海城	569,966
Changwu, Feng	彰 武	5,575	Hailun	海倫	265,918
Changwucheng	昌五城	6,080	Hailung	海龍	17,811
Chanyü	瞻榆	2,745	Harbin	哈爾濱	365,000
Chaochow, Hei	肇 州	208.864	Hingking	與京	12,577
Chenan	鎮安	22,506	Holung	和龍	138.968
Chentung, Feng.	鎮東	2.240	Hulan	呼蘭	227.702
Chinchow	錦州	305,987	Hulin	虎 林	9,204

MANCHURIA DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name		Population
Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)
Hulun	呼倫	32,850	Newchwang	牛 莊	82,100
Huma	呼瑪	1,522	Ninguta	甯古塔	13,248
Hunchun		7.178	Ningyüan, Feng .	電 遠	160,918
Hwachwan	樺川	39,648	Noho	訥 河	2,742
Hwaijen	懐仁	6,710	Nungan	農安	362,020
Hwaite	懷德	562,695	Nünkiang	嫩江	52,384
Hweinan	輝南	65,065	Omu	額程	46,185
Ichow	義州	248,600	Paichüan	拜 泉	250,501
ltung	伊通	35,034	Pakiohtai	八角台	5.592
Jaoho	饒 河	8,430	Panshan	盤山	164,800
Kaiping, Feng	蓋平	440,169	Panshih	磐石	161,301
Kaitung	開通	1 ,355	Paotsing, Kir	寶 清	1,375
Kaiyüan	開原	364,415	Payen, Hei	巴產	234,655
Kangping	康平	180,539	Pehtwanlintze	北團林子	191,697
Kilalin	吉拉林	not obtainable	Penki	本 溪	28,920
Kingsingchen	景星鎮	5,180	Pinchow	省 州	307,827
Kinhsien	金縣	not obtainable	Poli	勃利	not obtainable
Kinsi	錦西	12,000	Pusi	布 西	1,500
Kırin	吉林府	540,214	Sanchan	三站	5,484
Kwanchengtze	寬城子	147,378	Sansing	三姓	36,325
Kwangning	廣富	25,303	Shulan	舒蘭	3,986
Kwankai	官街	131,636	Shwangcheng	雙城	40,228
K.wantien	寬甸	584,040	Shwangshanchen	雙山鎮	18,819
Lansi	蘭 西	11,850	Shwangyangho	雙陽河	274,471
Liaochung	遼 中	290,373	Sian, Feng	西安	255,679
Liacyang	遼 陽	762,240	Sifeng	西豊	14,033
Liaoyüan	遼 源	115,317	Sincheng, Kir	新城	49,008
Lichüan, Feng	醴泉	2,635	Sinmin	新民	52,246
Linkiang, Feng	路江	70,312	Siuyen	岫巖	6,922
Linkiang, Kir	臨江	5,839	Solunshan	索倫山	1,425
Liuho	柳河	30,470	Suichung	綏 中	15,457
Lopeh	蘿 北	3,800	Suileng	綏楞	38,687
Lungchen	龍 鎮	1,750	Suitung	綏 東	1,255
Lupin	臚 濱	19,650	Suiyüan	綏 遠	1.473
Mengkiang	濛江	14.117	Tailaichi	泰來氣	42,616
Mishan	密山	37,096	Talai	大 查	11,460
Moho	漠 河	1.250	Tangyüan	湯原	7.200
Moukden	奉天府	759,538	Taonan	洮 南	17,219
Mulan	木 蘭	25,598	Teihwei	德惠	1,795
Muling	穆稜	1,593	Tiehling	鐵嶺	323,653

MANCHURIA DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name	Population		
Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	
Tiehshanpao Tsian Tsingan, Feng Tsingkang, Hei Tsitsihar Tungho, Hei Tunghwa Tungning Tungpeh, Hei Tungping	輯請青齊通通東	51,340 21,326	Tungtsichen Tunhwa Wangching Wangkwei Wuchang, Kir Wuyün Yenki Yüking Yüshu	東敦汪望五烏延餘楡集	1,355 43,599 4,400 146,641 251,874 1.165 144, 686 124,081 21,584	

SHANTUNG DISTRICT.

Ankiu	安	厨	466,720	Kaotang	高	唐		183,396
Changi	昌	邑	452,415	Kaoyüan	高	苑		71.937
Changkiu	章	邱	443,791	Kiaochow	膠	州		621.135
Changlo	昌	線	207,110	Kiasiang	嘉	祥		148,767
Changshan, Sung	長	Ill	223,195	Kinsiang, Sung	金	鄉		205.900
Changtsing	長	清	320,077	Kiuhsien	邱	縣		79,229
Chanhwa	霑	化	229,814	Küfow	曲	阜		173.873
Chaocheng, Sung	朝	城	129,831	Küyeh, Sung	鉅	野		353,752
Chaoyüan	招	遠	269,028	Kwancheng	粗	城		68.488
Chengwu	功龙	武	154,138	Kwanhsien	冠	縣		93.854
Chihping	茬	车	210,869	Kwantao	館	绮		171,492
Chucheng	諸	执	740,000	Laichow	萊	州		444.064
Chüchow, Sung .	苦	111	819,238	Laiwu	萊	礁		361,769
Enhsien	恩	縣	231,382	Laiyang	萊	陽		621.213
Fanhsien	范	縣	153,540	Linchü	E Tri	前		386.564
Feicheng	肥	劫龙	275,347	Linghsien	陵	縣		160,806
Feihsien	些	縣	412,100	Lintsing	Bhi	清		285,068
Fushan, Sung	福	ili	199,641	Lintze	Pin	淄		144,097
Haifeng	海	曹	181,687	Linyi	Fire	邑		138.164
Haiyang, Sung	海	陽	276.371	Litsing	利	津:		136,504
Hwanghsien	黄	縣	371,595	Loan, Sung		安		282,371
Ichow, Sung	沂	州	661.748	Loling		陵	4	224.192
Ishui	沂	水	531,232	Mengyin	崇	陰		179.642
Jihchao	H	照	471.000	Ninghai		湘		415,720
Jungcheng, Sung	祭	成	188 687	Ningyang		773		301.223
Kaomi	高	密	410,779	Pinchow, Sung		州		210,000

SHANTUNG DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		POPULATION NAME		Population	
Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese	e (Approximate)
Pingtu Pingyin Pingyüan, Sung Pohsing Poping Poshan Puchow Putai Shangho Shanhsien Showchang, Sung Showkwang	医陰原與平山州台河縣張光	685,000 140,134 154,867 200,893 170,006 130,534 326,546 96,510 285,076 393,033 261,014 462,416	Tsimo Tsinan Tsingcheng Tsingchow Tsingping Tsining Tsisia Tsitung Tsiyang Tsowhsien Tsowping Tunga	即濟青青清濟棲齊濟鄒鄒東	墨 515,880 621,039 妨 52,528 M 244,894 平 124,400 空67,015 226,307 219,391 250,000 緊 251,465 147,616
Siatsing Sincheng, Sung Sinhsien, Sung Sintai, Sung Szeshui, Sung Taian Tancheng Tangyi Fehchow Tehping Tengchow, Sung . Fenghsien Tingtao Fsaochow Tsaohsien Fsiho	夏新莘新四泰郯堂德德登滕定曹曹津城縣泰水安城邑州平州縣陶州縣	166,771 192,031 620,675 341,808 172,727 257,682 233,873 277,865 588,679 130,660 319,431 379,521	Tungchang, Sung Tungping, Sung Tzechwan Weihsien Wenshang Wucheng Wuthing Yangku Yangsin Yenchow, Sung Yücheng, Sung Yücheng, Sung Yücheng, Sung Yütai	東淄濰汝文武武陽陽兗峄禹鄆	目 187,013 352,064 273,290 392,182 382,399 378,411 155,030 331,718 268,448 229,120 167,367 298,624 182,890 429,820 167,433

SZECHUAN DISTRICT.

Anhsien Anyo Changming Changning, Sze Changshow, Sze Chaohwa	安彰長長	縣岳明寧壽化	734,949 101,277 199,017 521,659	Chengkow Chengtu Chuhsien Chungchow Chungkiang Chungking	成渠忠中	口都縣州江縣	124,220 422,516 583,053 394,185 716,585 1,011,597
Chaokioh	昭	化覺	93,874	Chungking Chungking, W	亩	慶慶	1,011,597 351,486

SZECHUAN DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name			Population	
Romanised	Chinese		(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese		(Approximate)
Fengtu	豐厂	都	399,142	Liangshan	 梁	Ш	468,195
Fowchow		州	965,650	Lifan	理	番	28,637
Fushun, Sze	當	順	923,558	Linshui	鄰	水	274,215
Hanchow		州	326,752	Lochih	樂	至	329,678
Hochow, Sze		州	618,888	Lokiang	羅	江	125,973
Hokiang		T.	427,186	Luchow	瀘	州	1,129,740
Hingwen		文	111,307	Lungan	龍	安	128,085
Hungya		雅	252,965	Lungchang	隆	昌	314,724
Hwayang		湯	787,245	Lushan, Sze	蘆	Ш	41.719
Hweili		理	301,303	Mapien	馬	邊	51,533
Ilung		龍	313,939	Meichow	眉	州	365.245
Jenshow, Sze		壽	890,325	Mienchow	綿	州	329,663
Jungchang			334,797	Mienchu	綿	竹	262.445
Junghsien, Sze		縣	605,624	Mienning	冕	鑑	101,959
Jungking		W	93,279	Mingshan	名	Th	138,402
Kaihsien	開	縣	616,617	Mowchow	茂	州	43,056
Kaohsien		縣	147,675	Mowkung	懋	功	13.758
Kiakiang		I	149,788	Nachi	納	溪	69.950
Kiangan, Sze		安	329,520	Nanchwan	南	III	338.811
Kiangpeh		北	565,670	Nanki	南	溪	309,290
Kiangtsing		津	809 239	Nankiang	南	II	216,566
Kiangyu		油	373,975	Nanpu	南	部	612,320
Kiating		定	374,735	Neikiang	內	江	486.823
Kienchownan		州	812,288	Ningyüan, Sze	弧	遠	409.211
Kienchowpeh		州	361,601	Omei	峨	眉	150.354
Kienkiang		IJ.	127,324	Opien	峨	邊	53,971
Kienwei		為	498,933	Pachow, Sze	巴	州	651.021
Kikiang		Π.	540,344	Paoning	保	垃圾	359,865
Kingfu		符	149,700	Pengan	蓬	安	330.307
Kintang	金	堂	578,435	Penghsien	彭	縣	279.725
Kiungchow, Sze		州	368,364	Pengki	蓬	溪	359,539
Kulin	2	藺	255,470	Pengshan	彭	山	120,328
Kunghsien, Sze		縣	113,808	Pengshui	彭	水	301,605
Künlien		連	62,312	Pihsien	躯	縣	175.673
Kusung		宋	86,215	Pingshan, Sze	屏	山	256.604
Kwangan		安	652,376	Pishan	辟	Ш	362,240
Kwangyüan		完	337,880	Pukiang, Sze	蒲	II.	119.278
Kwanhsien, Sze		縣	444.881	Shehung		洪	440.033
Kweichow, Sze		州	563,031	Shihchu	石	柱	207.584
Leipo		波	73,980	Shihchüan, Sze	石	泉	122,293

SZECHUAN DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name	Name		Name	Population	
Romanised	(hinese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)
Shihfang Shunking Shwangliu Sichung Sinfan Sinning, Sze Sintsing Sintu Siushan Süchow, Sze Suining, Sze Suiting, Sze Suiting, Sze Taning Tachu Taiping, Sze Taning Tanleng Tatsu Tayi Tehyang Tienchüan Tienkiang Tingyüan, Sze Tsangki Tsingki, Sze Tsingshen	什順雙西新新新新系敘遂級松大太大丹大大德天墊定蒼清青就慶流充繁寧津都山州寧定潘竹平寧稜足邑陽全江遠溪溪神	177,663 642,332 108,224 263,615 80,029 293,383 156,484 129,737 324,713 694,583 597,321 735,693 36,499 426,751 205,141 149,646 85,731 372,453 289,618 209,573 175,387 404,077 316,505 223,549 117,098 116,743	Tsingyüan Tsungning Tungan, Sze Tungchwan Tungkiang Tungliang Tungsiang Tzechow Tzetung, Sze Tzeyang Wanhsien Weiyüan, Sze Wenchwan Wenkiang Wushan Yachow Yenpien Yenting Yenyüan Yingshan, Sze Yochih Yüehsi Yungchwan Yungning, Sze Yünyang Yuyang	東潼通銅東資梓資萬威汝溫巫雅鹽鹽鹽營安川江梁鄕州滝陽縣遠川江山州邊亭源山	167,934 64,480 605,267 1,046,621 240,840 588,290 417,443 723,358 171,596 577,605 751,834 348,684 24,305 203,574 164,483 130,974 57,433 229,113 178,230 323,857 483,161 107,439 356,266 353,955 478,169 479,964
		HUPEH D	II DISTRICT.		
Anlu	安長長枝竹竹房漢陸樂陽江谿山縣川	560,811 81,173 195,900 182,822 222,260 268,489 275,273 425,016	Hankow Hanyang Hingkwo Hingshan, Hup Hofeng Hwangan Hwangehow Hwangmei	漢漢興興鶴黃黃黃口陽國山峯安州梅	289,804 456,312 626,112 100,453 166,006 445.068 1,052,857 442,963

HUPEH DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name			Population	NAME	Population			
Romanised	Chir	nese	⟨Approximate⟩	Romanised	Chinese		(Approximate)	
Hwangpei	遺	陂	823,391	Shihnan	施	南	309.973	
lchang		昌	448,509	Shihshow		首	191.892	
Icheng	第.	城	396,609	Siangyang		陽	685,076	
ltu	苗	都	278,842	Siaokan	孝	感	724,809	
Xiayü	嘉	魚	182,844	Sienfeng	咸	曹	222.091	
Kichow, Hup	蘄	144	540,856	Sienning		葡	191.978	
Kienli	监	利	725,512	Süanen		恩	200.391	
Kienshih	建	始	207,873	Suichow, Hup		州	1,179,938	
Kingchow		州	721,611	Sungtze	松	135	366.071	
Kingmen		PH	620,326	Tangyang		陽	314.471	
Kingshan	京	ili	649,409	Tayeh	大	冶	434.011	
Kishui	號	水	535,620	Teian		安	252,475	
Kucheng, Hup		城	368,827	Tienmen	天	闸	887,330	
Künchow	均	44	228,316	Tsaoyang		陽	587.493	
Kungan	公	安	312,676	Tsienkiang	湾	iT.	383,053	
K∙vanghwa		化	201,623	Tsungyang	崇	陽	194.286	
Kwangtsi	廣	濟	352,131	Tungcheng, Hup.	浦	城	184,535	
Kweichow, Hup .	歸	44	190,511	Tungshan	通	Ill	121.078	
Laifeng		鳳	159,932	Wuchang	武	昌	597,967	
Lichwan	利	Л	217,419	Wuchang, E	武昌	東	483.617	
Lotien	羅	H	223,159	Yingcheng		功龙	357.465	
Macheng ,	麻	城	939,948	Yingshan, Hup	應	Ili	571,704	
Mienyang	酒	陽	726,809	Yüanan	遠	安	106.825	
Nanchang, Hup		漳	411,987	Yünmeng		崇	221.613	
Paokang	保	康	101,176	Yünsi	真	西	249,923	
Patung	巴	東	195,827	Yünyang	湄	陽	383,496	
Puchi		折	205,621		Pala	1		
	8358	771					27.167,244	

HUNAN DISTRICT.

Anfu	安	福		Chengpu	4.6.4	州	326.190 200,000
Anhwa, Hun Anjen	安	化仁	195,709	Chenki	辰	步谿	270.000
Ansiang	安茶	鄉陵		Fenghwang Hanshow		鳳壽	193,4 97 302,222
Changning	725	衛		Hengehow, Hun Hengshan, Hun	衡	州山	1,670,000
Changteh		沙德		Hingning, Hun		蓝	161,120

HUNAN DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name			Population (Approximate)	
Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chi	nese		
Hwajung	華容	7,000	Sangchih	桑	柏	200,300	
Hwangchow, Hun	晃州	135,000	Shenchow	辰	M	570,000	
Hweitung, Hun .	會同	210,824	Shihmen, Hun	石	PH	346,448	
Ichang, Hun	宜章	245,165	Siangsiang	湘	鄉	1,069,207	
Kiaho	嘉禾	167,485	Siangtan	湘	潭	300,000	
Kianghwa	江華	not obtainable	Siangyin	湘	陰	539,245	
Kienchow, Hun	乾州	130,000	Sinhwa	新	化	842,780	
Kienyang, Hun	黔陽	300,508	Sinning	新	40°	250,000	
Kiyang	祁 陽	910,754	Sintien	新	111	339,307	
Kuchangping	古丈坪	86,533	Suining	充安	400	not obtainable	
Kweitung	桂 東	219,384	Süpu	滋	illi	513,408	
Kweiyang, Hun .	桂陽	483,800	Taochow	道	44	338,721	
Kweiyang, Hun,E		138,720	Taoyüan	桃	源	1,012,847	
Lanshan	山温	174,239	Tsingchow, Hun.	请	州	96,870	
Leiyang	来 州	570,553	Tungan, Hun	東	安	not obtainable	
Lichow	灃州	454,287	Tungtao	通	道	64.200	
Liling	醴陵	713,482	Tzeli	慈	利	382.89 2	
Linsiang	臨 湘	310,189	Wukang, Hun	正	[治]	386,421	
Linwu	臨 武	135,000	Yiyang, Hun	益	陽	894,800	
Liuyang	瀏陽	897,858	Yochow	岳	州	579.610	
Luki	瀘 溪	189,824	Yüanchow	沅	州	280.351	
Lungshan	龍山	253,794	Yüankiang, Hun	沉	II,	116,419	
Mayang	麻陽	180,490	Yuhsien	攸	県系	325.016	
Nanchow	南洲	234,733	Yungchow	永	州	517,287	
Ninghsien	部、原系	118,350	Yunghing, Hun	永	睡	334.83 2	
Ningsiang	塞 鄉	600,000	Yungming	永	明	not obtainable	
Ningyüan, Hun .	等 遠	295,744	Yungshun	永	順	not obtainable	
Paoking	資 慶	1,085,745	Yungsui	水	綏	85,832	
Paotsing	保靖	not obtainable	Yungting	永	定	1 83,39 8	
Pingkiang	平江	587,403					
						28,443,279	
		,	1			Participation of the Control of the	
		KIANGSI	DISTRICT.				
Anfu	安 福	262,533	Fengsin	奉	新	224,148	
Ani	安義	309,588	Feni	分	宜	335,340	

Antu	安 福	262,533	Fengsin	素	新	224,148
Ani	安義	309,588	Feni	杂	H	335,340
Anjen, Ki	安仁	145,293	Fowliang	77	141	531,918
		189,131	Fuchow, Ki	抽	州	206,737
Changning, Ki	長 窓	184,055	Hingan	INI		77,665
Fengcheng	豊城	653,530	Hingkwo, Ki	與	或	305,238

KIANGSI DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name		POPULATION	
Romanised	Chinese	⟨Approximate⟩	Romanised	Chines	e	(Approximate)
Hukow	湖口	183,264	Pingsiang	萍	鄉	675,662
Hweichang	會昌	195,904	Shangkao		高	525,883
Ihwang		217,587	Shangyiu		猶	102,863
Ining	義常	85,424	Shihcheng		城	158,420
Iyang, Ki		162,698	Siakiang		I	389,630
Jaochow	饒州	660,918	Sinchang, Ki		昌	430,609
Juichang	瑞昌	207,628	Sincheng, Ki		城	145,549
Juichow	瑞州	507,114	Sinfeng, Ki		豐	103,009
Juikin	瑞金	522,704	Sinkan	新	釜	247,320
Kanchow, Ki	贛州	449,021	Sinkien		建	911,351
Kian	吉安	1,143,040	Sinyü		燥	296,992
Kienchang	建昌	209,811	Taiho, Ki		和和	123,695
Kienchang, N			Tehhing		與	124,408
Kiennan	度南	121,910	Teian, Ki		安安	102,379
Kinki	金谿	132,880	Tingnan, Ki	定定	女南	93,651
Ki hui, Ki		258,292	Tsingan		安安	198,192
Kiukiang		380,616	Tsinsien	進	及賢	234,396
Kwangchang, Ki	9-3-4 p-9	123,886	Tsungjen		貝仁	315,500
Kwangfeng	triffet was	107,072	Tsungyi		心義	174.694
Kwangsin	廣信	329,699	Tuchang, Ki	崇都	我昌	465.147
Kweiki	1	106,083	Tungku, Ki		ョ 鼓	151,536
Lienhwa	5 P.L. 17 -	144,012	Tungsiang, Ki		鄉	138,135
Linkiang	臨江	278,568	Wanan, Ki		安	194.463
Loan	156 00 a	393,308	Wannien		年	153,664
Loping	樂平	252,636	Wantsai		中載	508.948
Lungchüan, Ki	龍泉	304,537	Wuning	萬武	戦富	294.666
Lungnan	.⊋h -/-	122,642	Yüanchow, Ki		用州	355,218
Luki, Ki	瀘 溪	54,749	Yüanshan			553,185
Nanan	南安	57,917	Yükan	鉛	山土	259.000
Nanchang	南昌	899,539	Yungfeng, Ki			517.338
Nanfeng	前豐	183,180			豐富	131 271
Nankang, Ki	南康	1,168,635	Yungning, Ki	水		286 230
Nankang, Ki, S			Yungsin		新	236.769
Ningtu	甯 都	481,119	Yüshan		Щ ж.г.	336,118
Pengtseh	彭澤	129,450	Yütu	雲	都	0.70(110
		120,700				24,466,800
		KIANGSU	DISTRICT.			
Antung, Ku	安東	490,180		鎚:	T. 1	477.591
Changchow, Ku	常州	771,715	Fenghsien		III	291.562
Changshu, Ku .	常熟		Fowning		常響	1,037,329

KIANGSU DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name			Population	Name		POPULATION
Romanised	Chin	ese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)
Haichow Hinghwa Hwaian, Ku Icheng, Ku Jukao Kanyü Kaoshun Kaoyu Kiangpu	儀宜如赣高高江	州化安徵興皋楡淳郵浦於	408,412 567,092 737,526 219,362 521,586 1,012,094 462,888 161,347 583,447 205,853 607,038	Shuyang Siaohsien Sinpichow Soochow Süchow Suining, Ku Sutsien Szeyang Taichow, Ku Taihing	沫蕭新蘇徐睢宿泗泰泰 邳 陽縣州州州寧遷陽州與山	556,476 339,767 636,040 1,027,091 826,083 501.867 580,790 614,522 1,050,984 895,582 236,997
Kiangyin Kintan Küyung Lishui Liyang, Ku Luho Nanking Panpu Paoying Patzekiao, N Peihsien	一金句漂漂六南板寶	陰壇容水陽合京浦應北縣	162,290 197,790 165,825 316,297 243,645 902,441 575,150 411,497 162,561 300,275	Tangshan, Ku Tanyang Tsingkiang Tungchow Tungtai, Ku Wukiang, Ku Wusih Yangchow Yencheng	陽丹靖清通東 吳無揚鹽 江 山陽江浦州臺江錫州城	725,436 343,362 488,202 1,282,546 1,269,476 492,205 804,346 1,516,176 1,089,331

SHANGHAI DISTRICT.

Chwansha Fengsien Haimen, Ku Kiating, Ku Kinshan Kunshan Nanhwei	奉海嘉金崑	至 226,000 634,700	Paoshan Shanghai Sungkiang Taitsang Tsingpu, Ku Tsungming	上松太	山海江倉浦明	327,100 1,538.500 343.200 355,600 222,800 717,300 5,550,200
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ANHUI DISTRICT.

Anking	4	EAST BULLY	455,450	Chiki, An	結	潭	103,220
Chaohsien	鱼	但至	407,154	Chüantsiao	至	村又	201,557
Chihchow	池	州		Chuchow, An	滌	州	157,685

ANHUI DISTRICT, (Continued).

NAME			Population (Approximate)	Name			Population (Approximate)
Romanised	Chin	ese		Romanised	Chi	iese	
Chuyi, An	肝	胎	100,850	Shihtai	石	埭	40,241
Fanchang	繁	昌	170,352	Showchow	壽	州	280,406
Fengtai, An	鳳	臺	408,437	Shucheng	舒	城	360,547
Fengyang	鳳	憲	293,885	Siuning	休	位。	157,999
Hanshan	含	ili	233,774	Suchow, An	宿	州	467,123
Hochow	和	州	240,118	Susung	宿	松	152,949
Hwaiyüan, An	懷	遠	594,738	Szechow	泗	州	674,822
Hweichow	徽	荊	479,799	Taiho	大	和	654,554
Hwokiu	霍	配	400,452	Taihu	太	湖	191,982
Hwoshan	霍	الله	261,979	Taiping, An		平	263,524
Ihsien	黑复	縣	88,785	Taiping, An S		(南)	69.577
Kienping	建	平	149,620	Tienchang	天	長	121.812
Kienteh	建	德	98,754	Tingyüan, An	定	遠	301.472
Kimen	祁	PE	130,437	Tsienshan	潛	ılı	574.986
Kinghsien	湿	縣	117,489	Tsingteh	旌	德	49.852
Kwangteh	廣	德	162,055	Tsingyang, An	青	陽	222,395
Kwoyang	渦	陽	501,543	Tungcheng	桐	城	914.368
Laian	來	安	71,329	Tungling, An	銅	凌	168,997
Lingpi	震	壁	248,600	Tungliu	東	流	88.471
Liuan	上	安	587,742	Wangkiang	望	II.	245.870
Lüchow, An	廬	州	1,816,111	Wuho		्गि	130.123
Lukiang	廬	江	437,843	Wuhu		湖	235.550
Mengcheng	夢	城	337,840	Wuwei		為	669.785
Nanling	南	陵	198,001	Wuyuan	2011	源	123.412
Ningkwo		國	426,223	Yingchow, An	讀	州	1.456.504
Ningkwo, S				Yingshan		ili	193.871
Pochow		州	376,749	Yingshang		Ŀ	324.670
	-6	711			0,4		
							19,832,665

CHEKIANG DISTRICT.

Anchi	华 :	吉	64,125	Chüchow, W	衢	1994	282,000
Changhing		與	32 3,585	Chuki, Che		PE	498,886
Changhwa	1	化	84,394	Fenghwa	奉	化	310,570
Changshan		ili		Fenshui	分	水	33,230
Chenghsien		縣		Fuyang		陽	136,784
Chinhai		海		Haining		40°	426,350
Chuchow	處	州	1 50,000	IIIaiyen	海	鹽	222,732

CHEKIANG DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name			POPULATION	Name			Population
Romanised	Chin	ese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chi	nese	(Approximate)
Hangchow	杭	州	729,948	Sinchang, Che	新	昌	287,753
Huchow	湖	州	1,036,394	Sincheng, Che	新	城	83,496
Hwangyen	黄	巖	573,747	Süanping	盲	平	65,847
Iwu	義	鳥	265,409	Suian	逐	安	144.726
Juian	瑞	安	541,559	Suichang	涿	昌	98.303
Kaihwa, Che	開	化	140,762	Sungyang	松	易	140,000
Kashan	嘉	善	255,010	Taichow	台	州	655.199
Kashing	嘉	睡	100,000	Taiping, Che	太	平	641.372
Kiangshan	江	Ш	261,002	Taishun	泰	順	197.614
Kinhwa	金	垂	191,500	Tangki	沙方	溪	116,996
Kingning	景	100	92,253	Tehtsing	德	清	83,128
Kingyüan, Che	慶	元	17.752	Tientai	天	台	444,190
Lanchi	隙	谿	128,838	Tinghai	定	海	352,000
Linan, Che	Sin	安	57,100	Tsingtien	THE	H	321,045
Lungchüan	W.	泉	128,980	Tsinyün	51.6 N. 1	雲	73.200
Lungyu	置	游	150,000	Tungsiang, Che	桐	绝影	185,000
Nantien, Che	角	田	15,600	Tunglu	桐间	屬	95,706
Ninghai, Che	Mi.	THE	178,163	Tungyang	東	陽	522,582
Ningpo	16°	波	2,172,320	Tzeki	交交	谿	500,000
Pinghu	4	湖	81,792	Wenchow	711	111	1.758.994
Pingyang, Che	平:	易	259,350	Wukang	武	康	2,668
Pukiang	油	江	122,279	Wuyi	H	鑢	86,565
Shangyü	.E	膜	310 726	Yenchow		州	138,165
Shaohing	紹	Bil.	1,217,534	Yotsing	级级	清	380,150
Shihmen	石	[11]	219,422	Yühang	餘	杭	174,000
Showchang	蒙	11	123,245	Yühwan	王	The state	125.859
Shunan	14.	安	142.635	Yungkang	永	展	245,429
Siangshan	泉	111	250,000	Yünhwo	要	和	56,850
Siaofeng	7:	HH	75,611	Yütsien	於	潛	44.705
Siaoshan	蕭	ili i	48,763	Yüyao	餘	处	654.599
Sienkü	仙	居	280,871				
							22,043,300
		1				1,	

FUKIEN DISTRICT.

Amoy	厦	pq	400,000	Changpu	75.	7.15 i	214,120
Anki	护	1/5	394,351	Changtai	4.	悲	70.007
Changehow	清	144	303,247	Chaoan	77	1/2	287,595
Changping, Fu	11.	या	151,794	Chengho	政	和	66,038

FUKIEN DISTRICT, (Continued).

NAME Romanised	Chir	nese	Population (Approximate)				Population (Approximate)
Romaniscu				Romaniscu	- Connected		
Chüanchow, Fu	泉	州	314,351	Ningteh	霊	德	172,259
Chungan	崇	安	117,618	Pinghwo	革	和	226,211
Diongloh	長	樂	300,733	Pingnan	屛	南	83,811
Engteng	永	定	148,923	Pingtankieh	平涯		122,860
Foochow	福	州	1,491,143	Pucheng	浦	城	176,742
Fuan	福	安	355,813	Quemoy	金	門	15,000
Funing	漏	验	230,616	Shahsien	沙	縣	138,270
Futing		鼎	176,981	Shanghang	Ě.	杭	19,960
Futsing	漏	清	443,341	Shaowu	邵	武	121.126
Haiteng	海	澄	393,545	Showning	壽	10 min.	74,535
Hinghwa, Fu	睡	14	376,447	Shunchang	順	昌	48,056
Hweian	惠	安	487,416	Sienyu	仙	遊	261,949
Inghek	永	福	271,436	Sungki	松	溪	62.485
Kienning	建	क्षेप स्मार	433,023	Taining	泰	नं क	118,052
Kienning, W	建霊		83,173	Tangshan	銅	Ш	30,000
Kienyang, Fu	建	陽	110,234	Tatien	大	田	150,878
Kutien	古	H	195,683	Tehwa	德	化	104.321
Kwangtseh		7 V	69,089	Tingchow, Fu	11	州	223.351
Kweihwa, Fu	歸	化	62,186	Tsianglo	將	樂	74.449
Lengyang	40°	洋	23,785	Tsingliu	清	流	82.590
Liencheng	連	城	171.836	Tungan	同	安	536.561
Lienkong	連	II.	222,008	Wuping	武	平	116,511
Loyüan	羅	源	157,138	Yenping	延	平	196,163
Lungyen		巖	147,610	Yuki	尤	溪	297,417
Mintsing		清	92,346	Yungan, Fu	永	安	191,663
Naman	南	安	322,986	Yungchun	永	春	160,479
Nantsing, Fu		靖	69,867	Yünsiao	雲	霄	9.861
Ninghwa		化	185,752				
	,						13,157,791

KWANGTUNG DISTRICT.

Aichow	崖	개	80,000	Chenping, Tung	舖	本	76,763
Canton	庸	州	1,367,680	Cheongkong	昌	I	35,362
Chaochow, Tung .		州	876,450	Chihing	thi	胂	. 138,670
		陽	875,559	Chikkai	赤	溪	84,870

POPULATION

KWANGTUNG DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		POPULATION	Name		Population
Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	Rom ·nised	Chinese	(Approximate)
Chonglok	長蝉	300,000	Manyün	萬縣	310,746
Chongning	長質		Mencheong	文 昌	419,201
Fachow	化州		Namhoi	南海	1,988,750
Fangcheng	防场		Namoa	南 澳	268,780
Fatkong	佛	7	Namtowshing	南頭城	134,460
Fayünshing	花縣功		Namyung	南雄	291,522
Fungchün	封川		Ngchün	吳 川	297,408
Fungshun	豊加	202,649	Pingyün	平 遠	130,000
Heungshan	香川	1,145,220	Poklo	博 羅	290,000
Hinging	與質	240,000	Puning	普 甯	494,250
Hoifung	海豐	628,780	Saining	西雷	498,620
Hoikin	開冕		Samshui	三水	188,860
Hoiping	開日	671,410	Shekshing		585,738
Hokshan	鶴山		Shiuchow	韶州	122,763
Hoping	和日		Shiuhing		726,825
Hoyün	河边		Suikai	邃 溪	301,000
Hweilai	惠多	288,760	Sunhing	新興	211,420
Hweitung	會同		Sunning	新甯	940.680
Jaoping	饒乙		Sunwui		1,230,770
Kanyen	感 息		Sunyi	信宜	337.060
Kaying			Süwen	徐聞	297,992
Kityang		657,349	Szewui	四會	210,360
Kiungchow	瓊り	586,780	Taileung	大 良	1.039,740
Kochow	高り		Taipu	大 埔	372,332
Koming			Takhing		263.120
Kwongning		385,690	Tanchow		300.973
Limchow	康少		Tenghai		439,364
Limko	Print I	48,680	Tingan		49,560
Linchow	連步	360.230	Tinpak		421,862
Lingshan	靈	388,420	Tsengshing		764,500
Lingshui	陵 フ	K 155,000	Tsingmai	澄邁	42,480
Linping, Tung	連 2	224,000	Tsingyün	813	716,307
Linshan, Tung	連 1	348,380	Tsungfa	從化	450,550
Lokchong		79,125	11		900,000
Lokwei	樂	107,795	Tungon	東安	472,690
Loting		£ 410.690	Waichow	惠州	420,000
Luichow	雷	H 382,763	11	000	262,953
Lukfung	· 陸~ 4	517,860			44,040
Lungchün	. 龍)	216,000	Yanping	恩平	325.300
Lungmoon	一龍	745,600	Yeungchun	陽春	364,208

KWANGTUNG DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name	Population			
Romanised	Chin	ese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese		(Approximate)
Yeungkong Yeungshan Yingtak	陽陽英	江山德	607,518 188,640 190,480	Yungan Yungyün Yüyüan	(28/2	安源源	179,620 156.887 89.870

KWANGSI DISTRICT.

Anfa	女	化	٤0,000	Kweishun	歸	順	200,000
Anting, Si	安	定	239,865	Laipin, Si	來	貨	120.000
Chanpin	鎭	邊	50,000	Laipo	勃	浦	112,460
Chaoping	昭	平.	_25,000	Lingchwan, Si	万百 島田	/11	124.167
Chenan, Si	鎭	安	130,000	Liucheng	柳	城	60,000
Chenkieh	鎮	結	43,935	Liuchow	柳	14	575,355
Chüanchow	全	州	397,725	Loshing	羅	功龙	52,347
Chungshan	鍾	Ш	_30,000	Loyung	能	容	60.000
Chungtu	中	渡	91,600	Luchwan	陸	川	190.710
Enlung	思	隆	150,000	Lungan, Si	隆	安	70.842
Enyang	恩	陽	70,700	Lungchow	龍	44	200.000
Fengi	奉	議	86,000	Lungming	龍	名	50,231
Fengshan, Si	鳳	山	160,000	Lungsheng	雅	用券	70.000
Fuchwan	富]1]	70,000	Matowhü	馬	頭墟	39.076
Haiyüan	海	淵	52,845	Mingkiang, Si	期	II	32.560
Hengchow	横	州	97,800	Mosün	武	宣	000,88
Hingan, Si	睡	安	60,000	Moy'in	武	彩	210,000
Hingyeh	興	業	80,000	Nama	那	馬	150,000
Hochih	河	池	165,000	Nanning	南	The state	300.000
Hohsien	賀	縣	200,000	Nantan	南	判·	101.214
Hsintu	信	都	56,000	Ningming	-गुर	明	14.000
Hwaiyüan	懷	遠	65,000	Paishan, Si	自	Ш	160.000
Ining Si	義	地	52,500	Paklow	北	流	300.000
Junghsien	疆虫	縣	209,259	Penchow	资	州	180.000
Jungytin	容	縣	245,000	Pinglo	4	樂	140.700
Kingyüan	康	遠		Pingnam	平	育	370 .000
Kungcheng, Si	恭	城	107,615	Pingsiang, Si	憑	祥;	50,000
Kwanyang	灌	陽	94,000	Pokpak	博	白	380.000
Kweibsien	貴	縣	328,597	Poseh	百	色	60,000
Kweilin	桂	林	526,442	Shanglin	上	林	103,112

KWANGSI DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name			Population	Name	Name			
Romanised	Chin	ese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese		⟨Approximate⟩	
Shangsze Shumkai Siangtu Silin Silung Sinning, Si Souyen Suilu Sünchow Szecheng Szelin	上半向西	思溪都林隆寧仁綠州城林	63,299 169,643 91,000 45,373 170,000 68,281 90,201 79,640 150,000 188,629 30,000	Tseungchow Tsinkong Tsochow Tunglan Waitsap Watlam Wingon, Si Wingshun Wuchow Yangli Yangso	象遷左東懷鬱永永梧養陽	州江州蘭集林安淳州利朔	80,000 68,500 13,703 138,656 230,000 570,000 77,507 128,000 348,220 18,579 87,590	
Szengen, N Taiping, Si Tengyün Tienho	太藤	北平縣河	97,453 36,008 94,500 84,890	Yungfu Yungkong	永永永	福康等	70,000 38,000 80,000 12,258,335	

YUNNAN DISTRICT.

Ami	阿迷	80,240	Heiyentsing	黑鹽井	23,780
Anning	安窓	56,995	Hoking	鶴慶	66,084
Atuntze	阿墩子	8,159	Hokow	河口	34,931
Chanta	盞 達	26,742	Hosi	河西	63,191
Chanyi	霑 益	122,192	Iliang	宜良	70,058
Chaochow, Yun	趙州	47,015	Imen	易門	41.606
Chaotung	昭 通	145,433	Kaihwa	開化	161.648
Chengkiang	徵江	47,158	Kanai	千崖	22,671
Chengkung	呈貢	56,253	Kiangchwan	江 川	59.153
Chennan	鎮南	81,321	Kiaokia	巧家	152.093
Chenpien	鎮邊	147.702	Kienchwan	劍川	51,538
Chensiung	鎮雄	245,870	Kingtung	景東	210,893
Chenyüan	鎮沅	41,884	Kiupeh	郎北	76,483
Chihtzelo	知子羅	8,291	Kiuyaping	舊衙坪	56.022
Chinho	金 河	18,296	Kokiuchang		43.893
Chinning	ZZ SÉT	34,023	Kunyang	昆陽	57,909
Chücho	直 却	56,004	Kütsing, Yun	曲婧	119,035
Chungtien	[1] 值]	31,410	Kwangnan	廣南	227.233
Fuchow	富 州	57,709	Kwangsichow	廣西州	111,326
Fukwantsun	副官科	85,583	Kwangtung	廣通	38,716
Fumin	富民	26,447	Langkiung	浪湾	45,218
	111			12	

YUNNAN DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name		POPULATION
		(Approximate)			(Approximate)
Romanised	Chinese		Romanised	Chinese	
Lanping	蘭 坪	47,111	Sinhing, Yun	新與	128,474
Laoyatan	老鴉灘	70,306	Sinping, Yun	新平	67,993
Likiang	麗江	106,182	Sio	岩 峩	59,756
Linan	臨 安	272,180	Süanwei	宣威	339,785
Loping, Yun	羅平	135,972	Sungming	嵩明	101,201
.Lotze	羅次	40,654	Süntien	尋甸	135,846
Luchüan	祿 勸	72,656	Szemao	思茅	22,069
Lufeng, Yun	禄 豐	40,508	Takwan	大關	96,361
Luliang	陸涼	137,870	Talang	他郎	77,821
Lunan	路南	86,722	Tali	大 理	79,650
Lungchwan	隴川	53,202	Tayao	大 姚	53,844
Lungling	龍陵	69,243	Tengchwan	鄧川	42,087
Lushui	瀘 水	21,540	Tengyueh	騰越	150,822
Lutien, Yun	魯甸	45,356	Tingyuan	定 遠	75,357
Malipo	蘇栗坡	76,185	Tsingkwei	井檜	39.366
Malung		47,441	Tsingpien, Yun	靖邊	49,535
Mangchepan	芒遮板	14,228	Tsuyung	楚 雄	105,789
.Mapai	馬自	84,840	Tungchwan, Yun.	東川	204,494
Menghwa	蒙 化	123,383	Tunghai	通海	77,177
Menglieh	猛烈	21,537	Weisi	維西	50,388
Mengmao	猛卵	12,261	Weisin	威信	39,048
Mengtsz	蒙自	81,453	Weiyüan	威遠	58,218
Mienning, Yun	緬 窦	71,731	Wuting, Yun	武定	93,233
Milo	彌勒	97,806	Yangpi	漾濞	29.847
Mitu	彌渡	78,409	Yaochow, Yun	姚州	76,036
Nanan, Yun	南安	62,177	Yiliang	葬 良	145,314
Ningchow	窦 州	75,586	Yüankiang	元江	43,611
Paiyentsing	白鹽井	26,094	Yüanmow	元 謀	37,054
Pinchwan	賓川	92,305	Yünchow	雲 州	149,485
Pingi	平彝	168,600	Yungchang	永昌	306.065
Puerh	普洱	56,545	Yungkang, Yun	永康	72,416
Pulan	普蘭	76,182	Yungpeh	永北	92.709
Pusze	普思	163,357	Yungping, Yun	永平	41.133
Shangpa	上曾	10,021	Yungshan	永善	76,258
Shihping	石屏	149,776	Yünlung	雲龍	62,284
Shihtsung	師宗	56,008	Yünnanfu	雲南府	275.374
Shunning	順寧	293,764	Yünnanhsien	雲南縣	75.881
				4:	9,839,180
				100	5,005,100

POPULATION.

KWEICHOW DISTRICT.

Name		Population	Name		Population	
Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese	(Approximate)	
Anhwa	安 化	261,463	Puan	普 安	287,743	
Annan	安南	70,991	Puan, N	普安(北)	83,244	
Anping, Kwei	安平	58,541	Sankiang	三江	2,297	
Anshun	安順	307,638	Sankiao		18,588	
Changchai	長寨	45,571	Shengki	省溪	55,273	
Chengan	正安	430,775	Shihtsien		136,751	
Chengfeng	貞 豐	99,337	Shiping		48,176	
Chenning	鎮富	458,765	Shuicheng		132,442	
Chenyüan	鎮遠	147,970	Sihfeng		90,656	
Chihshui, Kwei	赤水	123,082	Sincheng, Kwei	新城	187,382	
Chingping	清平	96,027	Sinhwangping	新黃平	103,679	
Hiakiang	下江	31,000	Sishui	鰡 水	20,131	
Hingi	與 義	192,700	Siuwen	修文	111,917	
Howping	后 坪	22,219	Suiyang, Kwei	綏陽	184,152°	
Hwangtsaopa	黄草壩	190,619	Sungtao	松桃	253,830	
Jenhwai	仁懷	259.227	Szechow, Wwei	思州	110,081	
Kaichow, Kwei	開州	96,972	Szenan	思南	277,438	
Kiangkow, Kwei	江口	106,795	Taikung	台拱	60,164	
Kiensi	黔 西	311,641	Tankiang	丹 江	32,896	
Hiungshui	邓水	49,073	Tatang, Kwei	大 塘	35,486	
Kuchow, Kwei	古州	50,716	Tating	大 定	106,692	
Kwangshun	廣順	55,195	Tienchu	天 柱	79,703	
Kweihwa, Kwei	歸化	84,107	Tingfan	定番	91,078	
Kweiting		701.750	Tingnan	定南	44,733	
Kweiyang	貴陽	436,691	Tsehheng	冊享	54,465	
Langtai	郎岱	7 5.520	Tsingchen	清鎮	126,606	
Liping	黎平	355,836	Tsingki, Kwei	青谿	37,735	
Lipo	荔 波	100,344	Tsingkiang, Wwei	清江	64,807	
Lohu	羅解	63,400	Tsunyi	遵 義	337,678	
Lungchüan, Kwei	龍泉	106,030	Tuhshan	獨山	214,215	
Lungli	龍 里	56,653	Tukiang	都江	21,725	
Maha	麻哈	53,836	Tungjen	銅仁	118,420	
Meitan	湄 潭	219,289	Tungtze	桐梓	304,494	
Mowyuehsze	募役司	63,585	Tuyün	1110	131,440	
Pachai	八 筆	17,719	Weining	威甯	246,153	
Pichieh	畢節	282,472	Wengan	甕 安	83,150	
Pingchow, Kwei .	平 舟	27,430	Wuchwan	黎川	143,808	
Pingyüan, Kwei .	平 遠	144,951	Yenhosze	沿河司	35,692	
Pingyueh	平 越	123,200	Yinkiang	即江	157,792	
	一匹			Fh (T	101,102	

KWEICHOW DISTRICT, (Continued).

Name		Population	Name	Population			
Romanised	Chi	nese	(Approximate)	Romanised	Chinese		(Approximate)
Yüking Yungtsung	徐永	康從	82,546 83,328	Yüping	玉	屏	38,684

Comparisons in Area and Population.

						Sq. miles.	Population.
China						4,278,352	427.679,214+
British Empire					•••	11,454,862	417,218,000
Russian Empire					•••	8.647,657	160,095,200
Canada				• • •	• • •	3,729,665	7.206,643
United States (wit	h Ala	ska)				3,571,492	105,683,108
Australia						3,065,121	4,724.138
India			***		•••	1,802,657	315.156.396
United Kingdom						121,391	45.217.259

FOREIGN POPULATION IN CHINA, 1919. (Customs Estimate).

NATIONALITY.	FIRMS.	Persons.
American	314	6,660
Austrian	5	27
Belgian	20	391
British	644	13.234
Oanish	27	546
Dutch	25	367
French	171	4,409*
derman	2	1,335
Hungarian		11
talian	19	276
Japanese	4,878	171.485
Mexican	***	1
Norwegian	12	249
Portuguese	93	2,390
Russian	1,760	148,170
Spanish	8	272
Swedish	4	632
Non-Treaty Powers	33	536
TOTAL	8,015	350,991

[†] See Note on p. 3. * Including 918 protégés.

CHAPTER II.

GEOGRAPHY.

DISTANCES (NAUTICAL MILES).

Londo	on										
2003	Mars	eilles									
3511	1508	Port	Said								
4906	2903	1395	Aden								
6999	4996	3488	2093	Colon	nbo						
8277	6274	4766	3371	1278	Penar	ng					
8672	6669	5161	3766	1673	395	Singa	pore				
9320	7317	5809	4414	2321	1043	648	Saigo	n			
10112	8109	6601	5206	3113	1835	1440	934	Hong	kong		
10965	8962	7454	6059	3966	2688	2293	1787	853	Shang	ghai	
11720	9717	8209	6814	4721	3443	3048	2542	1608	755	Kobe	
12066	10063	8555	7160	5067	3789	3304	2888	1954	1101	346	Yokohama
							I				

DISTANCES (VIA SIBERIA).

Lond	on										
665	Berlin	n									
1867	1202	Mosc	O W								
5248	4583	3381	Irkut	sk							
6191	5526	4324	943	Mand	houli	(Chir	ese F	rontie	r)		
6771	6106	4904	1523	580	Harh	in					
7253	6588	5386	2005	1062	482	(Vladi	vostok				
7094	6429	522?	1846	903	323		Muko	len (v	ia Ha	arbin)	
7340	6675	5473	2092	1149	569		246	Dalny	(Ta	iren)	
7529	€864	5662	2281	1338	758		435	-	Tien	tsin (via	Mukden)
7615	6950	5748	2367	1424	844		521		86	Peking	

COAST DISTANCES .- A.

Shanchai

Onani	TIGHT						
14	Woos	ung					
66	52	Gutzl	aff				
420	406	354	Food	how			
620	606	554	200	Amo	V		
755	741	689	335	135	Swat	ow (from Shanghai direct 573 miles)
908	894	842	488	288	153	Hon	gkong (from Shanghai direct 826 miles)
991	977	925	571	371	236	83	Canton (from Shanghai direct 909 miles)

COAST DISTANCES .- B. Shanghai 390 Tsingtao (Kiaochao) 492 (direct) Weihaiwei 270 532 (direct) 310 40 | Chefoo (from Shanghai direct 511 miles) Taku 725 503 233 193 | 776 554 284 | 241 51 | Tientsin (from Shanghai direct 740 miles)

DISTANCES UP THE YANGTZE.

Shang	hai								
95	Kiang	gyin							
156	61	Chinl	riang						
201	106	45	Nank	ing					
256	161	100	55	Wuhi	1				
318	223	162	117	62	Tatur	ng			
364	269	208	163	108	46	Ankin	ng		
453	358	297	252	197	135	89	Kiul	kiang	
595	500	439	394	339	277	231	142		
882	787	726	681	626	564	518	429	287	Shasi
965	870	809	764	709	647	601	512	370	83 Ichang
1427	1332	1271	1226	1171	1109	1063	974	832	545 462 Chungking

Shanghai	to	Dairen (Dalny)	567	miles
,,	,,	Newchwang	701	,,
,,	,,	Vladivostok	995	,,
,,	,,	Nagasaki	412	,,
,,		Kobe	7 55	,,
.,	,,	Yokohama	1101	

Coastal Configuration.

The coast-line of China, in the form of a semicircle, is 2150 miles in length, or, with all indentations reckoned, approximately 5,000 miles. The northern part, including the coast of Chihli, the N. and N.W. of Shantung and Kiangsu, is of an alluvial nature; the remainder is granitic. Along the latter (the provinces of Chekiang, Fukien and portions of Kwangtung) are innumerable islands, affording anchorages, of varying extent, in abundance, while the sea is of a more uniform depth. Shoals fringe the northern coast-line, and navigation relies upon the channels made by the rivers: e.g. the Liao (at Newchwang), the Pei-ho (at Taku for Tientsin), the Yangtze-kiang (at Woosung for Shanghai).

A chain of volcanic islands (the Kurile Islands, Japan, Loochoo Islands, Formosa, the Philippines) separate the western portion of the Pacific Ocean from the deeper waters of the central and eastern Pacific. The seas of China are all within this barrier. They are known as:—

- (1) The Yellow Sea (Huang-hai: including the Gulf of Chihli and the Gulf of Liaotung).
- (2) The Eastern China Sea (Tung-hai: including the Formosa Channel).
 - (3) The South China Sea (Nan-hai).

Of their characteristics L. Richard* says :-

"(a) They are less saline; (b) they are much less deep, never reaching over 1000 fathoms; (c) the height of the tide varies from a maximum of $6\frac{1}{2}$ feet in the Gulf of Chihli and at Hongkong (where usually it is 'hardly noticeable') to 16 feet and more between Amoy and Foochow; (d) the variation in the temperature of the water is much less than on the mainland."

The chief points on the China Coast from the Yalu River which divides Manchuria from Korea are in order of sequence:—

^{*} L. Richard's Comprehensive Geography of the Chinese Empire and Dependencies. Translated into English by M. Kennelly, S.J., Shanghai, 1908.

Antung: treaty port, facing the Korean town of Wiju.

Tatungkow: Customs station.

Dalny, called Tairen (Dairen) by the Japanese.

Port Arthur: the Liaotung Peninsula, including Dairen and Port Arthur, is Japanese leased territory.

Cape Liaotishan (Regent's Sword).

Newchwang: Foreign treaty port on the Liao River: ice-bound in winter.

Hulutao: A new port in process of construction by the Chinese Government. A railway is under construction connecting the port with Lienshan, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles away, on the Peking-Mukden Railway. The port would be the southern terminus of the Chinchou-Aigun Railway, if this were to be constructed.

Shanhaikuan: the Great Wall ends at this spot a few miles from the sea.

Chinwangtao: treaty port: ice-free: winter port for Tientsin and Peking.

Luan River.

Taku: village at the mouth of the Pei-ho. The forts that protected the approach were destroyed at the time of the Boxer rising in 1900. The Taku Bar is two miles long.

Yellow River (Hwang-ho).

Tengchou: a former port that is gradually being silted up. Between here and Cape Liaotishan, 65 miles distant, lie the Miaotao Islands.

Chefoo: treaty port.

Weihaiwei: British leased territory.

The North-East Promontory.

Tsingtao: Kiaochao Bay: former German leased territory; now occupied by the Japanese.

Haichow (Yuchow) Promontory.

Earlier mouth of the Yellow River (before 1852).

The Yangtze River.

Tsungming Island.

Shanghai, on the Whangpoo River: treaty port.

Hangchow Bay: the tide at the mouth of the Tsientang River forms a bore which varies in height from a few feet to 15 or 20 at the equinoxes, while the water has occasionally risen to as much as 30 feet.

Hangchow: treaty port, capital of Chekiang Province.

Ningpo: treaty port at the confluence of two rivers, forming the Yung or Tatsieh, which reaches the sea at Chinhai, 12 miles distant.

Chusan Archipelago: with the Saddle Islands lying to the N.E., the chief fishing centre of China. Chusan Island, 21 miles long and 11 broad, with two main harbours, Tinghai and Chinkiamen.

Nimrod Sound: 20 miles south of Ningpo. A long narrow fjord measuring 37 nautical miles in length and on an average 3 miles broad, narrowing down to 1 mile in the centre. At the head of the Sound the expanse of water stretches 7 miles north to south, and here are located the famous cyster-breeding establishments. The Sound has been proposed as a future naval base for China.

Sanmen Bay: Bay of the Three Gateways: offering a variety of anchorages, but of uneven serviceability and exposed to high winds and typhoons.

Wenchow: treaty port.
Santuao: treaty port.
Foochow: treaty port
Pagoda anchorage.
Amoy: treaty port.

Kulangsu: foreign settlement.

Swatow: treaty port.

Mirs Bay: included in the leased territory of Hongkong.

Kowloon: Customs station. Hongkong: British territory.

Heungchow: ten miles north of Macao, where a semi-official attempt is being made to create a new port and Chinese settlement on foreign lines.

Macao: Portuguese territory. Lappa: Customs station. Canton: treaty port.

Kwangchouwan: French leased territory.

Hainan: island. Pakhoi: treaty port.

Orography.

The greater part of China is mountain land, and only along the channels of the Yellow River and Yangtze in their lower reaches (extending in the case of the former for nearly three hundred miles) is there a low-lying alluvial plain, stretching to the coast and north and south for several hundred miles.

Anything in the nature of a detailed account of the orography of China is impossible within the limits of this Year Book, for it would entail lengthy reference to the researches of Dr. Sven Hedin, Dr. M. A. Stein, Dr. Merzbacher, M. Bonin, and a number of other travellers and explorers who within recent years have added considerably to our knowledge of Central Asia. For a comprehensive summary of the results of these researches the reader is referred to the latest edition of Stanford's Compendium of Geography. Asia, Vol. I, by A. H. Keane, IL.D., from which the following summary is in the main taken.

The mountain system of Greater China may be said to start from the Pamir Plateau, that elevated nucleus of Central Asia from which massive mountain-chains spread in every direction. With a general tendency of from west to east, China's great mountain systems group themselves from this point into three principal chains, divided at the outset by the Takla-Makan Desert (basin of the Tarim River) and the great tableland of Tibet.

I. To the north-east is the *Tienshan* Chain, throwing out in series of parallel spurs, running eastward, the following ranges:—

Tienshan-nan-lu Mustagh Ata or Tagharma	
Mountain, west of Yarkand	25,000 ft.
Tienshan-pe-lu Tengri Khan	23,600 ft.
Altai Mountains	11,100 ft.
Tannu-ola Mountains	

This chain sweeps broadly across the continent to the furthest confines or north-eastern Siberia.

II. The Kuenlun Chain (20,000 ft.), running south of the Takla-Makan and Gobi Deserts and designated successively:—

Altyn Tagh	14,000	ft.
Nanshan (where it enters Kansu province) 14,000	0-16,000	ft.
Alashan	0-18,000	ft.
Inshan		
Khinghan Mountains		ft.

the latter being continued across the Siberian province of Amur to the Sea of Okhotsk. A separate spur known as the Aneuto Mountains is thrown out due east, where the main range takes a slight north-easterly direction as the Altyn Tagh.

- III. The third chain branches at first in a south-easterly direction from the Kuenlun Chain, forming Dr. Sven Hedin's Trans-Himalaya; then when it reaches the border country of China and Tibet it is broken into a series of ranges running north and south, resolving itself finally into two main ranges—
- (a) One running north east, the Yunling Mountains, which ultimately take a west and east direction as the Kiulung Mountains, with a parallel range to the north, the Hsiking, Peling, Tsingling, Funiu, and Muling Mountains.

This range throws its spurs into Hupeh, through Honan to Anhui, to Shantung and through Shansi to Chihli.

(b) The second running south-east between the valleys of the Mekong and Upper Yangtze, and then spreading out in a general north-easterly direction across the whole of southern China in a series of ranges known in part as-

Shishan (16,000 ft.).
Nanling Mountains.
Yungling Mountains.
Nanshan
Tayuling \$\\ \) 9500 ft.

The two latter form a bold range, following a parallel direction with the coast from Kwangsi to Chekiang. [N.B.—The nomenclature of these mountains varies considerably.]

In the second main chain the Nanshan Mountains are a series of parallel lofty ridges, among which may be mentioned (from north to south:--

Alexander III Mountains. Humboldt Mountains. Ritter Mountains.

Between these ranges and the south-eastern corner of Tibet come the following mountains in order from north to south:—

Koko Mountains, Burkhan Bota (and to the east of them) Ame Machin Mountains, Baian Kara,

while north of the Tengri Nor (lake) rises the great Tangla range at a mean elevation of probably 20,000 ft.

In China Proper we have the notable ranges, already referred to, running north and south on the Chino-Tibetan border, rising well above the snow-line. Among the individual peaks may be mentioned:—

Mount Nenda, or "Holy Mountain." Mount Jara, N.W. of Tachienlu. Mount Omei. Siwelung Shan. The "Seven Nails" (? 19,000-20,000 ft.)

In Manchuria the Shanyan-alin (10,000-11,000 ft.) forms the frontier line of Korea, and in the north are the Illykuri-alin and the Duss-alin.

Sacred Mountains.

- 1. Tai Shan in Shantung.
- 2. Heng Shan in Shansi.
- 3. Sung Shan in Honan.
- 4. Hua Shan in Shensi.
- 5. Nan Yueh (Heng Shan) in Hunan.

Of these Mr. R. F. Johnston (From Peking to Mandalay, John Murray, London) says that Tai Shan is the most famous as far as literature and tradition go, Nan Yueh is the most popular and Hua Shan the most beautiful and the loftiest.

Other famous mountains are :-

- 1. Mount Omei, west of Kiatingfu, Szechuan (10,158 ft.). A pilgrim resort for Buddhists. L. Richard states that 56 pagodas have been erected on the mountain, the highest at an elevation of 10,000 ft. Mr. R. F. Johnston enumerates 35 monasteries or temples passed on a journey up and down the mountain.
- 2. The Three Peaks of Dokerla.—A centre of Tibetan pilgrimages. N.W. Yunnan (19,700 ft.).
- 3. Wu Tai Shan.—North of Shansi. The monastery on this mountain is said to be the oldest in China. It is visited annually by thousands of pilgrims, Chinese, Mongolian and Tibetan. The Dalai Lama stayed here on his return from Peking to Lhassa (1909).

Lakes.

The chief lakes of China Proper are :-

- 1. The Tungting lake in Hunan. In summer, when it receives the cverflow of the Yangtze, its dimensions reach 75 miles in length and 65 in breadth (2000 sq. miles); but in winter the lake empties its waters into the Yangtze and becomes merely an enormous marsh, with two main river channels passing through it, the Yuenkiang and Siangkiang. In 1910 the provincial authorities made a start of dredging the lake, a machine having been bought for that purpose in Germany. The dredger was manned and operated by a Chinese crew, and began work on the Changteh channel.
- 2 The Po-yang lake in Kiangsi; 90 miles by 20 (approx.). The water rises nearly 30 ft. in the flood season, when the area of the lake is approximately 1800 sq. miles.
- 3. The Tai-hu, or Great Lake, in Kiangsu, S. of the Yangtze. Its greatest dimensions are approximately 50 miles by 40 miles, but its waters recede in winter.

- 4. The *Hungtseh* lake in Kiangsu and Anhui, N. of the Yangtze, connected on the N.E. with the Grand Canal and on the S.E. with
 - 5. The Kaoyiu lake, also in Kiangsu.
- 6. The Tatsung lake lies E. of the Kaoyiu, on the other side of the Grand Canal.
- 7. The *Tien-hu* lake in Yunnan, S. of Yunnanfu; approximately 38 miles in length and 8 in width and lying at an altitude of 6300 ft.
- 8. The Eulhai lake also in Yunnan, E. of Talifu. It lies at an altitude of 6500 ft. above sea-level, but is slightly smaller than the Tien-hu.
- 9. In Manchuria are to be found the *Dalai-nor* and *Buir-nor*, or *Pir Lake*, both S.W. of Hailar, and *Lake Hinka* (*Khanka*) in the extreme east of the province, W. of the Ussuri River.
- In Tibet and Chinese Turkestan recent exploration has added largely to our knowledge of the lake system of these vast territories. Here it will suffice to enumerate the principal lakes.
- 1. Koko-nor, in N.E. Tibet near the borders of Kansu, 65 miles long and 40 wide, with an area of 2300 sq. miles. It lies at an altitude of 10,500 ft. above sea-level. Its waters are salt.
- 2. Tsaidam, west of the Koko-nor, now little more than a dreary swamp.
- 3. Lob-nor, north of the Altyn Tagh range. Between 1877 and the present day this once important expanse of water has diminished in size to an enormous extent. Of these three basins Dr. A. H. Keane says in Stanford's Compendium of Geography: "The gradual isolation of all these basins affords one of the most striking illustrations of the process of desiccation that has been going on throughout Central Asia from the remotest times. First the Koko-nor fails to reach the Tsaidam; then the Tsaidam ceases to communicate with Lob-nor and ultimately dries up, while Lobnor sinks to a mere reedy morass some 3 or 4 feet deep."
- 4. Kizil-Bash or Lake Ulungur, between the Tienshan and Altai Mountains.
 - 5. Ike Aral-nor,6: Ubsa-nor,in the extreme west of Mongolia.
 - 7. Lake Bogratch, south of the Bogdo-ola Mountains.
 - 8. Kara-nor, in the Nan-shan (Mountains) north-west of Koko-nor.
 - 9. Tengri-nor, north of Lhassa: altitude 15,000 ft.
- 10. Palti or Yamdok lake, 13,800 ft. above sea-level, 160 miles in circumference, south-west of Lhassa.
 - 11. Buka-nor, north of Tengri-nor, forming with the
 - 12. Ike-namur, the centre of a large system, which includes the
- 13. Dangra-yum, 250 miles west of Tengri-nor, 180 miles in circumference, and the
 - 14. Garing-cho, altitude 15,420 ft.

RIVERS.

The Hwang Ho Basin.

The first of the three great natural divisions of China is the basin of the Hwang Ho, or the Yellow River. The whole area of this basin is about 600,000 square miles, and the length of the river itself is roughly

2.500 miles. In this area there is an estimated population of roughly 100.000,000 people. Whilst it would be improper to call the Yellow River basin the original home of the Chinese race we shall not be far wrong if we reckon it as the first area definitely settled by the Chinese people as we know them to-day. In all probability the first settled Chinese came to China in almost pre-historic times by way of the Tarim basin, in a period when the route across the central Asian plateau was almost certainly not so desolate as it is now. It is unlikely that they came the whole journey at one migration but rather that they advanced slowly and by short stages from the western slopes of the Pamirs or the Hindu Kush, or even from as far West as the shores of the Caspian. Mr. Archibald Little has put a vivid picture of this early migration into the following passage:—

The historical period does not commence in China until the eighth century B.C., at which period the empire was held by the Chows: this dynasty goes back to the semi-historical period of its founder, Wu Wang, the 'Martial Prince,' who acceded to the Principality of Chow, as suzerain of the feudal kingdoms into which China was then divided, in the year 1122 B.C. The Martial Prince was descended from Wen Wang, the Literary Prince or—the title by which he was known in his lifetime—'The Chief of the West.' Father and son together put an end to the preceding cruel despotism of the Yin dynasty, and it is with this dynasty of Chow that authentic Chinese history first begins. All previous is purely traditional.

Yet tradition, as collated by the Chinese historians of the Han dynasty, seems to show that the superior order and civilization introduced by the Chows-notably by Chow Kung, younger brother of the Martial Prince-was derived from immigrant ancestors from the West, who entered China by the road of the Tarim. Whether these were an Aryan tribe from Bactria and the slopes of the Hindu-Kush, as some suppose, it is impossible to say. Still there is reason to believe that the aboriginal Chinese race, of whom the semi-independent Miaotze in Kweichow and elsewhere are a surviving remnant, did receive an infusion of culture from the West, such as the old stock of the English folk received from the Norman invaders of England. As with the latter, so in China, the invaders were gradually absorbed in the aboriginal race, which was the more numerous and persistent. Except in dress and language there is little to-day to distinguish the Miaotze from their Chinese neighbours. Their features are similar, of a like so-called Mongolian type, with small, delicately formed hands and feet, and the commonly occurrent small mouth with the 'Cupid's bow' upper lip, the black wiry hair and beardless face. The old Chinese type is extraordinarily persistent, and this is seen in the mixed offspring of Europeans and Chinese to-day, in which the Chinese type persists even to the quadroon of the second generation. The immigrants, whom for want of better knowledge we may call the Chows, conquered the Chinese and taught them the arts they had brought from the West, but gradually lost their own individuality. In the same way the numerous 'Tartar' invaders, who gave North China an intermittent succession of 'Tartar' dynasties from the fifth century onwards, became equally absorbed by the Chinese. The resultant strong infusion of 'Tartar' blood is evinced in the North, both in the language and in the superior physique and stature of the northerners. The southerners are of purer Chinese type, and this fact is confirmed in their language to-day, the so-called Cantonese dialect being undoubtedly a survival of the ancient language of the country. The Tarim valley, even in historical times, nourished a considerable population in comparison with its present scattered inhabitants, as is shown in the remains of the ancient cities dating from the ninth to twelfth century of our era, unearthed in what is now the howling wilderness of the Takla-makan desert. Thence along the depression in which lie the modern cities of Sining and Lanchow, by a road leading through the present Chinese province of Kansu, their path to the Wei would lead the immigrants to the upper course of the Yellow River, but here only to cross it at right angles where it washed the walls of the present Kansu capital, Lanchow, and not to meet it again until, after traversing the whole extent of the valley of the Wei, they come to the point where the two rivers finally unite in the pass of Tungkwan: thence onward their course lay continuously in the Yellow River valley until they reached the Yellow Sea.

The Yellow River valley may be taken as the type and definition of North China and that part of it which lies inside China Proper includes six of the eighteen provinces-Kansu, Shensi, Shansi, Chihli, Honan, and Shantung. These six provinces are distinct from the rest of China in every essential feature. The climate, the food products, and the character and mode of life of the inhabitants are different from those obtaining in the south. There is a distinct line of division running along the watershed which separates the Yellow River from the Yangtze. Along this line it may be reckened that we have the northern limit of rice cultivation. Rice forms the favourite and principal food of the richer classes but the great mass of the population lives on millet and wheat, especially the former. The rice grown is quite distinct from the rice of the south. The Chinese call it small rice, but it is in reality a glutinous millet, but not the same thing as the Kaoliang which is used for the distillation of spirits. Meats other than pork play a larger part in the dietary of the people. The bamboo also ceases to be grown on practically the same line as the wet rice, and though it still plays an important part in the economic life of the people it is an imported article. Again, the draught animals are different. Instead of the buffalo of the south the ox plays a large part and the camel is seen everywhere almost. The people, like those further south, gain their livelihood largely from agriculture, but it is of a form slightly different from that of the south. The people themselves are slower moving than the more southern Chinese, but are much sturdier than their compatriots south of the watershed. Nature is not so kind in the northern as in the southern area and this is reflected in the finer physique of the northern Chinese.

Physically northern China forms a characteristic unit in the make up of the "Central Glory." The Yellow River valley is yellow in every respect. The soil consists mostly of loess. The exact origin of loess was for many years a matter of dispute amongst geographers and geologists. The first exhaustive study of the subject was made by Richthofen, and his conclusions are summarized for us by the late Mr. Archibald Little as follows:—

The configuration of North China, with its unique development of the great loess deposit that forms the characteristic surface of this region, has been exhaustively described by Richthofen in his monumental work, 'China.' He there tells how the original mountain outline of the country has been obliterated by enormous sub-aerial deposits of dust, swept across by the winds blowing eastwards from the sandy steppes of Central Asia. This dust has, in the course of ages, filled up the valleys, smoothed over the original rugged mountain formation, and deposited upon it a fertile loam many thousand feet in thickness. The fertility of this loam Richthofen attributes to the

secular decay of the grasses with which the land is covered and which arrested the dust as it swept over them. As one crop of grass was buried and decayed, so another crop sprang up on the new surface, the procedure being so uniform and gradual that there is little trace of horizontal stratification, but marked vertical cleavage, due to the perpendicularity of this vegetable growth. The minute vertical hollows left by the decayed grasses have furnished a porosity to the loam deposit which has given opportunity for capillary attraction to draw moisture to the surface, together with a perennial supply of the salts necessary to agriculture, from the depths below.

Richthofen goes into long arguments, one of the chief being the constant presence of land snail-shells and the entire absence of marine fossils, to prove the land origin of the formation, and his proofs, at first ardently combated by the older schools of geologists, have now met with general acceptance. This loess formation, to the eye a level plain with low rugged ridges and peaks rising out to it, somewhat as the 'Nunataks' rise out of the vast snow névés of the Arctic regions, is, as Richthofen points out, in reality a succession of basins, depressed in the centre and rising thence imperceptibly to the edges where the loess ascends to the flanks of the steep, rocky mountain ranges which form the rims of these wide spread valleys. Each of these valley-plains constitutes, as a rule, one of the 'Hsien' or counties, into which the province is divided. . . . The rivers, and notably the Yellow River, that drain this unique loess region are unable to rest on its loose yet compact surface. Hence they have cut down through it to the rock foundation below, and have left on either hand the vertical cliffs by which their banks are lined. The roads, or rather cart-tracks, in this region have produced a like effect on its According to the varying compactness of the loess in different places and to the amount of the traffic over it, we find that, in the course of centuries, the roads, like the rivers, have cut out ravines with vertical walls of varying depth, their floors rising and falling and their courses winding through the country in bewildering Along these roads, and out of their vertical walls, the imhabitants have excavated their dwellings,—originally simple caves in the loess, now developed into houses of two and three storeys with wooden doors, window frames, and inside staircases—houses warm in winter and cool in summer and marvellously free from damp. When travelling in the country and at a distance from the few large towns in the region, the view over the surface of the loess plain shows an unlimited extent of flat cultivated land, unfenced, houseless, and to the eye, except where agricultural work is actually in progress, uninhabited. This desolate-looking country is, however, split up by cracks and crevices, ramifying through it in all directions, and at the bottom of these crevices, invisible to an observer on the surface, lie the paths of the roads and the rivers intersecting it—the life and movement of the region. The loess country, fertile as it is, being incapable of irrigation by manual labour, is dependent upon the rainfall for its fertility, and of late years unhappily this prime necessity has made default. Central Asian conditions, determined, it is now believed, by the denudation of the mountains, due to the remorseless destruction of the forests by successive generations of inhabitants, appear now to be invading Northern and Western China.

Mr. Little quotes a contrary opinion also on the subject of loess, namely that of the late Mr. Thomas Kingsmill, who wrote both as a geologist and as one with a wide knowledge, from personal observation, of the loess area. Mr. Kingsmill wrote as follows:—

Richthofen's theory of the loess is untenable by a geologist who knows the country: it is apparent that the fertility of the loess is due to its containing a small amount of phosphate. The best wheat in China is grown on the impalpable sand spread by the inundations of the Yellow River. The vertical tubes in the loess I have always found pentagonal, a form not appertaining to vegetation.

So far from the chief external geological features of China being carved out of tertiary strata, the enormous antiquity of the superficial geology has often struck me. The surface of China was in pre-tertiary, or at least eocene time, carved out in to the same main feature as at present. The mountain ranges and the valleys were the same as to-day; the water system, except in a very few localities, very similar. The mountains were however higher and probably more rugged, and the valleys more abrupt. Some ages then, up to the waning days of the tertiaries, China was under water, and the surface sandstones, laterites, gravels, and loess were laid down in the valleys at the expense of the mountain chains. Then, at the dawn of the human epoch, the ocean waters retreated and the rivers of to-day commenced to flow. For the most part they followed the old drainage lines, but here and there were deflected by outbursts of basaltic lava which continued to flow till late in the Pleistocene. The beds of the modern rivers were for the most part formed in the low-lying tertiaries, which, however, they have in a few places cut into deeply. In the higher valleys the gradual erosion of the tertiary rocks proceeds at a greater rate, but everywhere the tendency is to pause when the old bed rock is reached, so that the rivers of to-day flow in the channels occupied by their predecessors in cretaceous or eocene time.

Another critic of the Richthofen theory is Mr. Kingdom Ward, who at a much later date than Mr. Kingsmill writes:

The main features of the loess plain are its terraced structure and its vertical cleavage, the former due in part to the latter. The terraces owe their formation to the presence of gravel and shingle beds spread out by the mountain streams of by-gone ages and now interstratified at different horizons and at irregular intervals with the loess. Where they occur they check the downward wear of the loess at that place, thus giving rise to the platform structure of which man has taken advantage in cultivation. The vertical cleavage is due to the presence of microscopic tubules, which permeate the loess at right angles to the surface. Loess is a soft friable buff-coloured rock, easily reduced between the fingers to impalpable powder. Its origin is shrouded in mystery, but it is generally regarded as a wind-borne deposit from the arid plateaux of central Asia, this theory accounting for the absence of fossils. It does not however account for the tubules, and these have been ascribed to the minute holes left by the decaying rootlets of successive vegetables which the loess is supposed to have supported during the period of its formation, each successive vegetation being buried beneath further layers of blown dust. The weakness of the argument appears to me to be twofold. In the first place, the ultimate, microscopic rootlets of plants do not grow down vertically, let alone all strictly parallel, as are these tubules; on the contrary these fine rootlets and roothairs penetrate the soil in all directions, more particularly the horizontal direction. In the second place, it is most unlikely that successive vegetations should disappear without leaving some trace-hard seeds, fruits, or woody stems, which would be well preserved in such a deposit. Finally, there is at least one fossil to be found in the loess—a gasteropod shell of which I extracted

numerous examples from the vertical cliffs. The porous nature of the loess enables rain to percolate rapidly through, instead of flowing off over the surface, which accounts for the fact that so soft a material frequently stands up in hills several hundred feet high, as well as in cliffs, where a less porous material would have been worn down by rain. Consequently loess is a dry soil with a deep-seated water supply, but after rain the tubules above referred to readily establish capillary connexion between the surface and the deep-lying water; and capillary water columns are not readily broken, so that unless a prolonged drought intervenes, plants are able to maintain a sufficient supply of For the same reason a white efflorescence of salt frequently crystallizes out in the cliff faces, but never on the surface, as the soluble salts remain with the deep-seated water supply, and diffuse upwards but slowly. However, in winter the loess plain of Shensi and the loess hills of south-eastern Kansu present a most woe-begone appearance, though when spring returns every square yard is green with crops.

We may now follow the Hwang Ho from its source to its mouth noting the important features as we go along. For a long time it was supposed that the river took its rise in the springs known to the Chinese as the Sing-au Hai, which was to be found in the Tangut country south of the central Kwen Lun mountains. This inaccuracy was corrected in 1884 by the Russian geographer Przhvalsky who discovered the true sources of the river on the Odon-tala plain, between 14,000 and 15,000 feet above sea level. Here there are two streams which together form two lakes, Lake Jarin and Lake Orin, and from these two lakes, 13,500 feet above sealevel, in 34 deg. 10 min. north latitude, and 97 deg. east longitude, flow the waters of the Hwang Ho. Flowing from Lake Orin slightly southward the river is twisted then into the form of a large "S" before it breaks out of the Ching Hai region into the province of Kansu. From the western border of this province the highland career of the river ceases, and the country through which it passes seldom attains a height of more than 3,500 feet. The river passes, immediately on entering the province of Kansu, through a valley which in the course of 150 miles drops down from 8,000 feet to 5,200 feet, at the town of Lanchow. Just before reaching this town, the capital of the province, the river has received, on both banks, a number of tributaries which have so enlarged the volume of water that Lanchow is the head of navigation, such as there is. From Lanchow the river moves roughly north then somewhat abruptly east and then equally abruptly south, to the town of Tungkwan. The three sides of this quadrilateral from Lanchow are 1,200 miles in length, whilst the direct distance from Lanchow to Tungkwan is only about 300 miles. The height of Lanchow above sea level is 5,200 feet whilst the height of Tungkwan is but 1,000 feet. A fall of 4 feet per mile is not conducive to the development of navigation, but nevertheless the three sides of the quadrilateral present a river life of considerable importance. From Lanchow to Paotu, which is exactly on longitude 100 east and very near the point at which the river turns south, is a 25 days' journey by scow and boat, but after the first third of the journey, in which the passage is frequently difficult on account of rapids, and by reason of the fact that the river rushes through nearly vertical rocky walls, occasionally scarcely 20 yards apart, downward navigation does not present great difficulties. Along this stretch the river is generally about a quarter of a mile wide, flowing between banks overgrown with bush or willows which present the appearance of green ribbon running through vast yellow stretches of drifting desert sand. Hokow, just round the bend from Paotu, stands at 3,000 feet above sealevel, and between there and Tungkwan, a distance of 375 miles, the

river drops 2,000 feet. Trade on this part of the river, though not unattended with risk, is fairly brisk owing to the fact that the river passes close to a coal region which, though only tapped in a primitive sort of way, has established a local in-come and out-go that is not negligible. At Tungkwan ("East Gate") three provinces meet, and, is the name of the city, suggests, the division between eastern and western China marks itself. At this point the river receives its principal tributary, the Wei Ho, the sources of which are in Kansu and the valley of which, along the foothills of the Tsingling Shan, effectually divides the province of Shensi into two parts. At Tungkwan also the river takes its last principal turn but one, flowing almost due east, along latitude 35 N. to a point just a little north of Kaifeng. At Kaifeng begins the most difficult part of At the present time the river flows north-east to its outlet in the Gulf of Chihli. This is the course it has followed since 1854, before which date, for half a millennium, it made its way south-east through Hsuchowfu and the lacustrine lands of Kiangpei to the sea in the neighbourhood of Haichow, but slightly to the south of the bay of that name. It will be seen that between the two beds of the river, the old bed and the new, we have practically the mountain and promontory part of the province of Shantung, and the fact that the Hwang Ho, although now discharging north of the promontory, did for centuries discharge south of the mountain justifies the inclusion of Shantung in the list of provinces of the Hwang Ho Basin. At the same time the ancient discharge of the river in the province of Kiangsu indicates that the basins of the Hwang Ho and of the Yangtze in their eastern and lowest sections are not easily defined for purposes of separation, and this conclusion is confirmed by an examination of the Hwei drainage area, which reveals a large number of streams flowing parallel to the older beds of the Hwang Ho, but discharging into the Hwai Ho which itself empties its waters into the Hungtze Hu, which in turn passes on its surplus in no small measure to the Yangtze, but also to the Yellow Sea. The changes that the river has made from time to time may be studied in special works, and do not concern us here except to note that it is the opinion of many competent judges that another change is probably about to take place, and such a change cannot take place without disastrous results. The prevention of such trouble as has given the Hwang Ho the unenviable distinction of being known as "China's Sorrow" lies in two words, afforestation and conservancy.

The Yangtze Kiang Basin.

The second great division of China is the Yangtze Kiang Basin. The river Yangtze forms the main artery of trade, commerce and every form of communication with central China, and thus opens up to Foreign trade the greater part of China Proper. Calculations based upon the average for the last ten years show that the Yangtze basin absorbs no less than 60 per cent. of the foreign trade of the whole country. This is no doubt due to the fact that the Yangtze basin is not only larger but, in China Proper, richer area for area than either of the basins to north and south. Père Richard gives the following as the characteristic of this region: (1) it possesses the great central artery of communication, the Yangtze, with its important network of navigable streams from all directions, carrying all kinds of merchandise for distribution throughout the provinces comprised in the basin; (II) it has a temperate climate, is not subject to the great variations of the Hwang Ho basin, though very hot in summer does not suffer from excessive cold in winter, and the rainy season being much more constant in summer the crops are less irregular than in the north; (III) it is the region where tea, rice, silk and cotton abound, whilst the

sugar-cane (characteristic of the southern basin) is only cultivated in a few places; (IV) less rich in coal beds than the basins to the north and south, it is not however destitute of that mineral, and its mineral wealth, especially in Szechuan and in Hunan, is very great; (V) it is a region of lakes including some of considerable size, e.g., the Tungting Lake, the Poyang Lake, the Tai Hu, the Hungtze Hu, and the Chao Hu; (VI) it is a great manufacturing, region, silk and yarn industries being found in Kiangsu, Indian ink in Anhui, porcelain in Kiangsi, cotton cloth and steelwork in Hupeh, and silk, salt and oil in Szechuan; (VII) it is the region of the great Treaty Ports open to foreign trade, including Shanghai, Chinkiang, Wuhu, Hankow, Changsha and Chungking.

From the point of view of the history of China the Yangtze Basin is not the most important; that distinction belongs to the Hwang Ho basin; but the Yangtze basin holds the first place in modern history and in present-day estimates because of its growing importance and its enormous wealth. As far as China Proper is concerned the Yangtze basin forms the heart of the country, with an area of close upon 600,000 square miles and a population of 180,000,000. The inhabitants of the valley have in their blood elements of an overflow from the northern valley. This overflow has taken place at various times, and is but an illustration of the close connexion between geography and history. Mr. Archibald Little writes on this subject:

The striking effect of geographical conditions in the development of a people is shown in the long confinement of the Chinese race to the region north of the Tsingling mountains—the range that forms the water-parting between the basins of the Yellow River and the Yangtze. It seems idle to speculate on the primary origin of the Chinese race, but this we do know, namely, that they remained stationary during a period of about three thousand years (say, 2852 to 202 B.C.) in this region, cultivating the fertile bottom lands of the Wei and Yellow Rivers and the open loess country of Shensi, from whose yellow soil the old name of "Yellow Emperor"-Hwang Tiis supposed to be derived. The loess prairie lay open ready for the plough, while to the south were lofty mountains covered with impenetrable forest, with which also the whole Yangtze basin was at that period equally filled up. It was the continually increasing pressure of Tartar incursions from the north that probably drove the Chinese to seek more peaceful homes in the south, and gradually to clear away the forests that covered the country. Although Chinese history records fighting with the savages who then occupied the region, we hear of no long continuous struggles like those carried on almost uninterruptedly with their northern neighbours. The Chinese were so harassed by these savage irruptions from Mongolia that they underwent the enormous labour of building a series of walls and fortresses along their northern frontiers, culminating in the Great Wall, itself built about 200 B.C., to keep them out. And they were so frequently conquered in these struggles that they had to submit to a succession of Tartar dynasties in North China, until finally the Mongol dynasty urder Kublai ruled the whole empire, north and south; the Mongols were driven out by the Mings in A.D. 1368, whereby an interregnum of Chinese rule, lasting 276 years, succeeded until the final conquest of China by the Manchu Tartars was completed in A.D. 1644. The manly Tartar element infused into the blood of the inhabitants of North China is shown in the superior physique of the northerners as compared with the effeminate, more purely Chinese inhabitants of the Yangtze region. The Tartars throughout appear to have fused with the Chinese, and to have ultimately adopted their civilization with all its

features good and bad; then each hardy tribe, one after another, has succumbed to Chinese luxury, become effete, and so has had to submit to be driven out by more vigorous successors, until these in their turn ultimately go the same road."

In the southern part of the basin we have, amongst the forests of southern Kiangsi, Hunan and on the Kweichow watershed, remnants of the aboriginal race that inhabited the whole region. At the present time sc much intermarriage has taken place between the aborigines and the invading people that it is difficult to distinguish the one from the other. Only in language and in dress, and in the retention of a few social customs. can the Miaos, and associated tribes, be distinguished from the descendants of those who have come in much later. These original races have been driven back without serious opposition into their mountain homes, on the southern watershed and in the Tibetan border, in much the same way as the Britons were driven back by the invading Saxons and made their homes in Cornwall, Wales and Cambria, and in Scotland and Ireland. The differences now to be found are so slight however, that only the expert ethnologist can recognize them, and Little is quite justified in saying :

"The truth is that, taken generally, the inhabitants of the China of to-day are a wonderfully homogeneous race, quite as much so as are the inhabitants of modern Europe; their habits, customs, manners and deportment being absolutely identical throughout the eighteen provinces. This evidence of close intermixture is astonishing when one notes the wretchedly primitive means of intercommunication in parts where watercarriage is unavailable; it must be attributed to the indefatigable energy of the travelling merchants, who are found daily on all the roads, 'wet' or 'dry,' throughout the empire, and to the constant interchange of swarms of officials, due to the law that precludes an official from serving in his native province, and to the custom of removing an official from his post after a term of three years or less of service."

Before we discuss the course of the Yangtze in detail it will be well to obtain some idea of the comparative status of the river by reference to measurements of the length, basin area, and discharge of other great rivers. The following table is taken from the "Report on the Yangtze Estuary" by Mr. H. von Heidenstam, Engineer-in-Chief of the Whangpoo Conservancy Board, published in April 1917, from which also much of the information following has been drawn:-

	Approximate	Approximate	Maximum An	nual Mean
River	Length (Miles	s) Basin	Recorded L	Discharge
	,	(Sq. Miles)	Discharge (Cu.	.Ft.pr.sec.
		(Cu.Ft.pr.sec.)	- '
Ganges	1,500	470,000	2,050,000	532,000
Volga	2,000	563,000	1,426,000	200,000
Zambesi	1,600	850,000		
Yenesei	3,700	880,000		
Lena	2,000	940,000		
Mississippi	4,200	1,244,000	1,617,000	225,000
Obi	3,200	1.300,000		
Congo	2,000	1,350,000		******
Nile	4,000	1,500,000	465,000	10,000
La Plata	1,500	1,600,000	1,100,000	765,000
Amazon	4,000	2,250,000		
Yangtze	3,200	750,000	2,152,581*	1,050,000
			2,531,682**	

^{*} Recorded on the 27th July, 1915 at Wuhu.

^{**} Recorded on the 19th July, 1915 at Nanking.

The above table sets forth the position of the Yangtze amongst the great rivers of the world, but in Chinese eyes it is of course the premier river of the country. The Chinese know the Yangtze as "Kiang," i.e., "The River" par excellence, and the names by which it is known to foreigners are unknown amongst them. The name by which it is usually known, the Yangtze, meets the ordinary needs of foreign reference, though it is only near Yangchow, on the other side of the river from Chinkiang, that this name is applied by the Chinese themselves, and even in this connexion it is only in more ancient topographical works that it has been used amongst the Chinese until in quite recent years, when the vogue given to the term in international documents has spread its use amongst them. The Chinese have several names for the river. In their maps and in ordinary conversation the upper part of the stream, below the head-waters in Tibet, that is to say when the river has taken its decisive turn to the south, is called the Kinsha Kiang, or River of Golden Sand, and this name it retains as far as the Szechuanese city of Suifu where it is joined on the northern bank by the Min Ho; between Suifu and Ichang it is known as the Chuan Ho or Szechuan River; and below Ichang it is known as the Chang Kiang or Long River. This assortment of names is more or less local, the term "Kiang" being the general term of reference. A number of names has been used amongst foreigners, the worst of which is the usual French name, the Blue River, given for some unknown reason.

The drainage basin of the Yangtze occupies a large part of the area between the 25th and 36th parallels of north latitude and between the 91st and 122nd meridians of east longitude. It is approximately 3,200 miles in length and with its tributaries drains approximately 756,500 square miles. It is navigable from the sea to a point above Suifu, which is 1,630 miles up Except for short stretches it is unnavigable beyond this point, although the Min River, rising in the spurs of the Kwen Lun, is navigable as far as the point at which it enters the Chengtu plain. The boundaries of the basin are the watershed lines on north, west and south, and the China Seas to the east. The northern watershed is on an average considerably higher than the southern one. It is regarded as a prolongation of the main axis of the Tien Shan and the Kuen Lun, and starts north of the Tangla mountains where it has an elevation of about 20,000 feet. It then passes through the province of Kansu, maintaining a height of over 5,000 feet and moves southeast through the province of Shensi following the line of the Tsinling Shan, then through southern Honan and to the region of the Hwai River where it sinks into vague indistinction south of the old bed of the Hwang Ho. The southern watershed is much more definite. Starting in the Tangla mountains it runs, razor-backed, with an elevation of some 15,000 to 16,000 feet, for a considerable distance almost due south between the Kinsha Kiang and the upper reaches of the Mekong until it reaches the northern boundary of Yunnan. At this point it turns west and runs very close to the actual stream, so that the descent from the watershed to the actual bed of the river is extremely steep. At this point there is one low pass into the province of Kwangsi, through which runs the Shingar canal which serves as a water communication between the Yangtze valley and the West River valley.

This part of the watershed, known as the Nan Ling, consists really of the highest points of a series of parallel ranges running southwest to northeast. From the Kweichow province the watershed, known here as the Nan Shan, forms the southern boundary of Hunan and Kiangsi, with only two passes of importance, from 2,000 to 3,000 feet high. The watershed now passes northeast forming a barrier between Kiangsi and Fukien, and pushes to the sea between Hangchow and the Tai Hu, with no passes less than 1,000 feet.

Table Showing the Highest and lowest water at Hankow from 1865 to 1919,
With Reference to Lowest Record in 1868.

[From Annual Report of British Municipal Council, Hankow].

110 (0	LOWEST R	IVER	HIGHEST RIVER				
YEAR	Date	Feet	Inches	Date	Feet	Inche	
1865	February5th	- 6	0	August20th	43	0	
1866 1867	January10th	-2 0	1	August12th	† 48 45	3 5	
.100/	January3rd			September15th	40		
	HANKOW GAUGE	E ESTA	BLISHE	D:-	,		
1868	February4th January29th	0	0	October19th	44	! 4	
1869	January29th	10	6 2	July23rd	†49 †50	: 0	
1870 1871	March9th February5th	1	9	August4th September6th	T30	4	
1872	January25th	4	7 8	July9th	46	3	
1873	March 2nd	0	8	Tuly	4.3	0	
1874	Ianuary29th	3	5	Tuiv22nd	38	2	
1875	lanuary (4th	4	3	July	45	()	
1876	I lanuary 26th	1 0	5	August26th	43	9	
1877	lanuary26th	1	2 6	May23rd	24 +18	10	
1878	January30th March2nd	2	9	August6th July24th	T10	1 4	
1880	January11th	õ	1 7	July23rd	39	5	
1881	Ianuary12th	0	5	October19th	37	5	
1882	January29th	6	9	Iuly29th	+46	9	
1883	February15th	3	11	July25th July27th	45	5	
1884	December30th	-0 0	4	July27th	36 45	9	
1885	January8th	1	3 8	July24th	41	6	
1886	February 23rd	3	9	August23rd July23rd	+18	4	
1888	January 19th January 24th	_0	3	August	40	8	
1589	March22nd	ő	2	October 13th	+48	3	
1890	February20th	5	3	August20th	46	9	
1891	February25th	1	8	July30th	43	0	
1892	February1st January29th	1	0	July30th	43	9	
1893	January29th	2 3	6	August22nd	45	10	
1894 1895	January25th	-0	4	June28th August24th	41		
1896	March2nd January29th	-1	0	October 10th	+46	1 7	
1897	February18th	5	5	October 10th August 7th August 25th	46	ti	
1898	December30th	3	0	August25th	40	5	
1899	December30th February12th	0	0	October .2nd July .31st	41	9	
1900	February16th	8	1	July31st	31	6	
1901	March10th	-3 -1	2	July25th	46 37	11	
1902 1903	March23rd	=0	11	September21st August11th	42	. 6	
1904	February5th February2nd	=0	3	August12th	37	7	
1905	February9th	5	0	September21st	43	5	
1906	December31st	4	7	August24th	45	0	
1907	lanuary 25th	1	1	October27th	44	1	
1908	January29th	6	9	July23rd	43	9	
1909	March9th	3	9	July16th	46 49	5 7	
1940 1941	February21st	4 5	1 0	August	1.47	8	
1912	January28th February18th	9	7	July19th		8	
1913	February 11th	2	4	July 23rd, August 10th	+46 41	0	
1914	February11th January21st & 22nd	1	7	July 23rd, August 10th June26th and 27th	39	5	
1915	March2nd	0	1	August25th	41	7	
1916	February 5th, 6th & 7th	4	1	August9th	38	7	
1917	February20th February21st & 22nd	0	6	August10th	46	1 1	
19 [8 19 19	Describer 20th 2-21	. 0	6	August24th August4th and 5th	45 46	3	
1919	December30th & 31st February2nd	-0	10	July31st	45	6	
2020	2 Jordany2nd			July	10	\`	
				Bund lev	el 46	6	

We may well digress for a short space here to consider the claim of Chekiang to be regarded as part of the Yangtze basin, as indeed we have, for the sake of convenience, reckoned. The question really turns upon whether Hangchow Bay is a former mouth of the Yangtze. In the opinion of some geologists it is fairly certain that the Yangtze formerly discharged either partly or wholly into the Tsientang Kiang, and this opinion was supported by Dr. Edkins from the records of Chinese history, and still further supported on geological and local geographical evidence by Richthofen. The whole question has been reviewed by Mr. von Heidenstam in the Report to which reference is made above. He writes:—

The crucial point is as to the level and width of certain gaps in the Chinkiang-Hangchow hills. The writer has first hand information as to the western side of these hills, and cannot pronounce against the possibility of there having been former outlets.

A careful examination of the country between the Tai Hu and the Tanyang Hu, Kaochunhsien, Shuiyang, and Ningkowfu would decide this question. As far as the writer is aware there are the following conceivable courses:—

- (1) Taipingfu or Wuhu via the Tanyang Hu, Liyang and Ishing to the Tai Hu and thence to the sea. Doubtful.
- (2) Wuhu via Tanyang Hu, Kaochun, the Kucheng Hu, the 'Barriers,' Liyang, Ishing and the Tai Hu. This seems probable. There is some kind of water transit actually existing.
- (3) Wuhu via Wanchih and the marshes to Hsinhochuang, through a gap at that place to the Tanan Hu, and thence towards the Tai Hu. The ridge shown on the available maps between the lakes makes this improbable.

There are water passages in existence in at least the second of these openings but it may be that the elevations are inconsistent with the theory. Richthofen did not actually visit this line, as far as the writer is aware, but went very near to it. The hills between Tatung and Ningkwofu, and between Ningkwofu and Huchow make any more southern course absolutely impossible.

This question has a double interest:-

- (1) It shows that in case of emergency a water outlet may conceivably be obtained for the relief of the Yangtze.
- (2) In the distant future, if and when silting has considerably raised the bed of the river, floods may burst through this alternative opening.

The foregoing affords fairly good reason for including the province of Chekiang in the Yangtze basin, and to it must be added the fact that economically it is dependent to a large extent on the present Yangtze delta.

We may now turn our attention to the Yangtze and the course it takes in its 3,200-mile journey to the sea. Rising in the confused Central Asian mountains, on the northern slopes of the Tangla range, the head waters of the river are fully 16,000 feet above sea level, and some 200 miles from its source. Przhvalski found the stream flowing with a rapid current in a bed which from bank to bank is fully a mile wide, and the stream itself is 750 feet wide. During the summer floods the bed is full from bank to bank. After a short stretch to the north the river is thrust by the Baiankara-ula into a south-easterly direction as far as Batang, which is on the

Tibeto-Chinese border on parallel 30 deg. north. Batang stands at 9,000 feet above sea-level, and 550 miles from the source of the river, so that there has been a fall in that 500 miles of 7,000 feet, or about 14 feet per mile. As a matter of fact in the first 400 miles the river does not fall more than 200 feet, so that we have a drop of 6,800 feet in 150 miles. The first 400 miles are on the high Tibetan plateau, whilst the next 150 miles are a part of the descent from the Tibetan plateau to the Lower Szechuan level, marking the southern buttresses of the Szechuan high lands. It is at Batang that the river, known for the next 1,000 miles as the Kinsha Kiang, turns directly south and flows parallel to the upper courses of the Irawadi, the Salwen and the Mekong, until it reaches Shihku just outside the Szechuan border, whence it turns almost due north to Fengkow and then due south again to Sincheng. From this point it goes almost due east until it is joined by the Yalung with which it has flowed practically parallel for over a thousand miles. From this point until just before reaching the junction with the Min River the Yangtze forms the boundary between Szechuan and Yunnan, following a north-easterly direction as far as Ping shan which is 1,750 miles from the mouth of the river and only some thousand feet above sea-level. A few more miles bring the river to Suifu, 1,700 miles from the mouth of the river, nearly the same height above sealevel as Pingshan, and at the head of junk navigation. Between Batang and Suifu, a distance of roughly 1,000 miles, the river falls almost steadily for 8,000 feet. At Suifu the moderate fall of the river begins, and continues through Chungking to Ichang. From Suifu to Chungking is a distance of 200 miles and this section of the river falls about 300 feet, or 1 foot 5 inches to the mile.

Between Chungking and Ichang special care has been taken to ascertain the fall in order to facilitate the eventual navigation of these waters by steam. Mr. A. Little writes on this section as follows:—

A comparison of three years' barometrical readings at Chungking, in Szechuan, and at Siccawei, the observatory of the Jesuit Fathers near Shanghai, and the résumé of some 4,000 observations enumerated in Mr. Baber's paper on the subject, exhibit the unexpectedly small difference of level between the two places of 650 feet. Now, as the average rate of the current down the rapids, which large and small, obstruct the river throughout the whole distance of nearly 500 nautical miles between Chungking and Ichang, is not less than five knots, a fall of twelve inches to the mile between those two places cannot be considered excessive. This would give a total of 500 feet as the fall from Ichang to the sea, 960 miles below. The great fall in the river bed is, as is only natural, in the upper half of its course, where the stream rushes as an unnavigable mountain torrent through the defiles of the unpenetrated ranges of Western Szechuan and Tibet, and where Mr. Baber estimates the fall at no less than six feet to the mile. The average speed of the comparatively more tranquil lower half, say from Pingshan, the city situated at the head of the present junk navigation, some 1,700 nautical miles from the sea, is still, as Captain Blackiston, the early explorer of the Yangtze, points out, double that of the Nile and Amazon, and three times that of the Ganges.

This greater fall in the bed and consequent rapidity of current is attributable to the greater hardness and insolubility of the rocks over which the Yangtze water flows.

The foregoing extract covers the remainder of the Yangtze profile as far as the sea. The sub-joined table of gradients in the main valley is taken from von Heidenstam, and shows at a glance the essential details in connexion with the subject.

TABLE OF GRADIENTS IN MAIN VALLEY.

		Distance	Average Gradient	Remarks.
From	to.	(Nau. Mls.	.) It. per mile.	
Tangla Mts.	Sogongomba	400	1.75	(Przhvalsky)
Sogongomba	Batang	170	42.90	(Little : Gill)
Batang	Wawu	790	8.23	Cataracts
Wawu	Yangliushu	75	9.33	(Baber)
Yangliushu	Kwochwantan	35	2.57	(Baber)
Kwochwantan	Pingshan	55	1.73	Limit of nav.
Pingshan	Suifu	33	1.66	
Suifu	Chungking	211	1.50	*
Chungking	Ichang	400	1.20	By Szechuan-
	- C			Hankow Rly.
Ichang	Yochow	245	0.344	levels.
Yochow	Hankow	122	0.147	By Canton-
			•	Hankow Rly.
Hankow	Kiukiang	1.32	0.16	levels.
Kiukiang	Wuhu	189	0.18	
Wuhu	Woosung	249	0.065	
Woosung	Wuhu (L.W.)	249	0.030	Maximum
(Spring H.W.)				country -Ef-
,				fect of
				Spring Tide.

Before proceeding to describe the lower part of the river, which is quite different from the upper part and which, as will be seen from an examination of the above table, has no particular interest from the point of view of gradient, we may well devote a few lines to the character of the country through which the Yangtze passes. As any map will show, the first third of the river's course is through an extremely complicated mountainous district and until it reaches Pingshan there is seldom any place at which the valley through which the river passes is any wider than the actual river bed. In this part of its course the river is torrential and frequently flows between cliffs that rise several hundred feet sheer from the water edges These conditions obtain until the river reaches Pingshan, where the character somewhat changes and junk navigation begins. From this point as far as Ichang the river is increasingly navigable, and in recent years even the series of rapids between Chungking and Ichang is taken by specially strong steamers, so that the immemorial tracking will probably in time die a natural death. The following description of the region of the rapids and of the method of navigation before the advent of steam on the Upper Yangtze is taken from Pére Richard:

The rapids appear in numerous succession, one of the fiercest being between Ichang and Patung. When the water is low, the New Rapid—Sin Tan or Sin-lung Tan—near Yunyanghsien, is also very dangerous. If the descent of these rapids is an expeditious matter it is, however, not unattended by danger (as regards three or four of them at least); their very slow, tiresome ascent is still more dangerous. The boats used in crossing them have an enormous scull in front. This is manned by four or five men and is intended to strengthen the rudder. In the low-water season (spring and autumn), and especially in winter, they are more easily crossed, and the distance from Ichang to Changking may be covered in a few days, though this same journey requires sometimes as much as thirty days and more, and at least three weeks. The time required to perform the voyage varies in fact to a great extent, and depends especially on the buoyancy of the boat.

In this part of its course the Yangtze, which has already received the longest of its tributaries, the Yalung Kiang—a mere torrential stream after all—receives on its left bank its chief affluents. These are the Min Kiang which was long considered, and by the Chinese is still considered, the parent stream of the Yangtze on account of its importance; the Kialing Kiang with its tributaries watering a large part of eastern Szechuan and running into the Yangtze at Chungking; and on the right bank the Hoh Kiang and the Wu Kiang both from Kweichow and both suitable for navigation.

In this part of the river the rise in the high-water season (summer especially, when the snows on the Tibetan table-land and on the high lands of Szechuan have melted) is as much as 96 feet above low-water mark. At Chungking there is a difference of fully 100 feet between average minimum water level and average maximum flood level.

At Ichang the river enters upon what may be described as the easily navigable part of its course. Up to Ichang steamers of ordinary construction though not of heavy tonnage are able to proceed, and it may be reckoned that at Ichang the river enters its plain course. It is therefore of interest to note that according to figures given by von Heidenstam, "it seems there can be little doubt that the majority of the silt which reaches the estuary can be regarded as originating above Ichang, since while some of the lower streams do undoubtedly feed silt into the Yangtze there is considerable compensation effect in the deposits left in the lake areas by the summer floods from the Yangtze." The following table, showing the points on the river above which the silt is collected and the proportion percent, in which it is collected, based on von Heidenstam's table, is of interest:

Origin of Silt: Eroded from the:

(1)	Above	Pingshan	24 p	er	cent.	Tibetan plateau and valleys.
(2)	,,	Suifu to Chungking	19 .	4 4	2.2	Szechuan plain.
(3)	,	Ichang	7.	٠,	,,	Small lateral water-sheds.
(4)		Yochow	14 ,	, ,	2.2	Tungting Lake and sources.
(5)	, ,	Hankow	10	,,	,,	Han River basin.
(6)	,,	Hukow	11 ,	,	2.2	Poyang Lake basin & sources
(7)	,,	Nanking	3.	٠,	,,	Small streams.
(8)	,,	Chinkiang	10 .	• •	22	Hwei River.
(9)	,,	Woosung	2,	, ,	,,	Whangpoo.

It will thus be seen that Ichang marks the point at which 50 per cent. of the silt carried down by the river has been gathered. On this the following extract from Little is of interest:

The volume of water brought down per second.....is, at Ichang in June, 675,800 cubic feet; that at Hankow, 360 miles lower down, being at the same period, according to Dr. Guppy of H.M.S. Hornet, nearly 1,000,000 cubic feet: the increase being due to the influx from the Tungting lake, 120 miles above Hankow, and from the Han river, which flows into the Yangtze at Hankow and from which the town of Hankow takes its name, which two are the only noticeable affluents throughout this stretch of the river. Compared with these figures, it is curious to note that the water discharged into the sea by the old familiar Thames is estimated at 2,300 feet per second. Reducing the figures given by Captain Blakiston for Ichang in June to the average of the year, on the basis of Dr. Guppy's monthly observations in Hankow, we find the discharge at the former port to be actually 560,000 feet per second for the whole year round, which would make the volume

of water at Ichang, 960 miles from the sea, just 244 times that of the Thames at London, distant from the sea forty miles only. The amount of solid matter in suspension carried actually past Hankow. 600 miles from the sea, is estimated by the same observer at five billion cubic feet.

The comparison of the sediment annually brought down by the respective rivers at these two points, admitting the estimates to be fairly approximate, is as 2,000,000 cubic feet to 5,000,000,000 or as 1 or 2,500. Taking the drainage area of the Yangtze at 600,000 square miles, and estimating the sediment discharge as above, both Captain Blakiston's and Dr. Guppy's figures give a rate of subaerial denudation for the whole catchment basin of about one foot in 3,000 years. Allowing that one-half of this amount of sediment is employed in raising the banks and in filling up the expanse of its inferior valleys while inundated by the summer floods, the remaining half, carried out to sea, is sufficient to create annually a fresh island in the Pacific one mile square and fifteen fathoms deep. The rapid rate at which the coast-line is gaining on the ocean, startling ocular evidence of which is presented to every old resident of Shanghai, is thus not surprising. In the very near future the innumerable rocky islands which fringe the coast, the 'Saddles,' the 'Ruggeds,' and the Chusan archipelago generally, and which now stand out of the shallow water of the estuary, will look down upon the embanked paddy-fields, with the river flowing between, precisely as the hills inland from Shanghai now stand out from the fields which have been raised by the same process within the limits of the historical period.

It seems probable, and this view is strongly supported by Little, that in comparatively recent geological times the Yangtze discharged into the ocean through a series of lakes, the remains of which still occupy a considerable portion of the valley in winter and in summer are enlarged by floods to almost their original surface area. It is probable that the famous "Red Basin" of Szechuan was a tertiary lake, and that at one time the Yangtze discharged its waters through this lake. Of the more recent lake areas we find the remains of the first in the province of Hupeh and in the province of Hunan. At the present time innumerable small lakes lying in the valley of the Han, a group lying in the valley of the Yangtze itself, and the area drained by the Tungting lake are all liable to overflow at the season of summer floods. During this season these lakes act as receptacles into which a good deal of the surplus water back-flows, and until a certain level is reached the flooding of the country is avoided; but when that level is exceeded, the waters, making sport of the numerous embankments designed to keep them within fixed channels, flood the cultivated fields on either bank to a depth of several feet, and a vast inland lake is formed in the heart of the country, from which emerge a few tree-tops and roofs of houses. During this periodical rise of the waters it is calculated that a quarter of an inch of sediment is deposited, thus transferring the mountains of Tibet and Szechuan to the plains of central China; and geologically speaking it cannot be long before the ancient lake bed is filled up. The lower limit of this first lake area is at Wusueh just on the border of Kiangsi and Hupeh, though on the Hupeh side of the river. The second old lake basin comprised in all probability the lake-dotted plain between Kiukiang and Anking and, to the south of the river, the Poyang Lake basin, which was bounded towards the sea by a cross range a little before reaching Wuhu. At this point the channel is very tortuous and rock infested. In the third basin, of which Wuhu forms the centre, we have less in the way of actual lake remnants than in the two preceding areas, but we have the ancient tradition of an outlet to the sea through the Tanan Hu, the Tai Hu and Hangchow Bay. The Wuhu basin was bounded towards the sea by another low cross ridge, which is marked at the present time by the well-known passage of the Pillars. Possibly Nanking was roughly the centre of another lake basin, for to the south of the city stretches a wide alluvia! flat, for a considerable portion of the year below the level of the river, and now producing enormous quantities of rice. At a geologically earlier date possibly Nanking formed the head of the Yangtze delta, at the time when the river made its way to the sea by the Tsientang River.

The following extract from von Heidenstam's Report describes the delta of the Yangtze and all necessary details:

At Chinkiang the Yangtze emerges from the hilly area which so far strictly defines its course but for reasons already given...Kiangyin has been assumed as the head of the estuary. During the later millennia this is also topographically correct as far as the right bank is concerned since there is a scattered collection of hills extending from the main mass near Ihsingsien round the west and north sides of the Tai Hu past Changchoufu to Kiangyin, but the left bank is less sharply defined.

Counting from Kiangyin, the actual estuary area extends 83 miles south-east by east to the eastern extremity of Tsungming Island (Drinkwater Point). It is here sufficient to say that the width between low water lines increases from about 1-1/2 miles at Kiangyin to about 40 miles between the terminal promontory on the left bank ("North Branch Cape") and Yangtze Cape.

Some doubt arises as to the exact limits of the delta but it may be said that the alluvial area below Kiangyin which surrounds the estuary consists principally of two triangular areas projecting into the Yellow Sea, and a large island (Tsungming) between them.

The northern triangle extends from Jukaohsien to the North Cape and is 80 miles by 35 miles wide at the root (area: 1,400 square miles.)

The southern triangle is defined by the water line and a line from Kiangyin through Soochow and Kashing, terminating at Haiyenhsien. The base of this triangle is 90 miles long and its perpendicular height to Yangtze Cape is 50 miles (area: 2,250 square miles).

Tsungming Island is 35 miles long with an average breadth of about 6 miles (area: 210 square miles).

Shoals, less than 5 fathoms, extend from the mouths of the estuary fanwise to the line Shaweishan-Ariadne and Gutzlaff.

Within the estuary itself are numerous shoals and small islands.

On the left bank above Kiangyin there is a very extensive alluvial area between Yangchowfu (opposite Chinkiang) and Chingkianghsien (opposite Kiangyin) extending northwards to the intricate mesh of lakes and waterways east of the Grand Canal associated with the River. It should be observed in this connexion that there are shoals all along the coast north of the Yangtze which are derived either from the Yellow River (in its old position) or the Yangtze, probably the former.

There is an alluvial area in the triangle Huchoufu-Kashingfu-Hangchow, which appears to belong to the Tsientang River, but may partially or even largely owe its origin to the Yangtze, especially if the latter formerly discharged through the Liyang Gap into the Tai Hu. The northern boundary is similarly ill defined, as the delta merges into the ancient deltas of the Hwai and Yellow Rivers.

The general form is comparatively simple and presents fewer irregularities than is the case with most large tidal rivers. Its most striking feature is its immense size. The country in general is extremely flat, the average level being from 12 to 15 feet above the Woosung Horizontal Zero, and it is protected from inundation by dykes.

The Si Kiang Basin.

The Si Kiang, or West River, basin is the smallest of the three areas into which China Proper is divided, and it is worth noticing that in this valley we are confined to China Proper. In the valleys of the Hwang Ho and of the Yangtze there are included considerable stretches of Outer China, but the basin of the West River does not stretch beyond the confines of China Proper. It includes four provinces all of considerable size but The official figures for the four provinces show of no large population. an area of 390,000 square miles and a population of 60,000,000. From this it will be seen that the density of population is not high, being only about 150 to the square mile. This may be compared with an average of 200 per square mile for the whole of China Proper, with an average of 160 per square mile in the Hwang Ho basin, and of 420 per square mile in the Yangtze Kiang basin. These figures show one of two things: either that the basin of this river is very poor in natural resources in comparison with the central valley of China, and slightly poorer than the northern valley, or that such resources as the basin does possess are far from being developed in comparison with those further north. Now it is easily seen that the real trouble may be that the resources are good but they are not developed to anything like the same extent as they are in other parts of China. It must be remembered that the people of the West River basin are amongst the most energetic in the country. One of the best observers of Chinese life, the late T.T. Meadows, has called attention to principles set forth by Schlegel in his "Philosophy of History" applying them to the Chinese of the West River delta, which are worth recalling at this point and in this connexion :-

The sea gives us the conception of the Undefined, the Unlimited and Infinite; and as man feels himself in the sphere of this Infinite. so does he thereby feel encouraged to step beyond the world of restrictions. The sea invites man to conquest, or rapine, but in like manner to profit and acquisition by trade; the land—the great valleys—attaches man to the soil: he is thereby brought into an infinite number of states of dependence, but the sea carries him out of these confined orbits. Those who navigate the sea seek to gain, to acquire; but their medium is perverted in such manner that they put their property and even their lives in danger of loss. The medium is therefore the opposite of that which is aimed at. It is this precisely which elevates traffic above itself and makes it something brave and noble. Courage must now enter into trade; bravery at the same time being associated with prudence. For brayery opposed to the sea must at the same time be craft, since it has to deal with craft-with the most uncertain and deceitful element. This endless plain is absolutely soft, for it resists no pressure not even a breath: it looks infinitely innocent, yielding, kind and caressing. And just this yielding is it which transforms the sea into the most powerful element. To such deceit and force man opposes but a single piece of wood, relies merely on his courage and presence of mind, and so passes from the Firm to the Unstable, himself taking with him his fabricated ground. The ship, this swan of the sea, which with light and rounded movements

traverses the watery plain or circumnavigates in it, is an instrument whose invention does the greatest honour as well to man's boldness, as to his understanding.

As Meadows pointed out, the preceding is not applied by Schlegel to the Chinese, whom Schlegel includes amongst the exceptions, but as a matter of fact it does apply to the inhabitants of the West River basin. Meadows correctly insists that the people of this basin are amongst the most enterprising in China, and he calls them "the Anglo-Saxons of Asia, as sailors, as merchants, as colonists and, indeed, as adventurers generally." This being so there is need of some explanation of the relatively small population of this area, and it is to be found in two factors. The first of these is the character of the soil. Except for the delta of the West River the whole area is mountainous, and although the region is generally within the tropics and enjoys a tropical climate, which should conduce to an abundant produce of an agricultural kind, the fact that so much of it is high land greatly reduces the average temperature for the whole basin, thus limiting its agricultural productivity, and the mountainous nature of the country largely reduces the area available for cultivation. This makes the support of an abundant population impossible, and we are not at all surprised to find that by far the greatest density of population is in the delta province of Kwangtung. In this province more than one third of the population of the basin is to be found, that is to say on less than one quarter of the area. The presence of extensive mineral deposits in the mountain area does not serve to correct the balance, for the method by which the minerals are won is so primitive at present that there is no great inducement for an industrious population to resort to the higher areas for the purpose of taking advantage of the opportunities which we would naturally expect they would offer for the fairly rapid acquirement of wealth as compared with the slow method of agriculture. The second factor in keeping down the population is the steady emigration of the adventurous part of the population to places beyond the sea. The Straits Settlements, the Malay Archipelago, all the islands of the South Sea, the Philippines, and French Indo-China contain large populations of Chinese from the West River basin, chiefly Cantonese, who going to these places with the intention of returning to their native places, later on send for their families and settle down permanently in the new homes they have chosen for themselves.

The area with which we are dealing is actually somewhat larger than the actual basin of the West River. Kwangsi and Kwangtung are drained entirely by the West River and its tributaries, but the provinces of Yunnan and Kweichow thrust themselves beyond the actual basin of the West River and their northern portions drain into the Yangtze Kiang, and geographically form part of the basin of that river. It is convenient, however, to follow the administrative divisions of the country and reckon even these Yangtze-draining regions as part of the West River basin. With this exception the area now under consideration forms a unit that has its own characteristics. These characteristics are partly due to the fact that the basin is cut off to a large extent from the rest of China. There is a continuous line of mountains separating the West River basin from its northern neighbour, and this line of mountains is as effectual a barrier as the Pyrenees. There are but two passes of any importance for communication purposes through it, the Che-ling and the Mei-ling. The latter of these is mentioned in the accounts of the early British Embassies, and by Abbé Huc, the account of Macartney's Embassy mentioning the height of the pass as 8,000 feet. (This is obviously a miscalculation, as its height is really not much more than 1,000 feet, but even this is a very considerable drop from the neighbouring parts of the chain, which average some 3,000 feet.) The chain is known generally as the Nan Shan, and is really an extension of

the great Yunnan mountain system, which continues unbroken right from Yunnan to the sea near Amoy, though the height varies considerably at different points in the nine-hundred mile stretch from the eastern flank of the Yunnan plateau to the sea. Of the whole basin that portion which has any coast is entirely in Kwangtung. None of the other provinces touches the sea, but they all have access to the sea by means of the West River which dominates the whole geographic unit, or by tributaries of the Yangtze to the north, or by a series of rivers flowing through non-Chinese territory to the south. The West River is not to be compared either in size or in usefulness with the Yangtze, but it is nevertheless a great river, comparing it with the rivers of Europe. Thus it is only about 500 miles shorter than the Danube, which is reckoned at 1,750 miles, and is half as long again as the Rhine which is 800 miles in length. It is navigable for nearly 1,000 miles. By means of its tributaries it reaches into the whole of the four provinces, and a particularly important tributary links it with the province of Fukien, which though practically a self-contained province, belonging neither to the Yangtze basin nor to the West River basin, is most conveniently treated as part of the latter basin, though from the statistics given above Fukien province is excluded.

The basin, as we have said, has it own characteristics. Thus it is for the greater part a tropical and semi-tropical region. Apart from the fact that the people have comparatively little pure Chinese blood in them there is to be considered the political effect of isolation as noted above. To this add the fact that the people in the lower parts of the area, the deltaic district, have been longest in touch with western people, ways and ideas, and there is little occasion for surprise that more than one of the rebellions that made the late dynasty tremble in its Forbidden City took its rise in provinces drained by the Si Kiang.

The basin has considerable geological enterest. In its more easterly stretches porphyry, granite and schist are in evidence, but in other parts wide zones of limestone overlie the primaries and the outcrops of granite and porphyry are only occasional. The curious contortions and folding of the secondary limestone produce, throughout most of the basin, a characteristic scenery. A series of plateaux descends from west to east. In the north the Nan Shan constitutes a barrier between this basin and that of the Yangtze, and from these mountains and others flow many rivers, by which the basin is abundantly watered.

An elaborate account of the whole West River has recently appeared in the form of a Report on a survey conducted in 1916 in order to draft a scheme for conservancy work that would prevent the disastrous floods that had been prevalent in the valley for many years, and that during 1914 and 1915 had caused almost unprecedented loss. On this Report by Captain G. W. Olivecrona, the following sketch is based.

The West River has its sources in the north-eastern part of Yunnan province near the town of Kutsing. First it flows to the south, receiving tributaries from several of the plateau lakes, and when nearing the Tropic of Cancer it turns in a north-easterly direction to the point of meeting of the three provinces of Yunnan, Kweichow and Kwangsi. So far it is known by the name Pahtah Ho. but from the point at which it makes its bend it is known as the Hung-Shui, and for a distance of about 230 miles it flows along the frontier between Kweichow and Kwangsi. The name by which it is known in this part of its course, Hung-Shui, means Red Water, and is given to it on account of the colour of the river during the flood season. On leaving the Kweichow frontier the stream takes a direction which is in the main south-easterly, and in this direction the river flows through the whole of Kwangsi province. On the border of the province it reaches the town of Wuchow, about 900 miles from the head waters of the river.

From this point, where it both enters the province of Kwangtung and turns slightly south-easterly, the river is known as the Si Kiang. At Sanshio the river takes a marked change in direction to the south and, throwing off an arm known as the Canton River on which stands the historic pert of Canton, the river enters the sea through a delta the several channels of which lie east and west of Macao. The river has a total length of 1113 miles. Of these 303 miles are in Yunnan, 231 along the border of Kweichow and Kwangsi, 387 in the province of Kwangsi, and the remainder, 196 miles, in Kwangtung.

During the dry season vessels with a draft of 5 feet can reach Wuchow, but beyond this point only junks and flat-bottomed motor-boats can proceed on account of obstruction by rapids. Small vessels of shallow draft can get up as far as Hingi in Kweichow, 530 miles above Wuchow.

The Si Kiang has a number of important tributaries. On the right bank, with its head waters in the province of Yunnan, is the Yuh Kiang. The general direction of this stream is south-east as far as Nanning, but here there is a change to direct east until reaching Hengchow when there takes place an irregular north-east sweep which brings about a junction with the West River at Sunchow, about 100 miles from Wuchow.

This river has a total length of 525 miles and receives a short distance above Nanning, which is nearly 400 miles from the source, the Tso Kiang, a somewhat important stream from the mountainous Tongking border. This subtributary is important because it is made up of several small streams which drain the north-eastern part of Tongking. The main stream is navigable for shallow draft motor-boats the whole year round as far as Nanning, and for nine months of the year as far as Poseh, almost on the Yunnan border. Of other tributaries on the right bank the most important is the Kakla Kiang or the Yung Kiang, which rises in the border of Kwangsi and Kwangtung and enters the West River at Tengyun. Between Wuchow and the sea a number of small rivers enter, the principal of them being the Nam Kiang, which affords communication with Lotingchow, and the Hsinhsin Kiang which joins the main stream at Shuihing. Turning to the left bank we have several tributaries of importance. First of all, joining the river where it passes from Yunnan into Kwangsi, we have the Ching Ho, about 100 miles long, with its sources in the north-eastern part of Yunnan and forming for some distance the boundary between Yunnan and Kweichow. Next comes the Pepan Kiang which after a course of some 285 miles from south-western Kweichow, runs into the Hung Shui near Hingi. A little further down stream the Pope Kiang runs in at the town of Wangai, just where the Hung Shui leaves the Kweichow border and turns south. The Pope Kiang has only a length of 125 miles. These three rivers are of little importance and each carries only a small quantity of traffic, and must be regarded as exceptions to what is said below with respect to the tributaries of the West River generally. The largest of the tributaries on the left bank is the Liu Kiang.

By many this is regarded as the main stream, a point of view apparently due to the fact that at the point of its junction with the Hung-Shui it has a greater width and depth than the Hung-Shui itself. An examination of the relative importance of the basins of the two rivers puts the matter beyond doubt. The Liu Kiang rises in a mountain district of comparatively high elevation which catches the moist winds of the summer monsoon and thus has a heavy precipitation, which gives during this particular season a larger discharge than the Hung-Shui. The Liu Kiang rises not far from Tushan in Kweichow and follows a course roughly parallel with the boundary between the provinces of Kweichow and Kwangsi until it reaches Mechai. where it takes a big sweep through a semicircle eastward, passing through Hwaiyuanhsien and Jungyun until it comes

directly south of Meichai, when it moves due south until its junction with the Lung Kiang at Liucheng From this point it flows south-east past Liuchowfu until it is joined on its left bank by the Losing Kiang, shortly after which it turns south again and joins the Hung-Shui Kiang just beyond Siangchow. The Liu Kiang receives several tributaries from the frontier district of Kwangsi and Hunan, the largest being the Lung Kiang which originates in the northern mountains of Kwangsi from a net-work of small rivers and joins the Liu Kiang about 100 miles from the junction of this river with the Hung-Shui. The Liu Kiang passes through fertile plains but is of little use for navigation on account of its many rapids. It has a length of 325 miles.

The Kwei Kiang, or Cassia River, which flows into the Si Kiang at Wuchow, drains the north-eastern part of Kwangsi and has its sources on the Hunan frontier. It is interrupted by many rapids but is generally navigable for shallow draft vessels as far as Kweilin the whole year round. Occasionally during the rains it carries a large amount of water which supplements the floods of the Si Kiang and causes a sudden rise of water level at Wuchow. The Cassia River is interesting because its upper course is connected by means of an artificial channel, built in B. C. 214, with the Siang Kiang, a member of the Yangtze river system with its outlet into Tungting Lake. The Cassia River is about 185 miles long.

The Bamboo River is properly speaking a tributary of the Pei Kiang or North River but has a branch not far from its mouth which cuts through the plains north of Ching-ki and carries part of its waters into the West River about 3 miles about the Samshui Reach. This Reach forms a peculiar connexion between the West and North rivers. A channel rather more than half a mile long leads the water from the one river to the other, the direction of flow depending on the difference in water levels in the two rivers. Usually the West River is the higher. This is always the case during the summer floods but during the winter the opposite condition generally prevails.

The main part of the West River with its tributaries passes through a thoroughly mountainous region, only the last 90 miles falling within the delta area The drainage basin is divided into numerous valleys by mountain ranges which traverse the country from the north-west to the southeast. To the north the Nanling mountains form the watershed between the West River and the Yangtze basins; to the west the Yunnan tableland divides the West River basin from those of the rivers of Burma and Tongking; while to the south the Juling range and its extension westward form a barrier to the coast. The rivers have generally cut their channels deep into the valleys. On account of the steep gradient the run-off during rainfalls is so rapid that the water-level rises considerably in a short time and the rivers swell to foaming torrents which inundate the land and cause erosion and landslides on the mountain slopes. The mountains generally are barren but in a few districts, where they are wooded, as in the upper part of the Liu Kiang valley, the natives are recklessly cutting down the timber and within a short time, as there is no effective provision for re-timbering, the mountain side will be entirely bare. Below Wuchow, the mountains are less steep and are covered with grass, shrubs and small clumps of fir.

The following detailed description of the river between Wuchow and the sea is taken from the Report to which we have referred above and to which these pages are already heavily indebted:—

Between Wuchow and Dosing the river bed has a considerable width, the largest measurement being 1500 metres. To the right, a

broad foreshore covered with shrubs and bamboo growth divides the river bed from the adjacent mountains. Sandbanks are frequent, but do not seem to change their position, taken as a whole, though partial deformations may be observed from year to year. Below Dosing the river is confined between high mountains ascending from the shore in a steep gradient, and in some places only opening through narrow gorges through which the river winds. Two of these are especially remarkable. The first, situated at Taisiang, called Siu Siang Gorge, covers a length of 5 kilometres, and has a width of only 370 metres at its narrowest part. The depth is here, however, considerable, being 57 metres. After passing the gorge, the river opens into a wide basin, 1850 metres broad in front of Shuihing, but it narrows again and enters the second gorge, the Ling Yang Gorge, which has a length of 7 kilometres, a minimum width of 360 metres and a depth of 77 metres, this being the deepest part of the river observed.

The mountain slopes are generally covered with a long stiff grass, used by the natives as fuel. Shrubs and trees are scarce. When gathering grass, the natives cut out the whole plant, root and all, consequently depriving the soil of its protection and exposing the slopes to the croding influence of the rainfalls. This causes landslides, which by degrees fall into the river, giving rise to banks and shallows further

down

Above Shiuhing at Taiwan, the first dyke systems are met with, and from here to the mouth all low-lying land on both sides of the river is protected against floods by more or less effective embankments. The dykes are here raised to a height of 5 metres above the adjacent ground level. Below Ling Yang Gorge the river bed broadens again and at Lokyuen reaches a width of 1850 metres at ordinary water level. At Kwangli the river is divided into two branches by a lowlying island, the north branch of the two being the deeper. After turning to the South at Samshui Reach the waters narrow at Mahou between the two single mountains, the width being only 520 metres. During the maximum floods of 1915 this contraction banked up the water nearly 1.0 metre, and caused a current of 2.80 metres per second. The river bed now widens but is again contracted 13 kilometres below at Fuwan or Rocky Point to 690 metres. From here to Kumchuk the river has an ample width except between Sheklung and Kulo, and is bounded by extensive embankments on each side. Several islands and sandbanks have been formed here, and the silting seems to be carried on to a considerable extent.

At Kumchuk, the river branches off to the left through a channel of the same name, and 4.5 kilometres below there is another channel, called the Junction Channel, which also branches off to the left. Both these channels flow to the south-east and divide during their course through the delta into a network of channels, which empty a part of the West River waters into the sea north-west of Macao at Junk-fleet entrance.

The river proper continues in a southerly direction, but divides near Kongmoon Customs Station into three branches of which the westernmost is the main branch. From this a small channel leads some water to the west, passes Kongmoon City, and then through a vast plain till it opens into the sea through Ngaemoon. At Kuchin the three branches re-unite into one, but 8 kilometres below that place the river again divides into channels the easternmost of these entering the sea through Motomoon, which is considered the main estuary, the westernmost in its turn splitting into several channels near Mukchow, of which one joins the Ngaemoon, another the Futinmoon, and still others have their outlet in the main estuary

Looked at from the sea, the West River has no less than four obviously distinct outlets viz: at Junk fleet, Motomoon, Futinmoon, and Ngaemoon."

The tributaries of the West River are nearly all of them, with the exceptions already noticed, of considerable use both for irrigation purposes and as means of communication. They are often tortuous and rapid, frequently shallow and interrupted by obstacles of one kind or another, but stil! they carry upon their waters large quanties of merchandise, chiefly of small bulk, and a very heavy passenger traffic. Gradually the steam launch and the motor-boat are ascending fartner and farther up these watercourses and their arrival is usually the signal for renewal of agitation, or in many cases for the commencement of an agitation for the removal of obstacles to navigation. As may be seen from a study of the Customs reports concerning this district, there is a constantly increasing traffic both on the extra-deltaic reaches, and on the waters of the delta itself; and this means that in the course of time the principal obstacles both to navigation and to the uninterrupted enjoyment of the benefits of agriculture will be removed.

OTHER RIVERS.

Amur River.—2920 miles long. The Amur River is formed by two great arms, the Shilka and Argun, which unite on the Mongolian plateau. The former rises on the north side of the Khanula range and flows through Russian territory: the Argun rises to the south of the same range and remains in Chinese territory until near the 50th parallel, where it forms the boundary between Russian Siberia and the Chinese Empire. After uniting with the Shilka the stream continues as the Amur to divide these two countries until the junction with the Ussuri River near Habarovsk. The Amur with the Shilka is navigable for some 1500 miles.

Tributaries.—Left Bank: Zeya (at Blagovestchensk), Bureya.

Right Bank: Sungari, Ussuri.

Salween Mekong Rivers.—Neither of these rivers belongs wholly to China but rising in the Tibetan plateau, they hold together on a parallel course due south for some 900 miles through Chinese territory. The Mekong, while in China, flows through a deep channel, at times 2000 feet below the surrounding country. It continues its course through Indo-China and entering Cambodia finally empties itself into the China Sea in the south of that state.

The Salween is a broader stream in its passage through China. It flows into the Gulf of Martapan.

Red River (Sungkoi or Hungho).—Circa 500 miles long: navigable for about half its length up to Manhao. It rises in N.W. Yunnan and flows in a S.E. direction into the Gulf of Tongking. Its chief tributaries join it in French territory: on the left bank the White River; on the right bank the Black River.

Liao-ho.—This river rises to the S.W. of Dolo-Nor, and running at first north and then east, forms the boundary between Chihli and Mongolia. Its present mouth Yinkow (Newchwang) is nearly thirty miles below its former mouth, where it is joined by the Hun-ho (which flows past Mukden). The Liao is navigable by small craft for over 200 miles.

The Sungari.—A tributary of the Amur, rises in the Chang-pei-shan (Pehtan-shan, White-crested Mountain) at an altitude of 8000 ft. on the borders of Korea. It is navigable up to Kirin.

Tributaries.-Left Bank: Nonni, navigable up to Tsitsihar.

Right Bank: Khurkha.

The *Ussuri River*.—A tributary of the Amur, rises near Vladivostock. It is 350 miles long and flows through Lake Hinka, from which point it is navigable.

The Yalu rises in the Pehtan-shan (White-crested or Long White Mountain) and flows in a generally south-westerly direction, forming the boundary between Manchuria and Korea. It is navigable for 600 miles.

Chief tributary.—Right Bank: Han-kiang.

Tsientang River.—This river, the chief waterway in Chekiang, rises in the Tayuling Mountains with two head-streams. It is a broad and picturesque stream, but shallow. It is navigable for small steamboats up to Yenchow and higher still for junks; but Hangchow the capital of the province is cut off from communication by large vessels. The river is famous for the so-called Hangchow Bore.

Whangpoo.—This stream derives its importance from the town of Shanghai which is situated on it, 14 miles from the coast, where the river runs into the Yangtze mouth. Vide Whangpoo Conservancy.

The Outer Territories.

At one time China was surrounded by an almost complete circle of dependent states. Beginning with Japan, it was possible to pass through Manchuria, Mongolia, Turkestan, Tibet, Northern Siam, Annam and Tongking and all the time be on Chinese territory. Gradually inroads have been made on this complete environing of China Proper by Chinese dependencies. In the thirteenth century Kublai Khan tried to make Japan recognize his sovereign rights, but did not succeed; and for nearly two centuries Chinese authority was practically non-existent in Japan. In the middle of the sixteenth century the Emperor of China allowed the rulers of Japan to assume the name of King on condition of their paying to the Chinese Court an annual tribute of one thousand taels of gold. In the course of time Japan achieved her independence and the payment fell into desuetude. For many centuries Chosen (Korea) recognized the over-lordship of China, and this recognition culminated in the era of the Mings. At this time the native rulers of Chosen felt honoured by being invested with their authority at the hand or through the patent of the "Son of Heaven" and after the Manchus had ousted the Mings from China the Chosenese, loyal to their Ming patrons, had to be invaded and visited with all the horrors attending the uncurbed rule of the conqueror's sword before they would accept or recognize the over-lordship of the Manchus and pay them, as stipulated by treaty, a yearly tribute of one hundred ounces of gold, one thousand ounces of silver, and a certain quantity of roots, furs, textile fabrics, and other natural and industrial products. But for some time China exercised practically no authority over Chosen. It was only when Russian and Japanese interests began to clash in Korea that the question of Chosenese independence assumed a vitally important character. As the result of the China-Japan War, the real cause of which was as much an unconscious Japanese prevision of Russian dominance in the peninsula as Japanese jealousy of Chinese influence, the independence of Korea was declared in the Treaty of Shimonoseki. In less than ten years Korea had recognized the suzerainty of Japan, and in August 1910 Japan annexed Korea and made the peninsula part of the Japanese Empire.

Manchuria stands in a special relation to China. The ex-Imperial House of China is of Manchu origin, and if the question were raised—as it is not likely to be—what is the exact status of the ex-Imperial House in relation to the territory known to the outside world as Manchuria and to the Chinese as the Three Eastern Provinces, it would be very difficult to answer. Manchuria is the battleground of three peoples, at present engaged in diplomatic struggles only, but the economic interests involved are so great that it would not be at all surprising if the battle assumed a much more physical character. The richness of Manchuria in both agriculture and minerals is so enormous that China is unlikely to be able to retain undisputed possession of the country. At present Manchuria remains part of the Chinese Republic; but it is still to be seen how long this state of affairs will last.

In the case of Mongolia we have dismemberment already in the initial stage. Outer Mongolia is for the present still claimed as part of the Chinese Republic, but for the time being everything in Mongolia is in a state of flux. Chinese colonization is pushing its way further and further into the country and Chinese commercial and mercantile acumen are proving serious factors in the elimination of the Mongol as a trader. By nature and by circumstances the Mongol is more inclined to pastoral than to commercial occupations. The Chinese, on the other hand, have the instincts for trading very highly developed. The result is a rivalry between the two that can only end in the complete victory of the Chinese; and with Chinese commercial supremacy in Mongolia Russian political supremacy must, for some time at any rate, be of somewhat insubstantial character.

Sinkiang, or the New Dominion, is really a Chinese attempt to stay the forward movement of Russia. Known to Europeans as Chinese Turkestan it is officially called Sinkiang or the New Dominion, and was reorganized in 1877 as a result of several local disturbances and the constant unrest due to risings brought about by the intrigues of the successors of Yakob Beg. These constant risings have given abundant opportunity for advances by Russia, always under the friendliest appearances. The Peking authorities held that it would be better to re-organize Chinese Turkestan as a province of the Empire, and so afford no excuse for further creeping southeast on the part of Russia. The result of this emphatic step may be seen in the treaty of 1881 between Russia and China regarding the outer territory of Ili and Kuldja, which indicates that Russia had realized that the day for petty pilfering had gone. The province is known locally only by local names, such as Ili, Kuldja, Khotan, Yarkand and Kashgar. Before the conversion of this territory into a province the name Kashgaria was frequently applied to the district by Europeans, but there seems to be no reason for the maintenance of this name, since the collapse of Yakob Beg's independent state with its capital at Kashgar. In the same way "Kingdom of Khotan" has ceased to be in any sense applicable. Chinese Turkestan comprises ten large divisions, which, proceeding from the south-west, are: Khotan, Yarkand, Yangi-hissar, Kashgar, Ush-turfan, Ak-su, Bai, Kucha. Korla, Karashar. Three military commandants reside at Karashar. Khotan. and Yarkand, and last named being also the seat of the general administration. Amongst all the cities, seven are considered as enjoying a special dignity, apart altogether from their size and administrative rank. Yarkand, Yangihissar, Kashgar, Ush-turfan, Kucha, and Karashar are the members of this Jiti-shahr, or "heptapolis."

In most Chinese maps of the Republic there is shown between Kansu and Sinkiang on the north and west and Tibet and Szechuan on the south and east, a territory known as Chinghai. This territory is merely an administrative division concerning which there is considerable divergence of

opinion, between the British and Chinese authorities, as to the inclusion of a great part of it in Tibet itself. The details of this difference of opinion will be found in the Chapter on Greater China but we may here note that during recent years the Chinese have pushed back the boundary of Szechuan from the Tatu Ho to include the right bank of the Kinsha, partly with the object of limiting British influence operating through Tibet, and partly as a result of the successful attempts of the latest Viceroys under the Manchus to bring the border country under the civilizing influence of China Proper. At the same time Chinghai has been in process of reorganization in order to exclude it from Tibetan jurisdiction and thus again to limit British influence. For our purposes we may reckon that Tibet extends as far north as the Kwenlun, the Altyn Tagh, and the Humboldt mountains. What of Chinghai remains unappropriated by Tibet falls naturally to Sinkiang.

Unti! the time of the Revolution all these outlying territories were known as Dependencies. There can of course be no dependencies in a Republic, and the most convenient name for these districts is the Outer Ter-They are of course geographically unrelated except in a very general way, and it is not easy to see any bond of union amongst them. Such bonds do exist however. The most noticable of these bonds is the religious bond. From the Himalavas to the borders of Manchuria Lamaism is the prevailing religion. The Dalai Lama at Lhassa is the supreme ruler of Tibet itself. In Tibet the Dalai Lama is at once both the spiritual and the temporal head, though he has a colleague, almost a rival, in the Tesho Lama or Panchen Lama. The Dalai Lama is regarded as the incarnation of Avalokitesvara, and the Panchen Lama is regarded as the incarnation of Amitabha. Lamaism in its purest form, as it is found in Tibet, is a corruption of Buddhism, but the farther one proceeds from Lhassa the more corrupt is the theory and practice of the Lamaist faith. In the chief centres of the Outer Territories the place of the Grand Lama is taken by the Hutukhtu, as at Urga in Mongolia, where that functionary claims and obtains recognition as both spiritual and temporal ruler. Further east Lamaism degenerates rapidly and becomes the rankest of superstitions, and as one nears the borders of Manchuria Lamaism as a faith is almost indistinguishable from the local paganism.

There is also a certain geographical unity arising from the fact that these Outer Territories form a continuous mountain frontier for China. The height of this mountain frontier varies a good deal, and in two or three places it is possible to make one's way through the mountain barrier, but one may notice that the height gradually falls from south to north. Whilst the barrier averages well over 10,000 feet in Tibet, it falls off until on the East Mongolian plateau it does not exceed an average of 2,500 feet.

Another common feature of these Outer Territories is that when their people have any occupation at all it is of a pastoral kind. Primarily hunters, born in and bred up on the saddle, nomads at the heart's core, in no case have they advanced beyond the pastoral stage. Only in Manchuria has Chinese colonization induced a certain amount of advance amongst the diminishing native population. A gradual change is being effected, but only with the pressure from Western civilization will a complete change in conditions be brought about; and it is probable that the material side of Western civilization, as represented by railways and afforestation, will have more effect than is likely to come from the spiritual and intellectual side.

CHAPTER III.

GEOLOGY.

The geological formation of China belongs for the most part to the Primary and Secondary periods. There is practically no trace of Azoic strata nor of the Jurassic and Cretaceous series of rocks that belong to the close of the Secondary period. The two characteristic features of the country are (1) limestone formation (called China or Sinian limestone) that extends all over China; this belongs to the period when the central and northern portions of China were submerged under deep water; and (2) the loess formation of North China, extending for 1400 miles, a solid but friable earth, of brownish-yellow colour, highly porous. The limestone attains in parts enormous thickness, a maximum of nearly 11,000 feet being found in Szechuan. Loess consists mainly of clay, carbonate of lime and sand, and its origin is explained by the joint action of wind and rain.* The dust and sand of the central Asian steppes have been mixed with countless generations of decaying plants. Rain is at once absorbed by it, and streams cut their way through it to the subsoil, leaving a vertical wall on each side, often hundreds of feet in height. Loess soil bears excellent crops; but as irrigation is impossible the country where it is found is dependent entirely on a favourable rainfall. Loess in places attains a thickness of 2000 feet, and is found at altitudes of from 6000 to 8000 feet.

The limestone formation in China was succeeded by carboniferous strata, which in turn are overlain by sedimentary deposits of sandstone,

shales, and conglomerates.

Volcanic action has had little, if any, effect on the general configuration of the country. Traces, however, remain (L. Richard points out) in the neighbourhood of Nanking, the north of Peking, in some regions of Mongolia and in Tibet.

^{*} For fuller discussion of loess see pp. 39-42.

CHAPTER IV.

FAUNA.

Wild Animals.

The lion is no longer found in China. It is supposed that at one time lions were numerous in Hunan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Kweichew, and they probably lingered on in the last two provinces until more recent times.

The elephant is found only in Southern Yunnan.

The tiger is met with in greater numbers in Kweichow, and also in

Fukien, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and in Manchuria.

The leopard or panther (Felis pardus) is found wherever the country is of a nature to afford him shelter and food. In Tibet and the highlands of Chinese Turkestan, this animal is replaced by the ounce or snow-leopard (Felis onca), a beautiful species found only at great elevations, where it preys on ibex and wild sheep. The Himalayan black bear (Ursus tibetanus) is found in the hills of Yunnan and Szechuan. The scientific name of this bear is somewhat of a misnomer, as it is rare in Tibet, the animal generally not being found at a greater elevation than 8000 feet. In the winter, which it passes without hibernating, it descends to the warmer valleys. In Tibet, the Famirs, and adjacent regions, a brown bear (Ursus isabellinus) occurs, which is only found at great elevations. Further north this bear is replaced by the brown bear of Europe and Siberia (Ursus arctos). This bear is found wherever forest occurs from the Tianshan in the west to the east of Manchuria. Both these brown bears hibernate in the winter. It is possible that the black bear of Korea may also occur in Eastern Manchuria. The camel (Camelus bactrianus) is found in a wild state in the wastes of Northern Tibet, the horse (Equus preyevalskii) on the borders of Chinese and Russian Tartary, while a species of wild ass (Asinus nemionus) is common in Tibet, Sinkiang, and Mongolia. This species, inhabiting a very elevated region, where the most intense cold is experienced in winter, is nearly, if not quite identical with the wild ass of the low-lying Indian desert, a region noted for the intense heat of its summer. The yak or grunting-ox (Poephagus grunniens) is only found at great elevations in Tibet and the Pamirs, and in a domesticated state is the beast of burden of those regions. For this it is particularly suited, as it possesses great powers of climbing and making its way across mountain torrents in which any other animal would be drowned. It feeds only on grass, and cannot endure oven moderate heat. A hybrid is also produced between the domestic vak and the ox.

Of the deer tribe, the reindeer (Tarandus rangifer), wild and domesticated, is found in the region of the upper waters of the Yenisei in Northern Mongolia. The Asiatic wapiti or show (Cervus affinis) is found in Mongolia, Chinese Turkestan, and Tibet. Its horns in a partially formed state are greatly prized for medicinal purposes by the Chinese, and consequently command a very high price as an object of commerce. It is therefore to be feared that this magnificent stag will ere long be extinct. Other representatives of the deer tribe are the fallow-deer (Dama vulgaris), Asiatic roe-deer (Capreolus pygargus), somewhat larger than the European species, barking-deer (Cervulus aureus), and the hornless river_deer of the Yangtze Valley (Hydropotes inermis). The musk-deer (Moschus moschiferus), also hornless, deserves a special mention, as the muskpod obtained from this animal forms an important article of commerce. It is found throughout Tibet and the highlands to the north, its habitat being practically identical with that of the yak and the snow_leopard.

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Of the antelope family, there are not many species within Chinese limits, the true antelopes being only represented by the Tibetan antelope (Kemas hodgsoni) and the smaller Tibetan gazelle (Procapra picticaudata), together with the Saiga antelope (Saiga tartarica) and the gazelle (Procapra gutturosa) of North China and Mongolia, the last two species replacing the former farther to the north. Among the goat-antelopes, one, if not more, species of gooral (Nemorhoedus) inhabits the hills of Central China, and the curious takin (Budorcas taxicolor) was discovered in the extreme east of the Himalayan region, whence it doubtless ranges into the hills of Yunnan and Szechuan. A completely new species of these large mountain goat-antelopes was discovered on the hills of Shensi in 1911 by the Duke of Bedford's scientific expedition to Eastern Asia, and has been named (Budorcas bedfordi). The fact that this remarkable species, which is of a uniform yellowish-white colour, was discovered so recently is a proof of the incompleteness of our general knowledge of the Chinese fauna.

The true goats are represented by the magnificent *ibex* (Capra sibirica) of the highlands of Tibet and Central Asia. In the Tianshan, the horns

of this species attain to a length of more than 50 inches.

Many species of wild sheep inhabit the hills of Tibet, Central Asia, and Mongolia. The list of species now established includes Ovis vignei, nahura, karelini, hodgsoni, ammon, and the great wild sheep of the Pamirs, Ovis poli. This species was first recorded by Marco Polo in his Travels, and his statement about them was held to be a "traveller's tale," till recent exploration established his absolute accuracy in this as in so many other matters. The horns of this great sheep attain a length of over 70 inches.

The wild boar (Sus leucomystax) is common in China Proper, the wolf (Canis laniger and lupus) occurs in Tibet and Mongolia, a wild dog (Cuon rutilans) is found in Tibet, the jackal (Canis aureus) in South China.

Species of foxes, wild cats, monkeys, squirrels, rats, jerboas, bats, etc., are numerous. There are several species of hares. Valuable furs are obtained from Mongolia, e.g. the white hare, black fox, marmot, marten,

ermine, sable, and otter being trapped for their skins.

Of sea mammals, the fur seal and sea otter inhabit a part of the Northern Pacific, which since the loss of the Primorsk Province can no longer be considered as belonging to the Chinese area; but other species of seals, walruses, etc., are found in the China seas. The cetaceans are represented by several species of whales and porpoises, and the great rivers of China contain at least one species of freshwater porpoise, similar to the porpoises of the Ganges and Indus.

Domestic Animals.

The domestic animals of the Chinese include the horse, mule, donkey, camel, water-buffalo, cow, zebu or humped ox, yak, pig, goat, sheep dog, cat, also rabbits, fowls, ducks, geese, and pigeons. Camel caravans are a feature of Northern China.

Ponies are imported in large numbers from Mongolia to China Proper.

Szechuan and Kweichow, however, produce the best breeds.

Birds.

Birds are exceedingly numerous in China, about 800 species being indigenous to the country. They include most of the well-known members of the feathered kingdom, the families of the eagles, vultures, hawks, kites, owls, cranes, herons, storks, gulls, cormorants, pigeons, cuckoos, kingfishers, finches, tits, swifts, swallows, etc., etc., being represented by great numbers of species.

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The country abounds in small game. China is par excellence the home

of the pheasant family, of which there are nine or more species.

There are many varieties of the partridges (bamboo partridge, Chinese francolin, chukor, etc.) and sandgrouse. The following birds are chiefly migratory, and visit China from their breeding grounds in the north in countless thousands during the cold season, namely, the woodcock and snipe (seven species), quail, bustard, and plovers of many kinds. The wildfowl include swans (two species), geese (six species), duck, and teal (of which eighteen species are commonly shot by sportsmen in China, though many others visit the country or are indigenous to it). The beautiful mandarin duck (Aix galericulata) is peculiar to the Far East. are used by fishermen in Central and Southern China. The edible-nest swiftlet (Collocalia trancica) breeds on the islands of the south coast and the Malay archipelago Its nests are formed entirely of inspissated saliva, and are collected for the well-known Chinese delicacy, birds'-nest soup. The Pallas's sandgrouse (Syrrhaptes paradoxus) is remarkable for its occasional wanderings in immense numbers across the entire continent of Asia and Europe, extending as far as Ireland and Portugal. The last of these incursions occurred in 1885, another having occurred some twenty years previously. On the last occasion numerous pairs of these birds bred in England and other parts of Western Europe, but the conditions being unsuited to the habits of the birds they very soon became extinct.

Reptiles.

The more formidable kinds of snakes are confined for the most part to the southern portion of China, where various species of cobras and vipers, also the karait (bungarus fasciatus) occur. In the forests of Yunnan the great python reticulata, a non-poisonous constrictor which feeds chiefly on monkeys, is found. A deadly snake, the bothrops, is found in the Gobi Desert, where reptiles of many kinds abound.

The Chinese alligator of the Yangtze-kiang and the giant salamander are generally identical with their American counterparts. Turtles, tortoises,

together with terrapins, lizards, newts, frogs, etc., are common.

Fish.

Fish forms with rice the principal staple of the daily food of the Chinese. Both in the inland waters and along the coast fish abound, and fishing has constituted a prominent occupation of the people from the earliest times. Little change, moreover, has been introduced into the

methods of Chinese fishing since the infancy of the industry.

For deep-sea fishing nets and hooks are used, the former being worked singly or by a pair of boats, and in some places by a group of boats forming a company. In the deeper inland tidal waters stake nets are used; heavy beams are driven into the ground 30 feet apart, tied together at the surface by means of a strong bamboo rope covered with straw; bamboo backets are suspended in the nets, with the opening towards the net, and in these the fish are caught when trying to escape the net. In rivers and canals various methods of fishing are employed, among the most usual being (1) the large flat dip net, worked mainly from the shore, the net being spread over movable bamboo poles attached to pegs in the ground, while ropes lead from the end of the net to a wheel in the hut of the fisherman on shore; (2) the casting net, worked either from the shore or in a boat with a companion using the oars; (3) the small dip net; (4) the weir, made of poles, to which rolls of bamboo matting are attached. These are unrolled and set up at high water, and with the falling tide the fish are gathered in. Each corner of the weir is formed into a series of alleys, where the fish are caught and removed by means of a scoop net. Eels are

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sometimes harpooned, while crabs, shrimps, and prawns are caught with nets, basket traps, and also with the line, in the case of large crabs. Fishing with cormorants is practised in the Yangtze delta, Chekiang province and in other parts of the country, while the otter was used at one time in a similar capacity in the upper reaches of the Yangtze.

Several hundred varieties of fish are known to the Chinese, for nearly all of which some use is found, even when not edible. In the International Fisheries Exhibition (London) of 1883, the Chinese section contained 167 varieties, belonging to forty-seven families. Reference was made in the

Chinese catalogue to sixteen varieties of shark:

Hammer_headed Shark (12 ft long). White Shark (20 ft.). Shovel-nosed Sucker (25 ft.). Dog Shark (4-5 ft.). Saw Fish (15 ft.). Horny-headed Shark. Tiger Shark (8 ft.). *Big Round-headed Shark (15-25 ft.). *Blue Rat Moth Shark (10 ft.). *White Rat Moth Shark (10 ft.). *Coarse-skinned Shark (10 ft.) *Small-eved Shark (6-7 ft.). *Eat-bird Shark (11 ft.). *Long-tailed Third Lady Shark (10 ft.). *Mullet-killing Shark (5-6 ft.). *Real Spotted-deer Shark (6 ft.).

The mango fish attains a length of 7 or 8 feet, and cod of 6 feet are also caught. Among the better-known kinds of fish may also be enumerated bream, crap, eel, flounder, gurnard, herring, mandarin fish, mullet, perch, alver pomfret, sole, skate, sprat, sumli. The cuttle-fish industry has contributed largely to swell the Customs returns under the heading of "Fish and Fishery Products," but no statistics are available to indicate the extent of China's fisheries. Oysters are grown largely along the Chekiang coast, in the neighbourhood of Ningpo, in Nimrod Sound, at the Saddle Islands, in the Chusan archipelago, at Deep Bay (Hongkong), and elsewhere. The trepang, or seasulag, is collected for the market, and many kinds of molluscs, also eaten by the Chinese, are obtained in great profusion on the coast and in the estuaries of rivers.

^{*} Translation of Chinese name.

CHAPTER V.

FLORA, FORESTRY AND REFORESTATION.

Deforestation has played an active part on the surface of China, with the result that large forests in China Proper are rare. They are met with, however, in certain districts of Central Asia, in S.E. Tibet and in Mongolia and Manchuria. In Eastern Turkestan are to be found the birch, pine, fir, spruce, larch, and poplar, while in the less favoured districts artemisia and tamarisks relieve the stretches of reeds and coarse grass that cover the steppes. In S.E. Tibet may be seen the juniper, willow, pines, firs, cedars, elms and a large species of holly; while in the sheltered valleys grow wheat, barley, rice, fruit trees and vegetables. The medicinal rhubarb-tree is also a native of these plateaux. The tree grows to a height of eight or ten feet, and the rhubarb of commerce is its root, dug up early in spring, cut into long flat pieces and dried. Dwarf elms and willows are met with in the Gobi Desert. In northern Mongolia and Manchuria the same trees reappear, together with the oak and walnut. Orchards of pear, plum and apple trees are a common feature of Manchuria, with even vineyards in the south, and here begins the gradual transition in the aspect of the flora, from the cold north to the semi-tropical vegetation of southern China.

The Chinese flora is exceedingly rich in varieties. In his *Index Florae Sinensis* Sir W. Thiselton-Dyer enumerates 8271 species (4230 endemic) and

estimates that the whole flora comprises 12,000 species.

The fruits include practically all those known to temperate zones as well as many sub-tropical kinds. Among them may be mentioned apples, apricots, bananas, cherries, chestnuts, dates, figs, grapes, guavas, lemons, litchies (lichees), loquats, mangoes, melons, mulberries, oranges, peaches, persimmons. plums, pomegranates, pomeloes, raspberries, strawberries.

Among the products of agriculture are barley, beans (the great staple of Manchuria), buckwheat, cotton, ground-nut, hemp, indigo, kaoliang, maize, millet, oats, poppy (opium), ramie, rape, rice, sesamum, sugar, tea, tobacco, and wheat. The cultivation of camphor is carried on in Fukien,

Kwangsi and Yunnan.

Chinese timbers include pine, fir, maple, ebony, oak, camphor, teak, mahogany, birch, plane, elm. In this category may be mentioned the bamboo, which looms so largely in the everyday life of the Chinese. With it they build houses and erect temporary shelters: it is used for all scaffolding purposes, and for the transport of all goods of human agency, from the smallest market produce to a grand piano in a foreign settlement. In early life it is used for food; when full grown it supplies the vast water population with masts, and from it are made chopsticks, pipes, umbrellas, tables, stools and musical instruments. Between forty and sixty varieties of bamboo are said to be known to the Chinese.

Among other trees worthy of mention are the varnish-tree (Rhus vernicifera), the tallow-tree (Stillingia sebifera), wood-oil tree (Aleurites cordata)

and vegetable_wax tree (Fraxinus chinensis).

Of flowering plants China has an unnumbered variety, and many household names in the flower world are derived from this country. Among them may be mentioned azaleas (a striking feature in the landscape of the Chekiang hills and elsewhere), camellias, gardenias, peonies, and certain varieties of roses, orchids and chrysanthemums.

Twelve species of rhododendrons are met with in Szechuan, where rhododendron forests are found at altitudes ranging from 2000 to 12,000 ft

FORESTS AND REFORESTATION.

Timber Supply

There is little doubt that originally all the vast extent of territory known as China Proper was covered with forests of great extent and of varying density, and that the present comparatively treeless conditions are due directly or indirectly to human agencies. For this belief there are many proofs, both historical and otherwise, among them being the persistent presence even to-day on the hillsides and in all the more remote and half-hidden spots of the remnants of tree growth, in spite of the age-long abuse to which it has been subjected and in spite of the searching activities of the fuel-gatherer. Paleontology also supports the theory of a former extensive forest-cover composed as are the surviving species of to-day of both hardwoods and cone-bearers,—a forest flora in many respects strikingly similar to that of the North American continent.

In searching for reasons for the deforestation of China one is confronted with a mass of facts and theories which has not yet resolved itself into an explanation of universal acceptance: but of the various explanations offered the ones which seem most deserving of attention are those advanced by Mr. P. C. King (食 邦 正), now President of Tsing Hua University near Peking. He traces the present scarcity of timber in China to three main causes:—to the decay of the Chinese feudal system in the third century before the Christian era, to the laissez-faire policy of the Government, and to the numerous internal disturbances from which China has periodically suffered. Under the feudal system the great land-holding nobles maintained large forested areas for the pleasures of the chase, and for this purpose they were kept in good condition: and it is on record in the Chinese classics that they were patrolled by a regular force of forest officers. From the time, however, that the last of these feudal kingdoms was brought into subjection, the habit of hunting more or less gave way to more secluded pleasures, and the land thus released was thrown open for exploitation. The population grew rapidly with a comparative freedom from feudal wars and demanded increased areas for agricultural clearings. ati events, since that time there ceased to be made appointments of forest officers, and vigorous and destructive exploitation of the forests went on rapidly until, at least speaking in a comparative sense, these resources neared exhaustion in all except the more isolated or outlying portions of the country.

Under a different political theory the destruction of the forests upon the fall of feudalism would have been restricted, and the subsequent evils would have been very decidedly diminished: but throughout its long history the Chinese Government has always refrained from interference in most of the activities of the people, except in those cases where the peace of the country might be disturbed or the safety of the Throne endangered. The policy of laissez-faire was consistently followed, and thus the people of China at that time, as has happened at all times among all peoples, chose, probably unthinkingly, to sacrifice the permanency of the forest resources to their own private and immediate need. In many of the nations of Europe, on the other hand, the fall of feudalism was succeeded by a strong and active central administration, which effectually prevented more than the partial destruction of the forests.

So far as relates to the third cause assigned by Mr. King,—that is the number of internal disturbances,—it would seem that China has been scarcely more or less fortunate than her sister nations. In the forty centuries of Chinese history there have been some 25 major revolutions and numberless minor and unsuccessful ones, and of course war always results in an enormous destruction of forest property. Other nations, however, have probably suffered no less from this cause, and it seems that in hunting for the main reason for the present state of deforestation in China we must at-

tribute it to the laissez-faire policy of the Government, which alone has been responsible for permitting the other and contributing influences to bring

about the results they did.

But whatever may have been the causes we are confronted by the fact that China is reduced to a condition of deforestation unequalled by that of any other great nation. The presence of such forests as remain is due almost solely to their real or comparative inaccessibility, and even these forests are now being sacrificed ruthlessly to help meet the insistent demand for timber, fuel, and all the other numerous and indispensable products of the forest. Despite the interest which the Central Government and some of the more progressive provincial governments have from time to time shown in forestry, efforts restricted almost wholly to the last few years, there is probably not to-day a single area of natural woodland in process of utilization under the principles of conservative forest management, and the present-day logging operations, calculated as they are to deprive the country of the last remnants of the forests, can only be regarded with almost unmixed regret and disapproval. For this condition, however, it would be unfair to blame the Central Government, unless indeed the principles underlying the Chinese governmental system are called into question: for the same ruthless destruction of inherited forests to meet present needs and to yield immediate profit without thought for the future welfare of posterity has been the unbroken rule throughout the world wherever such destruction has not been prevented or curtailed by some more or less extensive or permanent state agency: and the extreme decentralization of the Chinese political system and the extreme individual freedom of property have rendered impossible and still continue so to render conservative forest management, or the practice of forestry as it is known in the West. Obviously, however, such an excuse does not apply to government-owned forests, such as those still found in great extent and of exceptional value in the Manchurian provinces.

The total net imports of timber from abroad as shown in the Maritime Customs returns for 1919 (the last year for which complete figures are available) are as follows: Hardwoods, 2,879,224 cubic feet and 10,025,247 square feet: and 123,376,499 square feet of softwoods. The entire value

of all timber imported is given as Hk. Tls. 7,218,753.

These imports consist chiefly of oak, pine and other woods from Japan: Oregon pine from the Pacific Coast region of America; and teak and a large variety of other hardwoods from the Indo-Malayan region, including principally Singapore and the Federated Malay States, the Dutch East Indies, and a moderate quantity of miscellaneous hardwoods from the Philippine Islands, North Borneo, etc. The hardwoods are chiefly used for the best types of furniture, including the so-called Chinese "black-wood." for interior finish, etc. Most of the wood from Japan and America is used for railway sleepers, bridgework, and other work of construction of all kinds. From Japan, including Formosa, were imported approximately $1\frac{1}{2}$ million cubic feet and nearly 3,700,000 superficial feet of hardwoods, and approximately 45 million square feet of softwoods. From America (United States and Canada) the hardwood importation was almost negligible, but the softwoods (Oregon pine almost exclusively) amounted to nearly 52 million square feet. Korean and Siberian softwoods comprise the only other important importations.

While comparatively small quantities of timber are still available in many districts in China and still help to swell the total returns of trade particularly in the south and in Manchuria and along the western borders of China Proper, there are three districts which deserve special attention because of the total volume of their trade in timber and because of the

wide domestic market they supply.

1. Manchuria. This district as a whole, consisting of the Three Eastern Provinces of Fengtien, Heilungkiang and Kirin, comprises by far the most important timber region remaining in China, not only by reason of the

extent and richness of its flora, but also because of its comparative accessibility and of the ease with which the forests can be worked on a large scale and by modern logging methods. No really useful and reliable information is available concerning the location and extent of the forests as a whole, and the only statistics are those kept by the Maritime Customs, which, however, only show the trade between treaty-ports and to and from foreign countries. All inland trade shows no record in these statistics and therefore any reliable estimate of the total timber and lumber trade of China as a whole, or of any of its subdivisions, is wholly impossible to make.

It is certain, however, that very extensive and very valuable forests are to be found in Manchuria, which will become more and more accessible as the development of the country proceeds with the opening up of new means of communication. As concerns the present, the timber trade principally centres in two important districts: 1, that of Kirin, comprising chiefly the areas tapped by the Sungari River and its tributaries, and 2, the areas along the Yalu and its tributaries, the timber from which finds its outlet at Antung.

As regards Kirin, no statistics are available. Probably none at all are kept by the Government, and certainly none are given out. The principal tree in the Kirin district is the red pine (Pinus koraiensis), a tree of excellent wood, straight-grained, easy to work,—an admirable timber in every way from the lumberman's point of view. The forests in this district are estimated to afford a cut of about 25,000 board feet per acre, consisting chiefly of pine. Logging methods as at present practiced are wasteful in the extreme from the point of view both of the lumberman and especially from that of the owner, in this case the Government. It is very probable that not more than 30% of the merchantable timber felled is finally brought to market, in other words that there is an unnecessary waste of about 60% of timber that under even fairly efficient methods could be made to yield a profit both to the logger and to the Government. Stumps are generally left breast-high and only the choicer portions of the bole are utilized, as the logger pays only for the timber actually taken out from the forest and nothing for what he wastes or needlessly destroys. After felling the larger and choicer timber it is a common practice to cut, pile and burn the rest (which should remain as the permanent growing stock of the forest) and the land thus cleared is planted temporarily to agricultural crops. After about two years of inefficient cultivation (for the temporary character of the operations prevents intensive methods), erosion has removed the vegetable soil and exposed the mineral soil which is wholly unfit for any form of agriculture and even incapable of supporting tree-growth. Thus the destruction is both complete and permanent, and also for the most part without the compensation of yielding more than a fraction of the possible immediate profit.

Other trees of importance in this region are, among the conifers, fir, spruce and larch: and among the hardwoods, Acanthopanax (a tree of moderately hard wood, 60 to 70 feet in height), oak, ash, cork-tree (Phellodendron amurense), birch, maple and poplar, the latter being chiefly important in this region for match-stock. Walnut, lime (Tilia), willow and elm are also found, together with a few other hardwoods of lesser importance.

Through Antung passes the timber from the Yalu region to the various ports of northern China and to Shanghai, and thence to points in the interior, being shipped both by coasting steamers and by native junks. For the port of Antung the 1919 Customs returns are as follows:

IMPORTS.

Timber, Hardwood, 4,322 cubic feet.

, Beams, piles and poles, softwood, 14,791,908 square feet.

Planks, softwood, 1,104,583 square feet.

EXPORTS.

Timber, Beams, hardwood, 47,416 "pieces" (each piece a "lien" of 8 feet) Softwood, 575,598 pieces.

,, Planks 8,233,553 square feet.

- 2. Yuan River Basin. This river with its tributaries taps the rich forest area in the southern and western portions of Hunan Province, and also the principal forest-bearing portions of the adjacent province of Kweichow, and as a whole constitutes one of the chief native sources of supply. Unfortunately as the market is practically wholly domestic no statistics are available but the total figure is undoubtedly very large. Cunninghamia (the wood so commonly seen in use for poles and scaffolding) and pine are by far the most important species, being estimated to comprise together 90 percent of the total timber shipped from the region. A large number of other woods, however, come into the native markets in greater or less amounts, among the principal ones being cypress, oak, camphor, dalbergia, man-mu (Machilus nanmu), etm, liquidamber, paulownia, and others. The secondary forest products include bamboos as most important, and also wood-oil, nut-galls and coir-fibre. Most of the timber passes through Tungting Lake to the Yangtze, whence it is widely distributed both up and down the river. Very extensive plantations of cunninghamia and pine occur and contribute very largely, especially in the case of the former, to the total output.
- 3. The Min River District of Fukien. While the forest wealth of this district and hence the importance of its lumber-trade show on the average a notable decrease as compared with former years, due to the intense forest destruction which is still going on, the Min River District still figures very prominently as one of the chief sources of native timber supply. Thus in the 1919 Customs returns the timber exported in steamers from Foochow, chiefly to other ports in China, is given as follows:

Timber, Beams, softwood, 22,313 pieces.

,, Planks, softwood, 20,669,043 square feet., For Kerosene cases, etc., 1,391,094 boxes.

In junks the amounts shipped were 2,482,353 sq. ft. of softwood planks,

and 9,528,557 poles.

"These figures', remarks the Customs Commissioner at Foochow, "are much in excess of anything recorded during the past decade notwithstanding the much increased cost of poles and pine logs. It will be seen that for Foochow poles the junk is by far the principal carrier, in spite of an advance in junk freights, fleet after fleet sailing away at a few days' interval throughout the year, with their cargoes skillfully lashed to their sides in hull-shaped projections nearly as large as the vessel itself. Another phenomal increase under the exports of the year is shown in camphor, which from an average of 300 or 400 piculs per annum has risen to nearly 7,000 piculs. An intense and probably very destructive exploitation of the most remote resources of the province under the stimulation of a world demand is evidently the cause of this trade development, which cannot be viewed with any satisfaction"

Aside from the cunninghamia poles, the more important woods from this region are cryptomeria, pine, and chamaecyparis, among the conifers: and camphor, oak, chestnut, dalbergia, nan-mu, liquidamber and many other hardwoods of less importance, the forest flora of Fukien presenting a transition stage between the north and the south, and hence a wide and rich diversity of species. Bamboos enter very largely into the trade as

one of its most important elements.

There is every reason to believe, unfortunately, that the timber resources of Fukien are rapidly and permanently waning, despite or rather intensified by the hectic increase in the trade shown in 1919: and in all probability

after a few more years the timber trade of the province will be no more worthy of particular mention than that of most of the other provinces of China.

REFORESTATION.

Shortly after the establishment of the Republic there was formed a "Bureau of Forestry" in the then Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. The Bureau remained in at least nominal existence for about two years (1912-1914), but lost its separate identity when in 1914 the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry was united with the Ministry of Industry and Commerce to form the present Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce. At that time the Bureau of Forestry was merged in the Bureau of Agriculture, which under the name of the Bureau or Department of Agriculture and Forestry lasted until the beginning of 1916, at which time the first Chinese Forest Service was created.

Even earlier under the Ching (Manchu) Dynasty there was a Board of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce which issued a simple set of rules designed to encourage the private planting of trees, but the practical results

were insignificant.

During the years from 1912 to 1914 a certain activity was displayed by the Bureau of Forestry in the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, but there was no well-organized personnel and no clearly defined policy. A forest nursery, called an experimental station, was established in a portion of the grounds of the Temple of Heaven in Peking, with a branch in the Western Hills: a second station was established in Shantung: and an office called the "Bureau of Forestry for Kirin Province" was opened in Kirin, reporting to the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and over which the Bureau of Forestry in the Ministry exercised more or less supervision. From time to time there were spasmodic activities in forestry by the different provinces, nearly all of which, however, were without valuable or lasting results.

When Mr. Chang Chien was Minister of Agriculture and Commerce he succeeded in securing the promulgation of certain progressive forest laws, but nevertheless it is fair to consider that forestry in China, as an aggressive national activity and in the sense in which the word is understood in Western countries had its first real beginning with the inauguration in Jnauary, 1916, of the Chinese Forest Service in the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce. For bringing about this very important departure, Mr. Chou Tzu-chi must be given principal credit. It was due to his foresight, patriotism and statesmanlike recognition of what was necessary to meet an economic need that the Forest Service owed its existence. Minister of Agriculture and Commerce he submitted on December 22, 1915, a memorial to the President requesting authorization to organize a "National Forest Service" in the Ministry: and a favourable reply was promulgated on January 3, 1916. The Forest Service thus created was entrusted with the supervision or execution of all governmental work in forestry and with the encouragement of private enterprise along similar lines. The general policy which it adopted was as follows:

1.—To lessen the present scarcity and high price of timber, fuel, and other forest products of all kinds by the judicious reforestation of public lands unfit for agriculture and now lying wholly or partially idle: thereby lessening the industrial handicap under which the Chinese manufacturer, farmer and householder labour at present and increasing the comfort and raising the standard of living among all classes, particularly the middle class

and the poor.

2.—To regulate stream flow by the reforestation of the more important river-sheds, thus tending to prevent floods, droughts, and the silting up of river bottoms with consequent obstruction to navigation and the frequent bursting of dykes, the construction of which in the first place was caused

largely if not wholly by the deposits of silt washed down from the deforested slopes.

3.--To protect by technical forest management, involving wise use, such

public forest resources as still exist.

4.—To encourage similar activities by private parties by demonstrating that forestry in China is financially profitable, and by supplying needed

advice and practical assistance.

5.—To conduct a vigorous pro-forestry propaganda throughout China, showing to all classes of people the present national need for forestry, what deforestation and reforestation mean individually to the people, and the steps which the Government proposes to take to that end of bettering the situation.

6.—To train up a corps of young Chinese to carry on the various lines of forestry work in China, and to encourage and if possible to assist in the giving of similar instruction in the educational institutions already es-

tablished.

Under the plan of organization the Vice-Minister of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce functioned as ex-officio Director-General of the Forest Service. The Adviser in Forestry to the Ministry was concurrently appointed Co-Director of the Service, his colleague being a Chinese technically educated in forestry abroad. Soon after its organization the Forest Service was further divided into several divisions, among the more important being the Divisions of Investigation, of Reforestation, of Education, the Provincial Division, the Propaganda Division, and the Clerical Division: and arrangements were made for further establishing a Division of Forest Management and a Division of Co-operation as soon as the necessary Chinese personnel could be obtained. Forest Commissioners were appointed in several of the provinces, working jointly under the National Forest Service and the previncial governors. A Forest School was established in Peking, and students, supported by the Forest Service, were selected from nearly all parts of the country to receive a thorough training in the elements of forestry theory and practice, with the intention that the government would later avail itself of their services in the National Forest Service.

All these plans, however, and many more, were seriously interrupted and at least temporarily discontinued when, following upon the death of President Yuan Shih-kai, Mr. Chou Tzu-chi was succeeded as Minister of Agriculture and Commerce by others who lacked either his means or his interest in promoting the cause of Chinese forestry. Finally, Mr. Ku Chung-hsiu, who from the beginning of his administration as Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce showed himself actively opposed to all plans for reforestation or for the conservation of the forests in Manchuria and other parts of China, succeeded in having annulled the Edict by which the National Forest Service had been created: and the remnants of the Service were put back into the Bureau of Agriculture and Forestry in the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, where they have since remained in a state of comparative inactivity. Fortunately, however, for the future of forestry in China, the present Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, Mr. Wang Nai-ping, has shown himself to be one of the strongest supporters the work has had, and were it not for the exceptional financial difficulties in which China is now involved there can be no doubt that under his administration forestry would be encouraged much more actively than for several years in the past.

Since the lack of available funds prevents any direct reforestation on a considerable scale by the Central Government, and also because the area to be reforested is too enormous to fall within the scope of the activities of any government, no matter how wealthy it may be, the keynote of the Government's policy is reforestation by private enterprise. For this the Government plans a campaign of propaganda, and it will assist and en-

courage private planting in every possible way, among others, by the free use of public land now lying idle, by the distribution whenever possible of the best species of seeds or young plants gratuitously or at cost price, by the establishment of demonstration stations at which the farmers of the district can be shown the methods and species which they could adopt with most profit to themselves, and many other similar measures On account of the cheapness of labour, the presence of available idle public land, and the phenomenally high price brought by forest products of all kinds, forestry is financially more profitable in China than in any other country in the world. Also taking into consideration the great and pressing need for forestry, both for the products of the forest and for the influence of the forests themselves upon stream-flow and flood-and-drought conditions in general, and finally considering the enormous population kept more or less in idle wretchedness through lack of opportunities for livelihood and who would eagerly turn to the reforestation of the vacant hill-sides, there is every reason to feel that forestry in China will continue to advance with ever increasing tread, whatever may be the interruptions to the policy of the Government.

Excellent work in reforestation is being carried on by a few of the provinces, and it is the very definite policy of the Central Government to induce similar activities in all of the others. The Province of Kiangsu maintains a large central forest nursery near Nanking, with two sub-stations at Mo Fu San and Pao San, respectively, with a yearly output at present

capacity of nearly 3,000,000 seedlings.

The province of Kiangsi maintains three forest stations; and Governor Yen Hsi-shan, Tuchun of Shansi, has shown himself actively interested in the reforestation of his province. Several private or semi-private reforestation companies are maintained, principally in the Yangtze Valley, and throughout most parts of China there are innumerable smaller plantations. The Peking-Hankow Railway, the Tientsin-Pukow Railway, the Lung-Hai Railway, and the Tcheng-Tai Railway all maintain forest nurseries.

The principal Forest School in China is that maintained by the University of Nanking, where a five-years college course is offered; Kiangsu, Kiangsi and Chekiang each give some instruction in forestry, but of lower grade. The University of Nanking maintains a large and flourishing forest nursery in connection with its College of Agriculture and Forestry: and nearby, on Purple Mountain, are seen the successful results of the reforestation begun in 1912. The work, however, of greatest interest in China is that begun by the Germans and maintained by the Japanese in Kiaochao.

THE FOREST LAW.

(Promulgated November 3, 1914).

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL.

Art. 1. The management and control of the forests owned by the Government, by the public or by private individuals shall be in accordance with this law, unless otherwise provided for by other laws or mandates.

Art. 2. Forests which have not yet passed into private ownership, and which should legally be considered the property of the Government, shall

be classified as Government owned forests.

Art. 3 The Government owned forests, in addition to those which have been under the direct control of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, may be entrusted to the local official organs for management.

Art. 4. All Government owned forests falling under any of the following classes must be under the direct control of the Ministry of Agriculture

and Commerce.

1.—Forests affecting the sources of rivers and streams.

2.—Forests situated within two or more provinces.

3.—Those which are connected with diplomatic cases.

Art. 5. Should the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce deem it absolutely necessary for the development of Government owned forests, it may purchase forests owned by the public or by individuals at an adequate price.

CHAPTER II.

RESERVED FORESTS.

Art. 6.—Under any of the following conditions the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce or the local high administrative official may convert any forests, whether owned by the Government, by the public or by an individual, into a reserved forest:

1.—For protection against floods.

2.—For the maintenance of the source of streams.

3 -For public sanitation.

4.—For use as a landmark for navigation.

5.—For the convenience of fishing enterprises.

6.—As wind and sand breaks.

Art. 7. When any public or private forest is converted into a reserved forest, a petition may be sent to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, claiming any proper indemnity for the loss incurred.

Art. 8. The procedure for the management and control of the reserved forests, which have been entrusted by the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce to local officials, shall be fixed by Instructional Mandates of the President.

Art 9. Orders of reservation may be cancelled when the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce or the local high administrative official no longer think such reservation necessary.

Art. 10.—Without the permission of the local officials, no one shall be permitted to fell trees in reserved forests and no combustible material may be brought into such forests.

Art. 11. The provisions of Articles 7, 8 and 10 shall also apply to forests hallowed by ancient traditions or containing renowned scenery.

CHAPTER III.

ENCOURAGEMENT.

Art. 12. Should any individual or individuals wish to apply for any idle Government-owned hill-land for the purposes of growing forests, the land applied for shall be granted without charge. Such applicant must be a citizen of the Chinese Republic.

Art. 13. The idle Government hill-land applied for for reforestation shall not exceed an area of 100 square li. When the applicant's operations have extended over this entire area, he may apply for an additional area.

Art. 14. The applicant for such idle Government-owned hill-land shall deposit as each security an amount between \$20.00 and \$100.00 for every ten square li, the exact amount being fixed by the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, or the local chief administrative official. For this purpose an area of less than 10 square li shall be reckoned as equal to 10 square li. If, after a period of five years has clapsed, the local controlling official should find that the enterprise has succeeded, the cash security may be returned to the applicant, together with interest computed at between 3% and 5%.

Art 15. If within the period of one year, no attempt has been made to work the portion of the idle Government-owned hill-land granted as above provided, the land shall revert to the Government and the cash security shall be forfeited; but this shall not apply in case such failure is due to natural calamities or to any other causes over which the applicant has no

control, provided that the sanction of the local official for the delay has been obtained.

Art. 16. When such idle Government-owned hill-land is applied for tor reclamation, such land shall be exempt from taxes for a period between 5 and 30 years, the length of the period being fixed by the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce or the chief local administrative official.

Art. 17. The details of the regulations for rewarding and encouraging persons who shall have achieved success in reforestation shall be fixed by

Instructional Mandates of the President.

CHAPTER IV.

SUPERVISION.

Art. 18. If desirable for public benefit, the local officials may forbid or restrict cultivation in forested areas owned by the public or by individuals.

Art. 19. Should the owner of public or private land begin to fell trees in other than the usual manner or in case he should overcut or abuse the same, the local official may restrict or warn him.

Art. 20. The controlling local official is authorized to fix a date before which the public or individual owners of idle hill land may be compelled to plant trees thereon.

CHAPTER V.

PUNISHMENT.

Art. 21. Any one who steals any produce of the forest shall be considered a thief, and shall be punished with a limited imprisonment of the fifth grade with hard labour or by a fine not exceeding double the value of the products stolen.

Art. 22. Any forest thief who commits theft under any of the following circumstances shall be liable to punishment with limited imprisonment of the fourth grade or lower, together with a fine not exceeding

double the value of the products stolen:

1—Theft committed in a reserved forest.

2.—Theft committed by a person who has been entrusted by officials or by contracts with any responsibility for protecting the forest.

Art. 23. Any person who accepts as gift, transports, stores, purchases, or sells on commission goods which he knows to have been stolen by forest thievas shall be liable to punishment in accordance with the provisions set forth in Articles 21 and 22.

Art. 24. Any one who sets fire to forest not his own property shall be liable to punishment in accordance with provisions of Article 188 of the

Criminal Code.

- Art. 25. Any one who sets fire to his own forest shall be liable to punishment with limited imprisonment of the fifth grade, with hard labour or with a fine not exceeding One Hundred dollars. Should such fires set on his own forest injure the property of others, he shall be liable to punishment in accordance with the provisions set forth in Article 189 of the Criminal Code.
- Art 26. Should any person use another's forest as pasture for his cattle or horses, without previously obtaining the approval of the owner, he shall be fined not less than one dollar nor more than thirty dollars.
- Art. 27. Should any person damage or remove boundary or other forest marks, he shall be fined an amount not less than two dollars nor more than fifty dollars.

Art. 28. Should any person injure the young trees in another's forest, he shall be fined not less than two dollars nor more than one hundred dollars.

Art. 29. Should any person violate the provisions contained in Art. 10

by felling timber or by bringing combustible material into the forest, he shall be fined not less than one dollar nor more than thirty dollars.

Art. 30. Should any person violate the provisions contained in Art. 18 by cultivating in a reserved forest, he shall be fined not less than two dollars nor more than fifty dollars.

CHAPTER VI.

ADDITIONAL.

Art. 31. The detailed regulations for the enforcement of this law shall be fixed by Instructional Mandate of the President.

Art. 32. This law shall become effective from the date of its promulgation (November 3, 1914).

Regulations for the enforcement of the Forest Law were promulgated on June 30, 1915.

CHAPTER VI.

CLIMATE AND METEOROLOGY.

General Description.

The climate of China—of the coast_line exclusively and of the interior in a gradually dimmishing degree as one proceeds westwards—is governed by the incidence of the monsoons. In summer the ascending currents of air over the sandy deserts of Mongolia and Central Asia draw in a current from the Pacific Ocean; in the winter the colder air descends from the high table-land of the interior upon the regions that gradually slope away to sea-level. The summer monsoon—S. or S.W. along the southern coast, S.E. at Shanghai and S.W. further north—sets in progressively from the end of March or April in the north to May in the Formosa Channel. The winter monsoon blows N.W. in the lower Yangtze Valley, N. in Northern China, while in the south its direction is N.E. to E. It blows in the main from September until April.

At Hankow in Central China the winter monsoon (N.W. to N.E.) blows for 7 or 8 months, from August to April, while the summer monsoon (S.E).

blows for only 7 or 8 weeks in June and July.

Summer is the period of greater humidity, and this with the attendant rise in temperature makes this season of the year enervating and trying to Europeans. The winters are bracing and enjoyable; clear, dry and sunny in the north with extreme cold; less cold but clear in Central China; while in the south they must be termed cool only relatively to the climatic

conditions of a sub-tropical country.

As a whole, the climate of China may be said to compare favourably with that of any other part of the world lying between the same parallels of latitude. Owing to its enormous extent, however, it offers every variety of meteorological conditions from the sixty degrees of frost in Manchuria to the malaria-ridden swamps of a sub-tropical Yunnan. In the northern section the winters are severe, the ground is covered with snow, the rivers remain frozen for several months, and the greater part of the coast-line of Chihli, together with the Gulf of Liaotung, is ice-bound. In summer the thermometer ranges to 110° or more, while the daily variation may be as great as 55°. Dust storms are prevalent in the spring and autumn months. Central China is more humid, with a marked rainy season in summer. The extremes of temperature may be placed between 14° and 104° Fahrenheit. In Szechuan, Yunnan and Kweichow the rainfall is greater; the climate is damp and fogs are frequent. In Southern China sub-tropical conditions obtain, but with conspicuous modifications due to altitude.

On the high table-land of Central Asia and on the plains of Mongolia the extremes of heat and cold are combined with excessive dryness. The rains, however, penetrate across the mountain chains of the Tibeto-Chinese frontier and to the Alashan range in south-east Mongolia. West of this line the region of excessive dryness is met, where for months not a single snowflake will fall, but, where the cold is so intense that the bodies of dead animals dry up where they fall without passing through the process

of putrefaction (Stanford).

In the Tarim basin and West Mongolia there is scarcely any spring, intensely cold and late winters being followed almost immediately by equally intense heat, wher the glass rises even in April to 93° F. in the shade (Prievalsky, quoted by Stanford.*) Travellers in Mongolia and Tibet bear

testimony to the violence of the sand storms in these high regions. Similar storms are frequent in the winter months in the north of China Proper, and are experienced many miles out at sea in the Gulf of Pechihli.

Reference has been made to the monsoons. Another feature of the meteorology of the China coast is the typhoon. These cyclonic storms are formed over the Pacific in a region not far removed from the islands Yap and Guam (telegraph stations), and moving north-west strike the coast of Indo-China, or veering north-east reach the coast of China or Japan. The storm centre is marked by very low barometric pressure, and the wind blows round this inwards towards the centre, from right to left (against the hands of the clock), at a speed that may reach from 50 to 110 miles an hour, while the centre itself is moving forward at from 8 to 50 miles an hour, the usual rate in the north part of the China Sea being 9 miles. Typhoons rarely reach Shanghai, being more often diverted inland south of that port or recurving towards Japan. They average on the coast sixteen a year.

For meteorological statistics China is indebted to the Observatories of Siccawei, near Shanghai, and Hongkong, situated on the Kowloon peninsula at a height of 109 feet above mean sea_level. The former was founded and is maintained by the Jesuits; it enjoys deservedly a high reputation in the meteorological world. It is in telegraphic communication with the following stations and through them keeps the shipping of the Far East in constant touch with meteorological developments.

Stations.—Vladivostok, Newchwang, Shanhaikuan, Tientsin, Taku, Chefoo, Weihaiwei, Tsingtao, Tokio, Hankow, Chinkiang, Woosung, Shanghai, Gutzlaff, Chenhai (Ningpo), Wenchow, Santuao, Foochow, Taihoku (Formosa), Amoy, Swatow.

Many of the following statistics are taken from Siccawei publications. [Present Director of the Observatory, Père Froc. Publications: Calendrier-Annuaire, Bulletins, etc. The Climate of Shanghai, by Père Jos. de Moidrey s.J.]:—

SHANGHAI (Siccawei Observatory).

Average annual rainfall (1874-1909) 44·1 inches (in Hongkong 84·13 in., in Peking 25 m).

Average number of days on which rain has fallen in measurable quantities: 124 per annum (1874:1909).

Maximum rainfall in 24 hours, 7.7 inches (October 24, 1875).

MEAN BAROMETRIC PRESSURE.

(Reduced to freezing-point and sea-level).

	Shanaka:	Hongkong.	Faaabaan	Champfrin	g. Chefoo.	Peking,
_					-	.,
January	30.33	30.16	30.26	30.22	30.20	30.37
February	30.28	30.14	30.24	30.12	30.27	30.21
March	. 30 17	30.06	30.14	30.06	30.17	30.22
April	. 30.00	29.96	30.00	29.96	30.04	30.05
May	. 29.87	29.86	29.91	29.81	29.85	29.87
June	. 29.74	29 76	29.78	29.69	29.67	29.67
July	29.69	29.73	29.73	29.64	29.59	29.66
August	29.73	29.74	29.75	. 29.72	29.63	29.79
September	. 29.91	29.84	29.86	30.00	29.82	29.85
October	30.11	29.99	30.02	30.10	30.03	30.14
November	. 30.24	30.11	30.16	30.19	30.15	30.33
December	. 30.31	30 19	30.26	30.32	30.17	30.35

Yearly mean . . . 30.03 in. 29.96 in. 30.00 in. 29.97 in. 29.96 in. 30.04 in.

RAINFALL (Monthly Average).

Shanghai (1873-1902). Hongkong (1884-1907).

	in.	in.
January	2.15	1.41
February	2.29	1.70
March	3.21	2.95
April	3.57	5.66
May	3.60	12.75 (48.84 max.)
June	6.66	16.43 (34.37 max.)
July	. 5.10	12.37 (28.23 max.)
August	5.94	14.29 (27.86 max.)
September	4.72	9.47 (30.60 max.)
October	3.31	4.53
November	1.85	1.51
December	1.18	1.06
Yearly average	43.60	84.13
		•

MEAN TEMPERATURES AND HUMIDITY.

	Shanghai (3	64 years).	Hong	kong (24 yea	rs).
January	37.4° F.	80	60.0° F.	79.3° F.	74
February,	39.0	79	58.0	79.1	76
March	46.2	79	62.7	82.1	83
April	56.0	80	70.2	88.6	85
May	64.2	80	76.8	91.5	83
June	74.8	84	80.7	93.6	83
July	79.6	84	81.8	94.0	82
August	79.5	84	81.3	97.0	83
September	72.3	84	80.4	94.0	77
October	63.2	80	76.3	93.8	71
November	52.0	77	69.2	85.6	65
December	41.6	76	62.7	81.9	66
			-		_
Yearly mean	58.8° F.	80	76.3° F.		77

Snow.

Snow which is a permanent feature in winter of the northern landscape, becomes of rarer occurrence farther south, until in the southern provinces it appears on the higher ground only. In Shanghai snow falls every winter, but may be regarded as rare. Siccawei Observatory shows the following table:—

November		
December	4	(1882)
January	8	(1893)
February	5	(three times)
March	5	(twice)
April	1	(1882)

WIND.

Annual Variation.

Month.	Shanghai.	Hongkong.
January	N. 9° W.	E. 14° N.
February	N. 8° W.	E. 14° N.
March	N. 52° E.	E. 7° N.
April	S. 76° E.	\mathbf{E} .
May	S. 55° E.	E. 13° S.
June	S. *53° E.	E. 53° S.
July	S. 39° E.	E. 54° S.
August	S. 62° E.	E. 51° S.
September	N. 45° E.	E. 11° N.
October	N. 31° E.	E. 19° N.
November	N. 8° W.	E. 28° N.
December	N. 23°W.	E. 24° N.

HANKOW.

The following data for 1920 are abstracted from the Annual Report of the British Municipal Council:

THERMOMETER, 1920.

F	Iighest	Lowest	Mean	Hi	ighest	Lowest	Mean
January	67	23	44.21	July	108	75	92.5
February	58	26	32	August	106	74	90
March	67	34	50.5	September	96	62	79
April	84	51	67.5	October	82	58	70
May	91	59	75	November	81.	41	61
June	97	66	81.5	December	56.5	31	43.75

RAINFALL, 1920.

	Inches	On Days		Inches	On days.
January	3.61	5 *	July	2.34	9
February	3.96	17	August	1.88	8
March	8.11	17	September	3	9
April	2.84	11	October	4.14	12
May	6.54	14	November .	1.55	11
June	3.40	7	December	2.96	12

CLIMATE OF NORTH CHINA.

RAINFALL.

The average rain and snow-fall in Tientsin for the past 30 years has been 19.86 inches, the figures being:—

Year	Inches.	Year.	Inches.
1891	28.52	1906	15.64
1892	21.40	1907	16.25
1893	22.44	1908	26.30
1894	30.50	1909	14.65
1895	14.44	1910	17.81
1896	23.57	1911	25.71
1897	24.36	1912	31.32
1898	15.88	1913	15.43
1899	12.42	1914	26.57
1900	12.35	1915	19.22
1901	23.17	1916	21.61
1902	9.99	1917	16.32
1903	15.95	1918	19.93
1904	23.61	1919	20.00
1905	19.48	1920	11.06

TEMPERATURE.

The highest and lowest temperatures (Fahr.) recorded in Tientsin during the past twenty years have been:—

Year.	Max.	Min.	Year.	Max.	Min.
1901	98.0	5.0	1911	96.0	4.C
1902	113.0	13.0	1912	100.0	4.0
1903	102.0	10.0	1913	103.0	2.0
1904	102.0	8.0	1914	104.0	2.0
1905	102.0	12.0	1915	100.0	-4.0
1906	105.0	5.0	1916	104.0	-4.0
1907	104.0	12.0	1917	105.0	0.0
1908	104.0	4.0	1918	105.0	7.0
1909	107.0	2.0	1919	107.0	-4.0
1910	103.0	2.0	1920	108.0	5.0

CHAPTER VII.

PEOPLE AND LANGUAGE.

Upwards of sixty different peoples or tribes are to be reckoned among the inhabitants of China and its dependencies, who comprise, roughly speaking, one-fourth of the inhabitants of the earth. Practically nine-tenths of the total population is to be found in China Proper, and of these the great majority is of the Chinese race. All with the exception of the few Iranians of Kashgaria and Sungaria, and possibly of some little-known hill tribes, belong physically to various branches of the great Mongolo-Tartar family.

The following table of the races of the Empire is taken from Stanford's Compendium of Geography and Travel, Asia, Vol. I (by A. H. Keane, LL D.), to which reference may profitably be made for fuller information:—

TABLE OF RACES IN CHINA.

I. Mongoloid Races of Mongolo-Tartar Polysyllabic Speech,

1. Mong	OLOID RACES OF MONGOLO-	TARTAR POLYSYLLABIC SPEECH.
Sharra or Eastern Mongolians	Tushetu Tsi-tseng Jasaktu (Sain-noin) Uchumsin: Chakar Genshikten: Barin Kartsin: Jarot Uniot: Sunni Tumet: Kortsin Durban: Urut Naiman: Ahkhanar Ordos	N. Mongolia mainly S., E. and S.E. Mongolia N. bend of the Huang-ho
Eleuts (Kalmuks) or Western Mongolians	Chorass Turgut Khoshot Durbat	Sungaria, Kuldja, N. W. Mongolia
Urianghai Sok-pa Taldi (?)		Upper Yenisei basin N.E. Kachi (N.E., Tibet) W. Kansu
Tungus Family	Manchus Tungus Solons Sibos	Manchuria Upper Ili Valley, Kuldja
Turki Family	Taranchi (Kirghiz-Kazaks Kara-Kirghiz Kashgarians Dolans Salars (Kara-Tanguts) Horpa	Kuldja Central Tian-shan Tarim basin, Kuldja Kashgaria About source of Yangtze W. Kachi (N.W. Tibet)
, II. I		TAN INTERMEDIATE SPEECH.
	Rod no Tibetone proper	San-no hasin mainly

Bod-pa Tibetans proper)	San-po basin mainly
Tanguts (Northern Ti-	
betans)	Kansi, Kokonor, Tsaidam
Drok-pa	Central Kachi, between Sokpa and
Chak-pa	Horpa
Champa	E. of Noh, Tibet
Kham-pa	? Central Lake region, Tibet
Chang-pa	E. of the Khampa

Tibeto-Chinese frontier Andoan, Tochu Arru, Gyarung, Telu, from Koko-nor to Si-fan Manyak, Melam \mathbf{Y} unnan III MONGOLOID RACES OF CHINESE ISOLATING SPEECH. N. and Central China Chinese Proper Punti Kwangtung Hui-chan Kwangtung, Fukien Hakka Swatow district Hok-lo Kansu, Sungaria, Kuldja Tungans Khambing Kuldja Chimpan extinct? Khato-zun HIGHLAND RACES OF UNDETERMINED ETHNICAL AND LINGUISTIC AFFINITIES. Man-tse (I-jeu) W. Szechuan Sumu Pe-Lolo S. bend of the Yangtze Shu-Lolo S. Szechuan, N. Yunnan He-Lolo Miaotze Chung, Nguchung, orKweichow uplands man, Kilao. Kitao Nanman Lipo district. S. side Nanling Group Yao Mts. Nanling Mts. Seng N. Kwangtung Tung S.E. Tibet between Lutsekiang Lyssu (Li-so) and Lantsankiang Mos (s) o (civilized Lyssu) N.W. Yunnan, S. of the Lyssu Lu-tse (Anong) N. of the Lyssu Remepang E. of the Lyssu Pagni (Bai, Terong, or Bayul) W. of the Lu-tse N. of the Lu-tse Tsarong N. of the Remepang Ku-tse N. of the Ku-tse Diju Jrupa N. of the Diju Mu-ua (Anampel) Upper Irrawadi, Burmese frontier Shutung W. Yunnan Shang-lai Island of Hainan Shuk-lai V. ARYAN STOCK AND SPEECH.

The theory that the Chinese originally migrated from the west (from some part of Mesopotamia south of the Caspian Sea, according to Prof. Terrien de Lacouperie; from Khotan in the south-west of Eastern Turkestan, according to Baron von Richthofen) has obtained general credence. It has to be pointed out, however, that the lines of reasoning leading up to this conjecture have not passed unchallenged. Chinese literature in any case

Kashgaria, Kuldja

Lob-nor district.

Lower Tarim River

Tajiks

Kara-Kultsi (?)

Kara-kurchin

Lobnorski or

knows only of the present provinces of Kansu and Shensi as the cradle of Chinese civilization. If, therefore, there was at any time a general immigration from the west, it remains in the present condition of archæological research a matter of inference rather than of knowledge.

Historical.

For practical purposes we may regard the China of to-day as existing from the twenty-first century B.C., with the Chinese settled in the upper valley of the Yellow River, in occupation of the country now known as Kansu, Shensi, Shansi and Honan. The Chinese themselves have selected a date for this period earlier than 300 B.C., but on such a subject the critical faculty of native historians will not unnaturally be subordinated to dictates of patriotism. The names of the two Emperors Yao and Shun mark the transition from the legendary to the more or less historical period, and with their successor Yu we start the first Chinese dynasty, the Hsia dynasty (2205-1766 B.C.).

The two succeeding dynasties, the Shang and Chow, lasted respectively from 1766 B.C. to 1122 B.C., and from 1122 B.C. to 249 B.C. It was during the latter dynasty that China's three great philosophers flourished—Laotze (604 B.C.), Confucius (551-479 B.C.), and Mencius (372-289 B.C.). Already in the fourth century B.C. the feudal states, constantly at war with one another, had been gaining power at the expense of the central authority, and for sixty years before the last Chow Emperor abdicated the hegemony of the then Chinese Empire, it was virtually in the hands of Tsin, that gave its name to the next dynasty.

The Tsin dynasty was of short duration, 249-206 B.C., while it is probable that its authority was not finally recognized until 220 B.C. It produced only one Emperor of note, Tsin Shih Huang-ti (First Heavenly Emperor), whose name is famous for three exploits: the consolidation of the Empire by subdividing it into thirty-six provinces, the building of the Great Wall of China, and the burning of China's Classics.

The Han dynasty that came next is the best-known of these earlier lines of Emperors on account of its popularity with the Chinese, who style themselves to this day "Sons of Han." In its two branches, Western and Eastern Han (the removal of the capital from Sianfu in Shensi to Lohyang in Honan dates from A.D. 25) the dynasty maintained its hold on the Empire from 206 B.C. to A.D. 221. Its record is thus summed up by Père L. Richard:—*

"Numerous public works were undertaken, prominent among which were bridges, aqueducts, roads and canals. The wealth and trade of the country developed. The Classics were restored and engraved on stone; Buddhist literature was officially introduced from India, and intercourse opened with the Roman Empire. The competitive examinations for literary degrees (abolished September 2, 1905) originated under this dynasty, and a Penal Code was drawn up. Years of peace, during which the nation prospered, alternated with incursions by the Nomad Tartars. The modern Fukien, Kwangtung, Yunnan, Szechuan, and Liaotung were incorporated with the Chinese Empire. Chinese armies marched as far west as the Caspian Sea, and China eccupied a foremost position among the nations of the East."

On the fall of the Han dynasty from internal dissensions the Empire was divided into three kingdoms, but in A.D. 265 these were consolidated under the Tsin dynasty. At this period the incursions of the Tartar tribes (Huns) from the north became more serious, until in A.D. 317 they established themselves permanently in North China and the dynasty removed the

^{*} L. Richard's Comprehensive Geography of the Chinese Empire. Translated into English, revised and enlarged by M. Kennelly, s.J., 1908.

capital of the Empire to Nanking in Kiangsu. It now became known as the Eastern Tsin and retained the throne until A.D. 420.

For the next five centuries the history of the Chinese Empire is one of internal discord and rebellion, with constant struggles for possession or retention of the throne and with, for the most part, short-lived dynasties. One, only, assumes any prominence, the Tang dynasty, which ruled over China from A.D. 620 to 907. Under this dynasty the western boundaries of the Empire were extended and Korea became a province governed by Chinese officials. During the region of the Emperor Taitsung (A.D. 267-650) the Nestorians and Mohammedans entered China, and the Nestorian Tablet was erected at Sianfu by Imperial sanction (A.D. 781).

Five dynasties followed in fifty-three years and in A.D. 960 began the Sung dynasty with the capital at Kaifeng in Honan. The Northern Sung lasted until A.D. 1127, but early in its history the Kitan Tartars, who had long been challenging the Chinese Empire, proved formidable neighbours in the north.

In a.d. 1125 the Kin Tartars (N.E. Manchuria) defeated the Kitans and founded a kingdom, with its capital first at Liaoyang and then at Peking. Before these new invaders the Chinese retired south of the Yangtze, with Nanking as their capital, leaving the northern provinces and their Emperor in the hands of the Kins. The new Emperor invited the Mongols to fight his battles for him, and in a.d. 1234 the Kins were overthrown. The victorious Mongols then turned their attention to the Chinese, overran the country (a.d. 1275), and under the famous Kublai Khan established the Mongol dynasty of Yuen (a.d. 1280). During his reign Marco Polo, the Venetian traveller, who had previously entered China and remained there seventeen years, was received at the Peking Court.

In 1368 a successful revolution established once more a Chinese dynasty, the Ming (1368-1644), and the Mongols were driven from the country. During this period the boundaries of the Empire were extended to include Tongking on the south, but China was frequently hard pressed by the Mongols in the north and by the Japanese, who in 1554 captured several towns near the coast-line of Kiangsu, south of the Yangtze, and of Chekiang. In 1618 the Manchus invaded Liaotung, and seven years later they made Mukden their capital. For more than twenty years their attacks on the Empire were driven off. But in 1644 a successful rebellion in China led to the capture of Peking, and the last Ming Emperor committed suicide. The Chinese generals who were in command of the operations against the Manchus, summoned the latter to aid them against the insurgents. The Manchus entered Peking and the rebellion was crushed, but the victors established themselves in China, and the late Manchu dynasty, known as the Tsing (Taching) dynasty, ascended the Dragon throne in A.D. 1644. One of the earliest acts of the new reigning house was to compel the Chinese to shave their heads in recognition of Tartar authority. What was in origin a badge of servitude became an object of national pride.

The rulers of the Manchu dynasty were ten in number :-

Shun Chih	1644-1662
K'ang Hsi	1662-1723
Ch'ien Lung	
Chia Ch'ing	1796-1821
Tao Kuang	
Hsien Feng	1850-1861
Tung Chi	1861-1875
Kuang Hsu	1875-1908
Hsuan Tung	1908-1912 (abdicated)

Physical Characteristics.

The Chinese.—"With regard to physical characteristics, the inhabitants of the eighteen provinces differ widely from one another, and the same may be said sometimes even of the inhabitants of the same province. There are, however, certain features which are common to the race. The stature is below the average, and seldom exceeds 5 feet 4 inches, except in the north. The head is normally brachycephalic or round horizontally, and the forehead low and narrow. The face is round, the mouth large, and the chin small and receding. The cheek-bones are prominent, the eyes almond-shaped, oblique upwards and outwards, and the hair coarse, lank and invariably The beard appears late in life and remains generally scanty. The eyebrows are straight and the iris of the eye is black. The nose is generally short, broad, and flat. The hands and feet are disproportionately small, and the body early inclines to obesity. The complexion varies from an almost pale yellow to a dark brown, without any red or ruddy tinge. Yellow, however, predominates, as with the Japanese, Manchu, and Mongolian races." (L. Richard's Comprehensive Geography of the Chinese Empire.)

Manchus.—The Manchus are descended from a Tartar tribe, belonging to the Tungus. They resemble the Northern Chinese in being of a slightly larger build and sturdier than the inhabitants of Central China, but their eyes lack the upward turn. The feet of the Manchu women are not bound, while their hair, in distinction to that of the Chinese, is worn twisted

round a silver bangle placed crosswise on the top of the head.

Mongolians.—The Mongols are a sturdy, thick_set race, generally more powerfully built than the Chinese, vigorous and capable of enduring great physical hardships. They are born horsemen, but on foot they are both awkward and incapable of much sustained effort. In their personal habits they are excessively dirty, while they combine extraordinary gluttony with supreme laziness and general improvidence. The intellectual standard of the people is low, a fact attributed by most observers to the hold that Lamaism has on the country.

Tibetans.—The Tibetans belong to the Mongol family, resembling the Western Mongolians more than the Eastern, the nose and check-bones being prominent, the ears large, the forehead narrow. Their complexion is light brown with a tendency to ruddiness. The Tibetans of Lhassa are shorter than the Chinese. In other parts of the country the stature of the in-

habitants is above the Chinese average.

Aboriginals or Quasi-Aboriginal Tribes—Our knowledge of the aboriginal tribes of China is still imperfect, and much uncertainty prevails regarding their origin and degree of inter-relationship. The most familiar names are those of Lolo, Miaotze Sifan, Liso, Moso, Hakka and Hoklo. With the exception of the last two the people in question dwell on the western borders of China, in various parts of Szechuan, Yunnan or Kweichow, or across the Tibetan frontier. One authority, excluding the Tibetans, with whom the Sifans are to be reckoned, considers that the chief non-Chinese races of South-West China are the Lolo, Shan and Miaotze, and would place the Moso and Liso in the Lolo family. An attempt has also been made to give all these tribes a Mauryan origin with a Tibetan strain running through them. A connection between the Shans (Burma) and Chinese, however, is generally accepted.

The Lolo, divided into two classes, the "black-bones' (aristocrats and fighters) and the "white-bones" or tame Lolo, occupy a territory of some 11,000 square miles of mountain land in Southern Szechuan, in Yunnan, and Kweichow. Their skin is white and the hair brown. The Lolo are characterized by a sturdy independence of the Chinese, from whom they differ in speech, dress, customs, religion, and laws. Baber says of them:—
"They are far taller than the Chinese... almost without exception

remarkably straight_built with thin muscular limbs. . . . Their handsome eval faces, of a reddish brown among those most exposed to the weather, are furnished with large, level eyes, prominent but not exaggerated cheekbones, an arched but rather broad nose, an ordinary mouth, somewhat thin-lipped, and a pointed and characteristic chin from which the beard has been plucked." The Mantze in Szechuan have long been distinct from the Lolo further south, but it is generally agreed that they are one and the same race, which perhaps at one time wielded wide sway in this part of the world.

The Miaotze, if we accept a distinction between them and the Lolo, may also be given an Indo-Chinese origin. They were probably the earliest of all the existing settlers in South-West China and are now met with in widely spread localities. From the colour of their dress they are generally grouped into three divisions, the White, Black and Embroidered Miao.

The origin of the Moso and Liso must also remain a matter of conjecture. Though the two races may be referred back to the same stock, it has been noted that the Liso language is rather closer to the Burmese than to the Moso (R. F. Johnston). Both peoples repudiate any connection with the Lolo. The authority above quoted adds:—"This attitude may be due to the fact that the Moso, once a warlike race, have settled down quietly under Chinese rule as peaceful tillers of the ground, while the Lolo have earned the reputation of being lawless freebooters." Both Moso and Liso are found widely scattered.

The Hakkas are to be found mainly in Kwangtung and Kwangsi, but are met with also in Kiangsi, Fukien and Chekiang, as well as in the islands of Formosa and Hainan. L. Richard says of them:—"The Hakkas are a cross between Chinese soldiers and Ikia (aborigines) women. . . They came very likely from Fukien . . . are excellent cultivators, and being of strong build are also employed as coolies and carriers." Their language, which holds an intermedaite position between Mandarin and Cantonese, is spoken by 4,000,000 people.

The Hoklos are the people of Fck (pronounced Hok), i.e. Fukien, from which province they migrated to Kwangtung a few centuries ago. They now number about three millions.

Ikia, signifying "barbarian," is a generic term among the Chinese for all the tribes of the south and south west, but is also applied to certain tribes found in Kweichow and Kwangsi.

Population, Distribution of

From the statistics of population given on a previous page (p. 3) it will be seen that Kiangsu is the most densely populated province of the Empire, with 875 inhabitants to the square mile. Chekiang and Shantung follow in order of density, with 600 and 550 inhabitants to the square mile. Population is thus densest along the fertile valleys of the Yellow River and the Yangtze, and most scattered along the border provinces of Kansu, Szechuan, Yunnan, and Kwangsi, where geographical conditions as well as inter-tribal feuds have helped to thin the populace. Outside of China Proper large centres of population are rare. Yarkand and Kashgar may have more than 50,000 inhabitants each, and Urga in Mongolia 30,000; but the latter territory has only two and Chinese Turkestan only four people to the square mile. China, therefore, as a whole is far from being over-populated, and only in the most highly favoured districts does the density of population approximate that of some European countries.

The loss of life from abnormal causes in China in each decade must be far greater than in any other portion of the world, with the possible exception of India in former times. Apart from the congestion of population in the great centres, where with the characteristic indifference to sanitation and hygiene a favourable field is offered to and taken advantage of by numerous epidemics (plague, endemic in Yunnan, cholera, small-pox, etc., passim), China is particularly susceptible to recurring visitations in the form of floods and famine. Chinese chronicles are filled with the recital of national or local disasters. A famine in 1877-8 is said to have caused the death of 8,000,000 of the inhabitants of Honan, Shansi, Shantung and Chihli. In recent times one district or another has been able to record famine with attendant loss of life each year. More notable disasters have been as frequent as 1901, 1906, 1910, 1920 (famines), and 1911 1917 (floods). Action on the part of the Government could do much to prevent or minimize these visitations, but has never yet been taken. Again the frequent occurrence (almost chronic) of rioting and revolt has exercised its effect on the numbers of the people of China. The loss of life caused by the Taiping Rebellion (1850-64) is variously estimated from 10,000,000 to 20,000,000. The Mohammedan rebellions between 1861 and 1872 must have contributed largely to the depopulation of Kansu and Yunnan. Few riots are unaccompanied by the extermination of China's rank and file to the extent, it may be, only of hundreds or otherwise of thousands. In the Chihli (N.E.) riots of 1891 the Government claimed to have killed 15,000 rebels in one month.

Emigration.

The following official estimate of Chinese living abroad has been compiled. The figures are probably too high (e.g. Japanese returns give the number of Chinese in Japan as 11,840, compared with the 17,700 of this table):—

Java Siam East Indies Singapore Hongkong	1,825,700 1.500,000 1,023,500 1,000,000 314,390	Cuba Philippines Macao Peru Siberia Australia	84,060 74,560 45,000 37,000 35,000	Canada Korea South Africa. Mexico Europe	11,300 5,000 3,000 1,760
Annam	197,300	Honolulu	27,000	Total	8,867,420
U.S.A	150,000	Brazil	20,000		
Burmah	134,600	Japan	17,700		

Language and Dialects.

The language of the Republic is Chinese, but it is subdivided into so many dialects with widely differing pronunciations, often only intelligible locally, that the country can hardly be said to be possessed of a common tongue. As in other countries there is a marked distinction between the written and the spoken language. The former is divided into three varieties—

- 1. The Ancient style of the Classics and early Annals of the Empire, which is a subject for the interpretation of scholars.
- 2. The Literary style (Wenli), used in books and in the essays written at public examinations of the old régime.
- 3. The Official style of public documents and business correspondence, of which the characters are the same throughout the Empire.

The one language that can claim to be in any way common to the Republic is known as *Mandarin*, which in its three varieties, Northern, Southern (Nanking) and Western, is spoken by two-thirds of the population of China.

The dialects that most resemble Mandarin are the Cantonese, with the allied Hakka, the Ningpo, Shanghai, Wenchow, Amoy, Swatow and Foochow dialects. These dialects, however, would not be understood by an ordinary Mandarin-speaking Chinese belonging to another province. Interpreters are by no means unknown in official Chinese conclaves in Peking.

The various tribes to which reference has already been made have their own dialects, and a different script.

Of the Manchu language L. Richard writes :-

"In Manchuria Chinese is the most widely spoken language of the country. The Manchus, when speaking among themselves, employ their cwn dialect, which is very different from the Chinese and Mongol languages. It is of Tungusic origin, sonorous and easily learned. It is composed of dissyllabic roots, the meaning of which is modified (especially in verbs) by aggintinative suffixes. The alphabet is syllabic and of Syro-Uigur origin. The latest form has been borrowed, in the sixteenth century, from the Mongols. There are 6 to 8 vowels, 18 consonants and 10 diacritical marks. Like Chinese it is written in vertical columns, but from left to right."

Of the Mongol language the same authority says:-

"The most widely diffused type of the Mongol language, spoken throughout the country, belongs to the Ural-Altaic family, as the Turkish and Manchu dialects. It abounds in dissyllabic roots, and is rich in words and forms. The alphabet is syllabic and of Syro-Uigur origin. It has 7 vowels, 17 consonants and 5 diphthongs. Gutturals and aspirates are largely used. The writing has undergone various transformations. Its latest form, which resembles knotted cords, dates from the thirteenth century. Mongol is written in vertical columns from top to bottom, but unlike Chinese, the lines proceed from left to right. The Mongol language has its conjugations and declinations. Sentences consist of a number of participial clauses with the principal verb at the end, and this gives them at times an indefinite length. In the spoken language the letter "r" is frequent, but the consonant "f" is non-existent."

CHAPTER VIII.

NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS IN CHINA.

The Chinese claim to have used movable types five hundred years before Gutenberg cut his matrices at Mainz. About 1,000 A.D. a Chinese blacksmith named Pi Shing made type of plastic clay, "hardened by fire after the characters had been cut on the soft surface of a plate of clay in which they were moulded. The porcelain types were then set up in a frame of iron partitioned off by strips, and inserted in a cement of wax, resin, and lime, to fasten them down. The printing was done by rubbing, and when completed the types were loosened by melting the cement, and made clean for another impression."*

The first foreign newspapers in China were started within a few years of the opening of Shanghai as a Treaty Port. The first Chinese newspaper to be started was the Shanghai Hsin Pao, which appeared as a mere news sheet, in 1870. It was succeeded by the Shen Pao, under the ownership of Messrs Major Bros, British subjects, and followed some ten years later by the Sin Wen Pao. Both of these papers are still in existence. After the Sino-Japanese War more Chinese papers were started in Shanghai, Tientsin, Hangchow, Canton and Nagasaki, and following the Boxer Outbreak a number of pro- and anti-Monarchical papers made their appearance, some printed abroad, some published in the Treaty Ports. With the promise of more liberal Government in 1907 the number of Chinese papers rapidly increased, but it was not until after the 1911 Revolution that the native press spread throughout the country, until hardly a town of any importance was without its own newspaper. The subjoined list of papers registered for transmission through the Chinese Post Office, has been kindly supplied to us by the Directorate General of Posts. Of the hundreds of papers named therein, only a fraction possess any real influence. Scores of papers are printed in Peking in the interests of political factions and of individuals. Though registered for postal transmission it may be doubted whether half of them appear regularly.

The Chinese Press of to-day leaves much to be desired. With a few notable exceptions it is absolutely unreliable in its presentation of domestic and foreign news. Many of the papers are notoriously corrupt, and often inflammatory and malicious. The good that they might do by exposing official incompetence and corruption is often offset by their mischievous activities in other directions. Very few of the papers are really independent or well-informed. The Chinese Press is, however, exercising an increasing influence upon public opinion, especially on international issues. Notwithstanding the constitutional guarantee of freedom of speech and publication, the militarists who have been in power under the Republic give short shrift to any editors who offend them by too outspoken criticism.

^{*} S. Wells Williams, The Middle Kingdom.

BRITISH NEWSPAPERS.

The principal British newspapers in China are:

TIENTSIN.

The Peking & Tientsin Times (Daily) Established in 1894. China Illustrated Review (Weekly Edition of above).

North China Daily Mail (Daily, Evening).

SHANGHAL.

North China Daily News (Daily) Established 1864.

North China Herald (Weekly Edition of above) Established 1850.

Shanghai Mercury (Daily, evening).

Shanghai Times (Daily).

Finance & Commerce (Weekly).

British Chamber of Commerce Journal (Monthly).

New China Review (Monthly).

HANKOW.

Central China Post (Daily).

Hongkong.

Hongkong Daily Press (Daily).
South China Morning Post (Daily).
Hongkong Telegraph (Daily, Evening).
China Mail (Daily, Evening).

AMERICAN NEWSPAPERS.

SHANGHAI.

The China Press (Daily).
Millard's Review (Weekly).
Far Eastern Review (Monthly).

TIENTSIN.

North China Star (Daily).

JAPANESE NEWSPAPERS.

Numerous Japanese-owned Chinese newpapers are published in China. Also four English journals: the *Manchuria Daily News* (Daily) and *Light of Manchuria* (Monthly) at Dairen; the *North China Standard* (Daily) at Peking; and the *China Advertiser* (Daily) at Tientsin.

FRENCH NEWSPAPERS.

Echo de Chine (Daily) Shanghai; Journal de Pekin (Daily) Peking; Echo de Tientsin (Daily) Tientsin.

CHINESE JOURNALS.

A number of Chinese owned journals are printed in the English language at the Treaty Ports and in Peking. The most important are: Peking Daily News (Daily), Peking Leader (Daily), and Chinese Social and Political Science Review (Monthly) at Peking; Shanghai Gazette (Daily, evening) at Shanghai; Canton Times (Daily) at Canton.

MISSIONARY PUBLICATIONS.

Numerous periodicals in English and Chinese are printed by Missionary organizations throughout the country, details of which will be found in the following list.

ANHUI DISTRICT.

				1					
NAME OF PUBLIC	CA	TION			Name of		lame		Frequency
Romanised	ĺ	Chines		pla	ice where		of prieto	r	of Issue
Romanised	<u> </u>								
Ming Yen Pao	民	岩	報		Anking	Wu Ai	Han		Daily
Kung Shang Jih Pao	I	商日	報		Wuhu	央 Chang (航 Kao	,,
Shih Nieh Cha Tse	實	業雜	計誌		Anking	張 Kao Pi		皋 in	Monthly
Wan Chiang Jih Pao	皖	江田	報		Wuhu	下ang M		鳞 hing	Daily
Hsiao Pao			報		,,	譚 Chao Cl		卿 ang	,,,
Anhui Tung Shu Chiao	安	徽選	i俗		Anking	超 Shih We	熾 ei Hs	昌 iao	,,
Yu Pao	教	育	報			史	維	孝	
Anhui Chiao Yu Yuel Kan		育月	徽刊		"	Tung Cl	-8-	ui 🎓	Monthly
Anhui Kung Pao					,,	Pan Pi	2213		Daily
Chiao Hsüeh Chou Kan.	敎	學週	〕刋		,,	潘 Chao L		陛 hih	Weekly
						趙	綸	士	
					٠,				
	C	HEK	IAN	IG	DISTRI	CT.			
('hih Kiang Jih Pao		シ 汀	日	報	Hangcho	w 陳	処	之	Daily
Hangchow Ching Nien		标 州	書	年	, ,,		青年		Monthly
Chekiang Military Magaz	ine	軍事	雜	誌	,,	林	之	夏	"
Liang Chê T'so Chêng	Lu.	兩洲	蹉 政	:錄		表	思	水	Daily
Chekiang Min Pao Chekiang Nung Hui N	una	浙江	氏曲	報		李	乾	孫榮	Monthly
Yeh Ch'ien Shuo	ung				,,	朱	祖	ж	11101101111
Chekiang Kung Pao		農業	後水	說報	,,	陳	簡	文	Daily
Ch'üan Chê Kung Pao .		全油	公	報	1	徐	偉	人	,,
Ts'ai Chên Yüeh K'an			I	崩		財	政	廳	Monthly
WILL STO OIL			月	刊		總	務	科	
Chiao Yü Ch'ao		教	育	潮	,,	沈	仲亨	九頤	,,
Chiao Yü Yüeh K'an		1 4/1	江月	教刊		經 周	配	義	22
Chekiang Ching Nien T Chekiang Ching Ch'a	uan			- 4	1	黎里	亨	頤	Every 5 days
Chih Chekiang Shih Yeh Ts't		警察	雜工	誌實	. (वि	萃	真	Monthly
Pao			正 叢	具報		胡	耀	章	Monthly

NAME OF PUBLICA		ION		Name of		Name		Frequency
Romanised		Chinese	2	place where issued	P	of roprieto	r	of Issue
Ming Ch'iang Fsiao Yu Hui Shih Jih K'an	1.13	强友日	報會刊	Hangchow	王夏	廬丐	球尊	Half-Monthly Every 10 days
Tu Chien	獨錢	江評朋	見	" " "	凌曹李	榮 聚	寳仁善	Half-monthly Weekly Every 10 days
L'ang Chê Jih Pao Kwangchi Medical Journal. New King Hwa	廣新	浙齊金拉	華	,,	盧梅程	秀隆	南更膺出	Daily Bi-monthly Half-monthly
Siaoshan Lü Hang Hsüeh Sheng Hui K'an Yueh To Jih Pao	生	會半月	刊報	~	朱 陳	恃瘦	生崖	,, Daily
Shaohing I Yüeh Hsüeh Pao Yüeh Chou Kung Pao	樂越	與學外	醫報報工		裘兪	七口岩帝	生鵬	"
Chekiang Ti Wu Shih Fang Yüch K'an Shaohing Chiao Yü Chou	師紹	江範與選	刊教	,,	鄭陳	形大	華經	Monthly Weekly
K'an Shaohing I Yüeh Hsueh Pao Hsing Ch'i Tseng K'an	育紹明	週 興醫學		,, Ningpo	裘馬	八吉良	社 生翰	,, Daily
Ningpo Daily News Ningpo Young Men Shih Shih Kung Pao Fei Hsia Pao	甯	波青			胡鳥林	詠一鐵	粉騏蝶生	Monthly Daily
Dar Kung Pao Ch'ou Chou Chou Pao	大	公	報報	Iwu Kienkiao	周孟謝	宗玄	雪郯基	,,
		暨民		Chukihsien Che	陸	水冠	範洛	Bi-daily
Chu Chi Chung Hsiao Hsueh Sheng Hui Pan yüeh K'an Pinghu Jih Pao	牛	會半月		D' 1	張湯	實	華憾	Half-monthly Daily
I E Pao	一湖	謂州公	報報	,, Huchow	馬張鈕	冰天澤	如嘯景	,, ,,
		江州國校湖民體月	報報操利	,, ,, Nanzin	李徐		原鐸冰	Monthly
Tai Chow Jih Pao Tsin Nien Chow K'an	台	10 月 日 週	報	Taichow	陳蔣	鹿子	芝元	Daily Weekly

Peking & Tientsin Times

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CHIHLI DISTRICT.

Frequency	Daily	" " ***********************************	weekly Daily Weekly Monthly Daily	Weekly	Daily Weekly	Daily Monthly Weekly
Name of Dronietor	郭 養 田 H.G.W. Wood-	Head, C.B.E., Editor. R. W. Nicholls, Manager	林 指 语 数 M. Saulais. 数 声 會 腦 運 使	T. G. Fisher. R. Bate. T. G. Fisher.	整然 题。存 题。存 E.G.W. Wood- head, c.B.E., Editor.	K. W. Nicholis, Manager. Manager. 参与 (新文本) (新文本) (新文本)
Name of place where issued	日本租界旭街 Tientsin Press.	既		1	而光隔文昌站 東門外洋貨街 同 L Tientsin Press	张 界 京 城 灣 響 祭 廳 內 光
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NAME OF PUBLICATION	Tientsin Daily News	L'Impartial	L'Echo de Tientsin Chihli Chiao Yu Chieh Chang Lu Yen Wu Kung Pao North China Daily Mail	North China Sunday Times	She Hui Chiao Yu Hsin Chi Pac Yih Shih Pao	The China Sun
Registra- tion Number	2 4	r ç	17 70 72 79	08	83 85 87	93 94 106

CHIHLI DISTRICT (Continued).

Frequency of Issue	- Daily Weekly Monthly Daily	Monthly "" Weekly Daily	", " Weekly	Daily ". Weekly Half-monthly Once in 5 days
Name of Proprietor	講 画 M Dr C.J. Fox, Editor, Myron Simon, President,	懸點變數 被 所 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是	五 数 生	所張楊陳葛謝尹 鳳蔭廣天景小 村秋慶沅回義隱
Name of place where issued	秦 紫 大 街 東 馬 路 光 祥 印 別 總 向 沃 界 瑞 丘 昭	惡交節範疇習所內 宋 定 西 醫 南 市 廣 国 大 街 日 界 電 燈 房 前 同 光 女 師 範 日 界中東石 印局	南 市 廣 興 里 日 界 恒 利 後 英中街八十二號	日 界 壽 街 法 界 馬 家 口 武 清縣城
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NAME OF Romanised	Chin Tsin Tai Wu Shih Pao I Yao Wei Shen Chien Shu Pao Chihli Shih Yeh Kung Pao North China Star	Tsinan Chiao Yu Yueh Pao Nung Hsueh Yueh Kan Ho Pei Jih Pao Tien Ming Jih Pao Tung Shu Pai Hwa Pao Sing Shih Chow Kan China Advertiser	Pei Fang Sing Wen	Tientsin Jih Pao La Justice Wutsing Chow Kan Ko Hsueh Ti Tangshan Hsin Wen Chien Pao Chi Ming Jih Pao
Registra. tion Number	107 108 110 111	119 121 122 123 124 129	135 136 137	159 141 142 143 144 145

PEKING DISTRICT.

	NO.	Name of	Monarioton	2		Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	place where issued	thatine of the property			of Issue
Chin Tsin Shih Pao	京津時報	Peking	Hsu Shih-chun	壮	世勢	Daily
Social Welfare, Peking	学院徐市数	0	Wei Tze-hsuan	魏		"
Ming Shih Pao	民福報	` 6	Chang Shao-chun	語	紹 春	
Kung Yen-Pao			Wang Teh-ju	H		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Peking Jih Pao	米京日報		Chu Chi	米		9.9
Ming Chiang Pao	民福 報	: :	Wang Ho-ping			9.9
Shun Tien Shih Pao	順天時報	33	Chung Tao Chen-hsuang	_	島真雄	3.3
Ai Kuo Pai Hua Pao	一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一一	:	Ma Chu	HE.		
Chun Chiang Pao	秦 昭 報	: :	Chao Wei-hsin	岩	維新	***
Ch'n Hua Jih Pao	京部日報		Peng Yi-sun	污		•
Lu Hai Chun Jih Pao	。降海軍日報		Ting Ching	H	縮	***
Tung Hsin-wen	品東 新聞	3.3	Chang Ching	張	紫	64
Jih Chih Pao	日知報	3.3	Chen Chun	世		9.9
Kia Ying Jih Kan	品 自 利	23	Lu Tsan-sen	图:	漸生	***
The Peking Leader	北京道教	33	Lo An (Grover Clark, Editor)	뫯	承	•
Peking Daily News	· 原 妹 次		W. Sheldon Ridge, Editor			
		33	Chu Chi	**		***
Shih Shih Pai Hua Pao	一 雪 野 白 話 報	33	Chao Li-nung	三部		33
The Morning Post	原	33	Tai Lang-ju	瀬・		33
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Peking Pao	北京報	,,	Liang Tsan-ting	以		13
Hua Wen Jih Pao	華文日報	33	Tai Chien Lung	鐵		66
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" Ku Tien-ming
" Yang Li-chien
" Chen Tsung-ta
" Chang Chung-ching
" Hwang Wen-wei
", Hsieh Te-ming
" Tsao Chih-ming
" Ling
" Chen
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" Chen Tai
" Chow Tang
" Yeh Yi-chow
" Chi Jung-kuan
" Wu Hsin-kuei
", Kuang Yung-ching
" Hwang Yu-feng
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Romanised	Chinese	place where issued	Name of Proprietor	Jol		of Issue	sue
Sing Ming Kuo Pao	300 FF FF FF	Paking	T. Vuesn	H	- E	Daily	D
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Yen Pao	対域が対対		Chow Tien-shih	÷⊞=	大 大		2 2
	北京政開報	3.5	A. Monestier, Editor			M	cly.
	政府公報	33	Ying Chu Chu	긒	鑄 局		ly .
	内務公報	33	Yu Tze-ang	+	十二四十	I Monthly	hly
	司法公報	33	Ssu Fa Pu		法部	.,	
	農商公報	**		茶	上		
	市政通告	9.9	Shih Chen Kung Su	市田	八公司	Fvery 10 days	days
Yen Chen Huei Lan	鹽收環覽	66		廳務	鹽務署總移		
The state of the s	1			處第	京川	Monthly	hly
Chiao lung kueh Kan	交通月利	3.3	Chang Cheng	雅	277.		
Ch lao Yu Kung Pao	区	3.5	Ma Pu-ying	川川	步遍		hly
Tsing Hua Journal	制新爾斯	Toinghwa-	Teng Tze-an	類	计	Twice monthly	onthly
		yuan	Y T. Tsur	1111	44	表 Monthly	hly
Tieh Lu Kuan Li Chu Kung Pao	京漢朝路管			Ĩ.			
Chou Shih Pao	理局公報	Peking	Niu Kuang-tow	#	光斗		<u>ک</u> (
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Hsin Wen Chow Kan	間鴻		Hsu Pao-wang	14徐	a 高 語		dy
The New China	#	33	Yeh Heng	業			hly
Yen Feng Pao	教育週刊	33	Fu En-tze	世上	题	Weekly	dy ::
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an an	Kalgan	Sung Pao-hua	米	達	Daily
Kan	Peking	Wang Kwang-chi	11		
ao		Liu Chao-ling	<u>S</u>		Weekly
ao	2	Chang Chih-an	黑		Every 10 days
ao	•	Liu Chien-yang	· <u>参</u>	建陽	Weekly
en Paolardueh Chow Kan	•	Pan Hai-wen	総		Every 10 days
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en Paoardueh Chow Kan	•	Hung Shih-lu	江	品	Monthly
lardueh Chow Kan	•	Chang Chih-yuan	計	計	Daily
ardueh Chow Kan		Hsia Chien			Ealf Monthly
ardueh Chow Kan		Chang Yun	清		Monthly
ueh Chow Kan		T. Fuse, Editor	ζ	1	
ueh Chow Kans	· ·	Lin Chu-ming	敬		Daily
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<i>σ</i> 2	•	Tao Ya-ming	墨		Weekly
	:	Chang Chung-liang	黑	仲良	Daily
	66	F. Nachbour			
Changpinghsien Ch'iao Yu Kung Pat 京兆昌平縣	Changping-				
教育公報	chow	Wu Yu-keng	空	由底	Monthly.
Yu Hsing Chen Yueh Kan. 教育行政			,		
Poking To Chung Home Dee	Peking	Chin Ssu Hsueh Wu Chu	小司	京師學務局	:
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Frequency of Issue	Daily "" Monthly Every 10 days Monthly Tevery 10 days Monthly Monthly "" "" Half Monthly "" "" Half Monthly "" "" ""
	陳周劉何林陳朱馮彭宋楊鄭王張航李汪馬李楊 梅宋丁潘德 家輿長君 承 交者 事 俠太雨時 思無潛超及苦惡難民宜豫植釣介雲初奇言處維及璞亭澤 平我龍然
	隐 家輿長君 承 文君 事 俠太雨時 思無濟超
10	陳周劉何林陳朱馮彭宋楊鄭王張航李汪馬李楊 梅宋丁潘
Name of Proprietor	Chen Te-kung Chow Hao Liu Kia-yuan Ho Hsing-hua Lin Chang Ming Chen Chun-chih Chu Yu Peng Chun Sung Chieh Yang Yun Cheng Wen-chu Wang Chieh Yang Yun Chang Yen Li Wei Li Wei Wang Sia-kung Ma Tai-pu Li Yu-ting Mai Ssu-ping Sung Wu O Ting Chin-lung Fan Chao-juen
Name of place where issued	Poking """" "" Kalgan Peking "" "" "" "" "" "" ""
Chinese	中叉光定時實新青新階倉實動大航中和群明光覺頤大大術央新京一事業新年監光鬪 事空正 洋社海義聲 華日日新一句週小句藍月句 窠月月 時新新義聲日報報報報和刊說刊出刊刊話機刊報刊報報報報刊測報報報報
NAME OF PUBLICATION Romanised	Chung Yang Jih Pao Yu Hsin Jih Pao Peking Hsin Pao Ting Yi Pao Shih Shih Sun Kau Shih Yieh Chow Kau Sin Sin Short Stories Ching Nien Sin Kan Shih Hua Shih Hua Tung Chi Tung C

Frequency of Issue	Monthly Daily " Weekly Daily
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	源亦宜。
or	李麗母曹申 熊鄭
Name of Proprietor	Lı Ying-chow Toun Yi-an Hu Yi-kung Tsao Ming Sheng Chu-shang Feng Keng-kuan Cheng Sung-hsi
Name of place where issued	Haitien Peking Peking "" "" ""
ON Chinese	民熊白庚外北 京生京話申事 京週 選正 建邻學評銀列
NAME OF PUBLICATION Romanised	Ming Seng Yueh Kan Yen Ching Hua Pao Pai Hua Chen Cho Pao Keng Sheng Hsueh Pao Wai Shih Ping Lun The Banker's Weekly Ching Chi Pao

FUKIEN DISTRICT.

NAME OF PUBL	ICATION	Name of	Name	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	place where issued	of Proprietor	of Issue
A. Ordinary: 1. Chinese:				1
Min Pao	閩 報	Foochow	S. Mayeshima	Daily
Foochow Young Men			L. E. M. Lachtin	Fortnightly
fukien Kung Pao			Chang Kuan Ying 張 冠 瀛	Daily
Ming Sheng Pao	民生報		Ts'ao Ju-chi 曹 汝 楫	,,
Fukien Sheng Chiao Yu Hsing Cheng Yüeh			Hsün An Shih Shu Chiao Yu Ke	Monthl y
K'an Fukien Yen Cheng Kung Pao Chien Pao			巡按使公署教 育科編輯處 Yen Yün Shih 鹽運署編輯處 Cheng Tso-shu	,, Dail y
Ch'iu Shih Jik Pao			鄭作樞 Yü Kai-cheng	29
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Fu Pao	復 朝	Chüanchow	陳 鳳 樓 Hsieh Pu-yün	Weekly
Hsin Min Chou Pao	新民週報	,,	謝 步 雲 Fu Wu-sheng	93
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Hua Tung Jih Pao	潛過報	•	高 爱 鱸 Li Tsu-chiao	Daily
Shang Ch'uan Tsung Kung Hui Yüeh K'an			李 祖 覺 Huang Kung-sun	Monthly
Fukien Jih Pao		7. 1	黄 公 孫 Huang Yu-wen	Daily
I Pao	益 朝	Sienyu	黄 有 交 Hsü Cheng-hsiana	Weekly
Chung He Pao	中和朝	Amoy	徐 徵 祥 Shan Sia Chung- tzu-lan	Every 10 days
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FUKIEN DISTRICT (Continued).

NAME OF PUBLI	1	Name of place where	Name of	Frequency	
Romanised	Chine	se	issued	Proprietor	Issue
Ching Hsing Jih Pao	警醒日	1 報	Foochow	Huang Hsi-k'ang	Daily
Chien Tan Jih Pao	諫亶日	3 報	,,,	黄 錫 康 Chang Tien-hui	99
Fukien Chung Pao	福建口	中 報	"	Tseng Hsien 曾 骥	Every 10 days
Lungki Chiao Yü Yüeh K'an		教刊	Changchow	Ch'en Hsin-p'an 陳 辛 槃	Monthly
Ti Pao		報	Sienyu	Ch'en Han-ch'iu 陳翰秋	Weekly
Hsing Hsing Jih Pao	醒醒	日報	Foochow	Wei Chieh 魏 傑	Daily
Min Nan Kung Pao	閩南	公報	Sienyu	Hsü Hsiung 許 雄	Weekly
Ping Pao	平	報	Foochow	Ch'en Yüan-cheng	Daily
Hsin Min Pao	新閩	報	1	陳元正 Wang Pi 王 酮	3.9
Fukien Kang Pao :	福建	綱報		Ch'en Po-hsüan	Daily
Min Sheng Chou Pao	民聲:	週報	Yungchun	陳伯萱 Hsü Chi-fu	Weekly
Li Pai Lu Jih Pao	禮拜六	日報	Foochow	許 信 甫 Huang Ku-ting	٠,
Ai Kuo Jih Pao	愛國	日報	City	黄 鵠 廷 Teng Tang-shih	Daily
Ch'uan Min Hsüeh Sheng	全閩粤	生略	Foochow	部 第 士 Hsieh Hsiang-kao	19
Lien He Hui Jih K'an P'u Tien Hsin Pao				謝 翔 高 Li Tsu-lieh	Weekly
Fukien Kuo Huo Chou Pa	福建	1	Foochow	李 祖 烈 Cheng Kuo-kuang	**
Min Yen Pao	貨器	割割	City	郭 國 光 Fu Chen-ch'ih	29
Fukien Shih Shih Hsir				傅 振 墀 Li Jung-hsüan	Daily
Pao San Min Jih Pao	事	事	Į.	变 榮 烜 Nieh T'ung	39
Fukien Shang Yeh Ts			City	磊 形 Kao Ch'en	Weekly
ChihFukien Yü Lun Pao	業類	自討	5	高 琛 Ch'en Ch'eng-mo	Every othe
	Thin All S	, mm -[]	1	陳 承 謨	day

FUKIEN DISTRICT (Continued).

NAME OF PUBL	ICATION	Name of place where	Name	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	issued	Proprietor	Issue
Shang Wu Chou K'an	商務週刊	Fonchow	Cheng Chiao-shih	Week!y
Pa Min Hsin Pao	八閩新報	,, City	鄭 皇 士 Wang Chieh Yü	Every other day
Min Hsing Pan Chou K'an	閩星半週刊			Every 5 days
Min Hsing Jih K'an	閩星日刊	"	梁 武	Daily
Kung Tao Pao		City	Lyman P. Peet 鹅 履 仁	,,
Min Nan Kung Lun Pao		•	Ch'en Tao Chih 周 消 祇	Every 5 days
Hsin Szu Ch'ao	新思潮	Chaoan	Ch'en Tien Ch'i 陳天 尺	Every 10 days
Hsing Ch'eng Kung Pao	行政公報	Changchow	Fenc Pi Kuan 馮 壁 環	Daily
Ai Kuo Chou K'an	愛國週刊	Chaoan	Wu Hao-sung 吳 鶴 松	Weekly
Fukien Ch'eng Pao	福建誠報	Foochow City	Shih Tzu-ts'a:	Daily
Hsing Shih Jih Pao	醒世日報	,,	Tai Mei-ta	,,,
Ke Hsiao T'ung Su T'an Tsa Chih		,,	戴美打 Ku Ch'uan	½ monthly
Tung Su Wei Sheng	涌 俗 衛	,,,	顧 Ku Ch'i	Monthly
Yüch K'an Fukien Chiao Yü Hsing	福建教育	. ,	平 本 Wang Chen-hsien	,,,
Cheng Yüeh K'an 2. Foreign:	行政月刊		王 振 先	
The Kuliang Register		Kuliang	T. W. Hawley	Weekly

HONAN DISTRICT.

省朝	Kaifeng	P'eng Yü-k'un	Monthly
		彭 玉 崑	
	> >		Daily
門用公報	2.2		29
SE the self		Sun Ling-hsien	**
אנד וול וי ועו	,,	孫 錄 铣	
	河南公報	開封新簡報 "	が ま に

HONAN DISTRICT (Continued).

NAME OF PUBLI	CATION	Name of	Name	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	place where issued	of Proprietor	Issue
Huei Wu Yueh Chih	會務月誌	Kaifeng	Chao Hsi-shih	Monthly
Liang Ho Hsin Wen	雨河新聞	,,	趙 惜 時 Fang Hsin-chi.	Daily
Ta Tung Jih Pao	大同日報	,,	方 新 啓 Chang Kan-chen	,,,
Ho Lo Chou K'an	河洛週刋	Honanfu	张 敢 陳 Hsü Cheng-tseh	Weekly
Ku Shih Hsüeh Sheng Lien Ho Huei Chou K'an	固始學生聯 合 會 週 刊	Kushih, Ho.	徐程則 Pei Ching-seng 裴 姆 僧	"
Lu Teh Huei Lien Ho	路德會連		Rev. O. Espegren	Monthly
Yueh Pao Honan Messenger	台 月 報河南使者報	Weihwei	Rev. Dr. John H. MacVicar.	" "
Chang Teh Chou K'an	彰德週刊	'hangte, Ho.	Chang Hung-jui	Weekly
2. Temporarily suspended			張 鴻 瑞	
Ho Nan Chiao Yü Yuel K'an			Wang Ching-lan 王 静 瀾	Monthly
Cheng Chou Shang Pao	Plus Pro R W.		Shih Yü-lo	Daily
Cheng Su Tung Pao	政俗通報	Kaifeng	石 育 洛 Kuo Liang-han	,,,
Shih Fan Yueh K'an	師範月升	,,	郭 艮 翰 Hsü Tsao	Monthly
Ho Nan Jih Pao	河南日朝	,,	叙 Chu Shao-hsiu	Daily
Hsin Sheng Tsa Chih	心聲雜誌	ŝ .,	朱 名 修 Feng Yu-lan	1 Monthly
Ta Chung Jih Pao	大中日朝	Sinyang	馬 友 闌 Chen Han-feng	Daily
Ho Nan Tung Su Chia Yü Pao	河 南 通 俗 教 青 南		陳翰 芥 Tseng Chao-hsing 曾昭星	Every 10 days
Hsin Ho Nan	新河南	,,	Ho Pin	1 Monthly
Ho Nan Hsüeh Shen Lien Ho Huei Cho K'an Ho Nan Sheng Li Ti Sa Shih Fan Hsüeh Hsia Chou K'an	四河南學 牛 聯 一河南 曾 週 省 電 河 第 三 節	Sinyang	Ho Shih-ming 賀士明 Ma Chi-wu 馬輯五	Weekly

HONAN DISTRICT (Continued).

NAME OF PUBLI	CATION	Name of place where	Name of	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	issued	Proprietor	Issue
2. Temporarily suspended (continued):				-
Chio Shan Wu Jih Hsin Wen	日新聞		Liu Shih-lien 劉士廉	Every 5 days
Chung Yüan Tung Hsin.			Chen Yu-pi 陳右弼	Daily
Chung Yüan Jih Pao	中原日報	>>	Chao Chiu-fan 趙 秋 帆	90

HUNAN DISTRICT.

Chiao Yu Tsa Chih	敎	育雜	誌	Changsha	符	定		Monthly
Ta Kung Pao	大	公	報	>>	孪	昌	嶽	Daily
The Chinese Evangelical Magazine	福	音	報	Shenchowfu				Monthly
The Technical Magazine	湖業	南雜	質誌	Changsha	成		嶙	,,
Hunan Jih Pao	湖	南日	報	>>	伍	丰	門	Daily
Ti-yu Chow Pao	風曲	育週	報	>>	黄		醒	2*
Changsha Young Men	長	沙青	年	77	楊	嘉	炯	Weekly
Heng Pao	衡		報	Hengchowfu	謝		平	Daily
Tung Su Chiao Yu Pao	通	俗教育	報	Changteh	楊	師	譲	Every 3 days
Hsiang-nan Hsueh Sheng Lien Ho Huei Chow Kan	湖合	南學4 會 週	聯判	Hengchowfu	譚	步	崑	Weekly
Chu Pao	楚		報	Changsha	蕭	野	嗚	Daily

HUPEH DISTRICT.

NAME OF PUBLI	CATION	Name of	Name of Proprietor	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	issued	or Editor	of Issue
Central China Post	英文楚報	Hankow	John Archibald	Daily
Kuo-mm Hsin Pao	國民新報	,,	Li Chieh-lo 空 實 羅	**
Hupeh Kung Pao	湖北公報	Wuchang	Hupeh Kung Pao	37
Hankow Chung Hsi Pao.	漢口中西報	Hankow	湖北 公報 局 Yang Huan-an	"
Hupeh Tungsu Chiao Yu Pao	The state of the s	Wuchang	移 幻 菴 Yeh Kai-yin 葉 開 寅	Weekly
Hankow Sin Wen Pao	漢口新聞報	Hankow	Feng Chu-sun	Daily
Ta Han Pao	大 漢 報	,,	風 竹 落 Hu Shih-an	>>
Hankow Jih Pao	漢口日報	,,	初 石 庵 Yang Huan-an	"
Sin Yi Pao "The Lutheran"	And to the	**	楊 幻 菴 Rev. E. N. Edwins	Weekly
Hsing Chuan Lu	行 傳 錄	99	Mrs. A. Allum	Monthly
Hankow Jih Jih Sir Wen She		,,,	Pengchien Wenyen 本 間 文 彦	Daily
Chung Hua Sheng Kung Hwei Pao		Wuchang	S. C. Hwang 黄端·蔣	Bi-weekly
Hankow Kung Lün Jil Pao	= 0 mm ulist?	Hankow	Wang Tao To 王 道 鐸	Daily
Hu Kwang Sin Pao	湖廣新報	27	Shih Chüan-chieh	99
Ta Lu Pao	漢口大陸報	Hankow	笹川潔 Chang Yün-yuen	Daily
Chung Hua Ta Hsüeh	武昌中華大學週刊	Wuchang	張 雲 淵 Chen Shih	Weekly
Chün Pao	充 率 報	Puchi	Chen Wen-chun	
Cheng Yi Pao	正 義 報	Hankow	陳文均 Wan Yin-tsün	Daily
	1		萬 蔭 羣,	

HUPEH DISTRICT (Continuea).

		ı		
NAME OF PUBLIC	CATION	Name of place where	Name of Proprietor	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	issued	or Editor	of Issue
Fu Te Weekly	輔德週刊	Hankow	Tse Tsing Liu	Weekly
The Student's Weekly	聖保羅 學生 週 刋	99	劉子敬 Fang Shan-cheng 方善徵	27
Jih Yao Sin Wen	日曜新聞報	23	Tang Huan-ching	3 9
I sieh Chin Chow Pao	協進週報	Wuchang	唐 室 卿 Yü Shang Yuan	>>
King Sha Jih Pao	荆沙日報	Shasi	余上次 Ma Teh-san	Daily
Ta Chung Kwo Jih Pao	大中國日報	Hankow	Wang Yuen-lieh	92
Wu Han Shang Pao	武漢商報	>>	王元 烈 Hwang Ju-chien	>9
Han Kiang Pai Hua Jih	200	>>	黄 汝 悲 Teng Po-wen 鄧 博 文	99
Hing Hua Shih Yeh Pao	興華質業報	99	Ma I-liang	Monthly
Y. M. C. A. Weekly	青年會週刊	79	馬 一 艮 Li Hsi-kuang 李 錫 光	Weekly
	KANSU	DISTRIC	т.	
Kansu Cheng Pao	甘肅政報	Lanchow	甘肅政務廳長	Daily
Tung Shu Jih Pao	通俗日報	39	甘肅政務廳長	99
	KIANGS	l DISTRIC	et.	
Kiongsi Tih Tih Kwan	1			
Kiangsi Jih Jih Kwan- pao (Name changed into Min-Pao on 1/1/17)	江西日日官	Nanchang	Lu Cheng-hsien	Daily
Ta Kiang Jih-pao	大江 日報	**	虚 正 先 Sung Yü-te	99
Kiangsi Hsin Pao	江西新報	>>	宋 方 德 Wan Ti-shan	,,
Tsai Cheng Kung-pao	財政公報	,,	Tsai Cheng Ting 江西財政廳	Quarterly

NAME OF PUBLI	САТ	TION		Name of	Name of	Frequency
Romanised	C	Chines	e	place where issued	Proprietor	of Issue
Chiao Yü Tsa Chih	教	育 雜	誌	Nanchang	Chiao Yu Hui	Monthly
Kiangsi Kao Teng Shen Pan Ting Yüeh Chi	江西	5高等 廳 日	審	,,	江西教育會 Kao Teng Shen Pan Ting	>>
Ching Wu Kung-pao		*		***	8	Every 3 days
Cheng I Pao	Œ	義	報	,,	江西警務處 Tsou Yen-ying	Daily
Min To Jih Pao	民釗	選 日	報	22	W 产 瑩 Yang Sheng-wu	"
Hsin Shih Chieh Pao	新!	世界	報	. 22	楊 繩 武 Tsao Kung-tu 曹 公 度	,,
Chung Yung Jih Pao	中月	庸 日	報	,,	Yang Chih-cheng 楊 志 誠	,,
Chiao Yü Hsing Cheng Yüeh Pao	教了	育行	政	>>	Chiao Yü Ting 教育廳	Monthly
Kuang Pao		74 17	報	. ,,	Tu Shu-lin 涂 樹 霖	Daily
Kiang Sheng Jih Pao	江县	聲 日	報	,,	Jao Ju-yung 饒汝庸	,,
Tung Su Chiang Kao	通句	谷 講	稿	,,	Chiao Yü Ting 教育廳	Quarterly
Nanchang Chiao Yü Chou Pao		昌 教 超 報		"	Nanchang Chüan Hsüeh So	Weekly
Wei Yen Jih Pao	微言	言日	報	Kanchow Ki	南昌勸學所 Liu Ta	Daily
Hsüeh Chih Yüeh Kan	學多	殖 月	刋	Nanchang		,,
Kiangsi Jih Ch'ao	江	西 日	抄	,,	王 易 Lu Cheng-wan	,,
					凝 振 萬	

KIANGSU DISTRICT

Kung Tao Pao	公	道	報	Nanking.	徐	梓	庵	Every Tuesday &
Tzu-yu-hsün-pao	自	由旬	報	"	李	嘉		Friday Every ten days.

North China Star.

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And Supreme Court and Consular Gazette

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Total number of subscribers covered by the above newspapers, excluding frees and vouchers

5,321

May 5, 1921.

G. H. W N. THOMSON, Chartered Accountants.

North-China Daily News and Herald Ltd., Shanghai,

NAME OF PUBLIC.	ΑT	ION		Name of		Nam	e	Frequency
Romanised		Chinese	2	place where issued	Pr	of oprie	or	of Issue
Chung-chêng-pao	H	Œ	報	Nanking.	蔣	奎	芳	Every two Weeks.
Nanking Kao-shih-jih-k'an	南	京高升	師	,,	劉	伯	明	Daily
Nanking Voice	寧	聲	報	,,	魏	列	紹	Twice in a week
Chinan Weekly Nan-fang-jih-pao Ta-chiang-nan-jih-pao Li-yen	南	南 遇 方 日 江南日	刊報報言	;; ;; ;;	許王王葛	民馥潤宗	一芝身衡	Weekly Daily
Ning-pao Hsing-chung-hua Hsin-cheng-wên	寧新新	中政	報報華聞	;; ;; ;;	王達于方	家劍偉	福峯文海	2 22 12 23
Ta-chung-hua Tzu-ch'iang-jih-pao Chêng-yen-pao Ta-kung-pao	自正大	中强言公	華報報報	Chinkiang.	陳張柳吳	時定肇東	 种一慶市	12
Soochow Jih-pao Su-hsing-jih-pao P'ing-chiang-jih-pao Wu-shêng	蘇平吳		報報報聲	Soochow.	石陳黃邵	秦 頌維	球出差祭	;; 4 ;;
Wu-yü Su-pao Tung-wu-jih-pao Chêng-ta-jih-pao	蘇東正	吳日	語報報報	;; ;; ;;	馬王劉孫	千隆宗鴻	単藩漢定	?? ?? ??
Wu - hsien - shih-hsiang-kung- pao		縣市公報	鄉	"	顏	布	鲁	,,
hsün Hsüeh-hsiao-hsin-wên Hsin-wu-hsi Hsi-pao Yüeh-k'an T'ung-su-pao	學新錫	一		Wusih.	王楊楊錢唐吳	朝衞少湘閏孝	陽玉雲伯生侯	Monthly ,, Daily ,, Monthly Weckly
T'ung-su-i-pao Hsiao-yüeh-k'an Ch'i-ming-tsa-chih	淮江通小座	揚商 腸商 腎 胃 が 用 が の に の の に の の に の に の に の の に る に 。 に る に る に る に る に る に る に る に 。 に る に る に る に る に る に る に る に る に る に 。 に る に る に 。 。 に 。 に 。 に 。 。	報報報刊	;; ;; ;;	陳王陳張陳	子臣漢邦嘯鐘	公朔輔賢慶凡	Daily Monthly
Kiangyin Jih-pao	T	险日	型	Kiangyin.	鄭許	和葆	煦誠	Daily 3 Monthly

Romanised		~~~~	1		Name of		Nam of	е	Frequency
		Ch	ines	e	place where issued	Pi	roprie	etor	of Issue
Fu-yen-hsün-k'an	輔	延	旬	刋	Kiangyin.	李	國	華	Every 10
Min-pao	民			報	,,	奠	3E	童	days Daily
*	江	磬	旬	刊	,,	楊	儿鷺	油	Every 10
						120	420.3		days
Lan-yen-jih-pao	134:1	言	B	報	Changehow Ku	余	亮	澄	Daily
Hsin-pao Changchow Jih-pao	143/ 6	.trr	P-9	報	"	胡	angul	畏	"
Shang-pao	常商	州	H	報	,,	揮	T	戊嚴	"
Chèng-I-jih-pao.	画正	誼	B	報報	"	許干	指守	經經	"
Sheng-chung-pao		un E		報	22	張	一芸	定	,,
Yü-yang-jih-pao	慮	陽	日	報	Changshu Ku	部	THE STATE OF	朝	,,
Tzu-yu-jih-pao		由	H	報	,,	程	兆	翔	* 9
Changshu Jih-pao		熟	H	報	,,	瞢	该	人	11
I-chiu-chou-pao Hsin-chu-yen-jih-pao		九	週	報		葉	瑞	庭	Weekly Daily
Hsin-chu-yen-jih-pao Sha-chou-chou-k'an	初沙	第三洲				周	起	之	Weekly
Jo-ch'ao	1	en	週	刊潮	Jukao	江季	源	楫標	Monthly
Ihing Ti-fang-kung-pao	宜	興	圳	方		7374	似下	行行	2
	11	公	報	/ 3	Ihing	储	īfi	强	Every 5 days
Ihing-chou-pao	1.5.6.	興	週	報	,,	任	艮	才	Weekly
Ching-ju				孺	Tangkiacha	馬	眉	白	,,
Wen-ming-chou-k'an Hsin-li-yang				刑	Kiangyen	錢	等	樵	"
Hsin-li-yang Ti-I-nü-hsiao-chou-k'an	164.8	V	栗	陽塔	Liyang Ku	王	撰	曾	٠,
211 III IIIIII OIII II III III	第	訓	女刊	校	,,	20fe	معر	v=100	,,
I-chih-chou-k'an	益	智	调	刑	,,	沈方	宗伯	頭超	,,
Nantung Times	南	3	前	報	Tungchow	張	孝	心若	Bi-daily
Tzu-lang-sheng-pao	紫	琅	聲	報	,,	王	鳳	廛	Every 5 days
l-hsüeh-yen-chiu-hui-hui-pao.	醫								35 (1)
Hsüeh-sheng-hsün-pao	1701	會	報		,,	湯	銘	新	Monthly Every 10
Hsüeh-sheng-hsün-pao	學	生	旬	報	,,,	宋	止	余	days
Ching-shen-yüeh-pao	糕	面拍	月	報	,,	陳	延	祥	Monthly
Pan _z yüeh-pao	华		1	報	,,	方	Will.	潭	1 Monthly
		生		刋	27	張	師	湛	Every 10
7	3								days
I ung-yen-pao	1613	E		報		馮	爾	24.	Every 3 days
Ta-chiang-tung-pao		I		報		張木	人	偉	Bi-daily
Chêng-su-pao	11.	47		報		李何	录社	地文	Every 5 days
Min-ming-paoYu-yen-pao		III.	항	報報		李	秀	义安	Weekly

NAME OF PUBLICATION		Name of	Name	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	place where issued	Proprietor	issued
Nung-pao Fu-nü-p'ing-lun Tanyang Chou-k'an	農女評論	Taihing Tungli Ku Tanyang	聞 念 侶 則	Every-6 days Monthly Weekly

SHANGHAI DISTRICT.

1.—Foreign.

NAME OF PUBLICATION	Name of place where issued	Name of Proprictor or Editor	Frequency of Issue
Shanghai Mercury	Shanghai	J. D. Clark	Daily
L'Echo de Chine	,,	M. E. J. Benoit	,,
North China Daily News	,,	O. M. Green	,,
Chanabai Timas		Editor.	
Shanghai Times		E A. Nottingham H. Webb	,,
The China 11035	,,	Editor.	"
Shanghai Gazette	**	T. H. Lee Editor.	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,
Shanghai Life	,,,	G. H. Zahn	Twice a week
Commercial News	>>	Geo. T. Lloyd	**
Celestial Empire	**	J. D. Clark Editor.	Weekly
North China Herald	>>	O. M. Green Editor.	,,,
Millard's Review of the Far East	22	J. B. Powell Editor.	"
The American	,,,	F. E. Bible	,,
Lloyd's Weekly		Geo. T. Lloyd	,,
Tung Wen Shang Hai Tung Hsin		Editor. 渡邊天洋	,,
China and Far East Finance and Commerce	,,	E. J. Dingle Editor.	! !
English Weekly		Ying Yu-mu	>>
Journal	,,	Kan Long Foo	1 Monthly
Asiatic Division Outlook		Mrs. C. C. Crisler	,,

SHANGHAI DISTRICT (Foreign) (Continued).

	Name of ace where issued	Name of Proprietor or Editor	Frequency of Issue
The Pearl of the Orient	Shanghai	F. M. Benedicts	1 Monthly
			2 Monthly
Shih Wen Han Shou Chiang I	"	Lu Yu Pa	"
The English Student	,,	Ying Yu-mu	Monthly
Chinese Recorder	,,	G. F. Fitch	,,
		Editor.	
The Chinese Churchmen	,,	Rev. J. W. Nichols	,,
The Far Eastern Review	,,	G. Bronson Rea	,,
The Chine Sunday School Journal		The General Sec-	
The China Sunday School Journal	,,		
		retary, C.S.S.U.	"
The Oriental Motor	,,	Jas L. Butts	>>
Monthly Bulletin of the Education of			
China	,,, e	Rev. J. A. Silsby	,,
The Columbian	,,	Miss Helen Ware	,,
British Chamber of Commerce Journal	,,	E. M. Gull	12
Divisir Chamber of Commerce Souther	,,	Editor.	
C M		E S. Little	
Crescent Magazine	,,		, , ,
Shanghai News Review	,,,	F G. Raven	"
Life in the East	,,	Geo. T. Lloyd	22

SHANGHAI DISTRICT.

2.—Chinese.

NAME OF PUBLICATION		Name of place where	Name of	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	issued	Proprietor	Issue
Shih Shih Hsin Pao Sin Wen Pao Shun Pao Shin Pao Shih Pao Hsun Jao Jih Pao Hsin Shun Pao Chung Wai Tai Shih Hwei Pac Sincere Roof Garden Daily News	新中時神新中 先 州 中 外 彙施 日 大 報樂都	;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;	王曹魏狄余席 兪 周 臺順武初穀了 幼 瘦	
The Universal Gazette The China National News Shanghai Journal of Commerce Ta Kung Pao	國語日幸商	" "	東王湯鄭萬川師萬	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
The Spirit	1	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	To lond in	Every 3 days

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SHANGHAI DISTRICT (Chinese) (Continued).

NAME OF PUBLICATION			Name of place where		Name of	2	Frequency	
Romanised		Chinese	:	issued	Pr	oprie	tor	Issue
The Bankers' Weekly	銀	行週	報	Shanghai	徐	永	祚	Weekly
Kwang Shao Weekly	廣	肇调	報	,,	盧	焊	昌	Weekly
Hsin Tsung Min	新	崇	明	Tsungming	E	紹	成	"
Min Chih Pao		治	報	Shanghai	劉	仁	航	,,
Min Hsin Chow Pao			報	,,	尹	爱	樞	",
Sze Yi Hsun K'an	思	益旬	刋	Taitsang	金	講	函	Every 10 days
Shun Chow To Hsun Pao	神	州鐸旬	報	Shanghai	朱	國	治	22
Kiu Foong Pao	九	峰	報	Sungkiang	葉	子	良	,,
Sungkiang Pao		江	報	,,	蔣	慰	前	,,
Ch'ing I pao		議	報	>>	吳	捐	旭	,,
Sungkiang Hsun K'an	松	江旬	刑	,,	杜	11.	永	,, Ti 10
Shih Yeh Hsun Pao	買	業旬	報	Shanghai	朱	伯	為	Every 10
Hsin Min Pao	2,45	民	報		徐	煌	聲	days
Hsin T'ien Ti Hsun Pao	郊	天地旬		,,	体黄	///////////////////////////////////////	年然	"
T'ien Wen		/ \ J & F)	問問	,,	胡胡	113	蘭	,,
Chio Pao			報	,,	徐	承	禧	,,
Tsingpuhsien Kung Pao		浦縣公		Tsingpu-	नगर	/50	/11/6/2	
				hsien	施	有	恆	4 Monthly
Ch'eng Pao	10/2/4		報	Shanghai		. Les	lie	,,
Nansiang K'ung Yen Pao		翔公言	A-S	Nansiang	許	蘇	民	,,
Ssü Ching	泗	La dett	銳	Szeking	張	錫	鬯	,,
The Eastern Magazine		4-	誌	Shanghai	鮑	咸	昌	,,
The New Woman	- 8	婦趣	女	,,	T	守	吾	,,
Hsin Ch'u Wei Hsin Kun Shan	2	塵崑		"	陳	富	華	
Ko Hsin P'ing Lung		新評		",	胡工		焜恆	
Tung Wen Pao		間	報	,,	土吳	板	橋	
Hsiao Shuo Yueh Pao		說月	報		飾	成	昌	
Hsun Hsin Pao	。芈	11	報	1	潘	谷	聲	
Chao Yu Tsa Chih	. 教	育雜	正	,,	飾	咸	昌	
Shih Chao Yueh Pao		兆月	報		周	爾	鼎	
Hsun Chao Tsa Chih		教雜	וועני	"	潘	谷	聲	,,
Shen Chow Yi Yah Hsueh Pac	和 不申		樂			P	.7	
77 77 61 11 1)	1.24	學報	-8:11	"	包	識	生	
Fu Nü Shih Pao	Seels	74 .13		1	狄	初	琴日	,,
Ch'u Pan Chia	1	版	界出	,,	鮑	咸	昌山	
The Ladies		> 4			同同		-E	
Hsiao Shuo Shih Pao		-0-0	和報	I The second sec	狄	初	本	-1
ALDERO DALLO DALLA L'UO IIIIIIIII	137		FIX		都	春	重	

SHANGHAI DISTRICT (Chinese) (Continued). *

NAME OF PUBLICA	Name of	Name of	Frequency	
Romanised	Chinese	place where issued	Proprietor	of Issu e
Ko Hsüeh Tsa Chih Hsin Pootung La Jeunesse Illustrated Novel Magazine Association Progress Shang Yeh Tsa Chih Chung Sung Shang Pao Nantao Christian Institute	新青小青商重東誌報步誌報))))))	朱倪陳呂胡楊重少吉家子貽公佐	Monthly ,,
Bulletin	普 益 報商業 月報	,,	麻 錫 男	>> >>
K'an Li Yen Nansiang Pao	月 刊 言報	Taitsang Nansiang	鮑 咸 昌 謀 枅))))
Cantonese Baptist Church Monthly New Education The Chinese Industrial Months	信曾月刊 新教育	Shanghai	褟 良 才 疄	"
ly News	新報黑潮月刊	"	李 映 堂	"
Ch'eng Chi Tsa Chi Shang Hai K'ung Lung Hua Chi Hua Pao The Chinese Druggist Shih Chüeh Yueh K'an	成績雜記 上海 養 畫 雜 誌	;; ;; ;;	姚渡錢克黄 海天 勝))))))
Tsing Chin Yueh K'an T'ung Te I Hsüeh Hsin Jen Yueh K'an Hsüeh Yi	清同新學 月醫月 數	,, ,, ,,	尹江王鮑))))))
Chien Te Ch'u Hsü Hui Yueh K'an The Scientific World Tung Ya P'ing Lung Mei Yü P'ing Min Ming Hsin	利世語 科東美平明 科東美平明	1	楊 楊	
The Pupils' Gazette of Kiatinghsien Kwang Yi Tsa Chih	嘉定小學生		李愼修馮福田	9.9 9.9

KWANGSI DISTRICT.

NAME OF PUBLICA	Name of place where	Name of	Frequency	
Romanised	Chinese	issued	Proprietor	Issue
Liang Chi Yih Pao Ling Piao Jit Pao Kweilin I Yo Chien Pao	嶺表日報		譚 次 仲 度	
Awomin 1 To Omen 1 ao	桂林醫藥	Kweilin	黎肅軍	1 Monthly
Kwangsi Min Pao	西 江 報	Wuchow	魏 文 視區 伯 龍	,,
Kwangsi Shang Pao	救國晨報	,,	朱值平	
Kweilin Hsüeh Shêng Lien Ho	育日報	Nanning	張一氣	>>
Hui Hsün Pao Kuei Shêng Shang Yeh Hsim		Kweilin	張國綱	Every ten days
Pao Kwangsi Shêng Li Ti San Shib	新報廣西省立第	Wuchow	樂警福	Daily
Fan Chou K'an	週 刋 南寧學生聯	Nanning	黄 龍 恩 鍾 韓 祉	,,
Hui Chou Pao	新西江報	W-00 13.1	王 黄 成 新 彭 業	1 Monthly

KWANGTUNG DISTRICT.

Chi Shih Erh Hang	- -				
Shiang Pao	商	報	Canton	Lo Siu-ngo	Daily
Yan Kün Po	權	報	, ,	Cheung Kuo kün	22
Sheung Kün Po	權	報	3.2	Ho Keung	**
Yeung Shing Sun Po 羊	成新	報	, ,	Li Hon-sheng	2.7
On Ngah Shu Kuk Sai 安	雅書	局			
Suet Pin	說	編	,,	Chu Man-piu	,,
Kwongchow Chung廣	州總	商			
Sheung Wui Sun Po @	新	報	• •	Chan Heung-yun	,,
Nam Yueh Yat Po	越日	報	٠,	Li Wui-tsun	,,
Kiao Yuk Kung Po 粒	育公	報	, ,	The Commissioner	Monthly
				of Education.	
Kung Wo Po	和	報	* *	Sung Kwai-tsap	Daily
The New East新		報		Robert E.	,,
				Chambers	
The True Light Monthly	光月	報	* *	Rev. R. E.	Monthly
	/ 4	,,,,		Chambers	

NAME OF PUBLI	CATION	Name of place where	Name of	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	issued	Proprietor	Issue
Kwangtung Kiao Yuk Chap Chi Sunning Chap Chi	育 雜 註	Canton Sunning	Wan Chung-leung Tan Si-chi	Monthly Once in 10 days
Canton's Young Men Wa Kuo Yat PoYeungkong Kung Lun Po	華國日報陽江公論報	,,	S. C. Leung Tan Li-hun Tam Chim-yan	Monthly Daily Once in 3 days
Kuan Li Chu Kung Pao	交通部直轄 廣九鐵路管 理 局 公 報	Canton	Canton-Kowloon Ry. Administration	Once in 10 days
Ta Kung Po Sunning Yat Sun Po Szeyapping Po Yan Yin Po The New News Yueh-lu-tsung-po	新蜜日新報四日一新報日本報報	Sunning Kongmoon Shekki	Lin Li Tam Yuck-yü Lui Yat-sang Cheng Yin-man Lei Kong Hei Canton-Hankow Ry. Co.	Daily ,, ,, ,, Monthly
Tsai Cheng Yueh Han Canton Christian College Student Magazine Yueh Po Yueh Cho Yuel Han	政育學報	,,	Bureau of Finance. Kwan Yan-cho and Chan Chung-wai Lai Chi-tung Salt Gabelle Com-	,, Daily Monthly
Kwangtung Chap Chi Kung Tuk For Kong I	民國函授學校公牘	,,	missioner office Liu Kuan-ch'un Liu Chieh-min	,,
Fatshan Soang Po	華南報	Canton	Chan Kei-shing P. L. Ham Chau Lai-t'ing and Ho Pak-wa	Daily Monthly Weekly
Tsai Sang Po	濟 生 報	"	Wu Tin-man and Wong Tse-cheung	Monthly
The Military Government Gazette	per of the st dill	3.3	The Printing Dept. of the Military Government	Twice a week
Tung Nam Yat Po	文 時 報	"	Wong Hin-chiu Wong Sai-shan	Daily

NAME OF PUBLICATION		Name of	Name	Frequency
Romanised Chinese	I	place where issued	of Proprietor	of Issue
Ling Nan Hsin Pao 嶺南新 Po Chai	報濟	Canton	T. Fujitas Yiu Kung Poa	Daily Monthly
			Luk Tan Lam	
Fatshan San Po佛山新		Fatshan	Li Yuan Kung	Daily
King Wun Po 整 魂 Sze Yap Sang Sheung 四色新角		Chanchuen	Ho Wun-hin Li Po-kung	Monthly
Po	子又	Kongmoon	Weng Kwun-hon	Daily
N.C. Th	報		Wong Chun-ying.	
NYY : DO 1 NYY 11 NY	子	Canton	Wong Chun-ying	Weekly
7-3	報			
(II) 37 D	報	,,	Tang Suk Yü	Daily
3.5 01 70		Yeungkong	Tam Ching Yi	Weekly
Luang Yang Kung Lun				
Po	報	,,	Tam Chim Yan	,,
Chun Tung Po振東	報	Canton	Lau Yin Kung	Daily
	中		77 (11) 77	
Sun Po華新	報	,,	Yung Ting Kung	,,
We can can be were	報	Tsinshan	Ng Chung Chi	,, Weekly
	刊	Canton	Cheng Kin Lu Kwong Lau-chun	Monthly
Tze Lee Po目 理 Sze Yap Tsun To Po 四邑循道	報	Sunwui	Kwan Tze-liang	
Sze Yap Chap Chi 四邑雜	子又	Canton	Leung But-son	Once in 10
四 巴 雅	int's	0.000000		days
Kwok Wha Po	報	.,	Wong Chak-man	Daily
	報	,,	Tsu Tien-shu	,,
TT I OIL TO	報	,,	Tam Chan-yu	,,
	報	,,	Luk Kien-yu	,,
F 4 11-1	報	,,	Kung Wai-sang	,,
	報	,,	Chan Fu-moh	,,
	報	,,	Tang Ching-yat	,,
	報	,,	Li Ming-kuo	,, Weekly
Man Shang Shing Ki Po 民生星期		"	Wu King-ah Shum Ching-low	Daily
the state of the s	報報	,,	Lai Yuan-cheung	,,
	報	22	Wong Fut-nam	,,
and the second s	星	11		,,
12	誌	,,	Tin Tat-yên	Weekly
	. 8	Yeungkong	Tam Chou-fong	2.7
	學			
Weekly 生 週	刋	Canton	Ng Tai-hong	,,
14	政			25
Science Review治 評	論	"	Liang Shao	Monthly

NAME OF PUBLIC	CATION	Name of place where	Name of	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	issued	Proprietor	Issue
Yeungkong Sheung Po	陽江商報	Yeungkong	Leung Chi-hon	Weekly
	民 意 報	Canton	Chung Tin-yu	Daily
The Musical Weekly		,,	Chiu Cho-shek	Weekly
Yueh Shan Sheung Tuan Yueh Po		,,	Tam Hang-po	Monthly
Fahsien Kew Sheung	9	"	Tsui King-wa	Once in 15 days
Magazine The Chiu On Education-	潮安教			days
al Weekly	育週刋	Chaochow	Chan Pak-ling	Weekly
Kwok Men Shih Ip Po		Canton	Ko Lup Kan	,,,
Sun Chow Sheung Po Chun Kwan Girls'		,,	Wong Hien-wun	Daily
Daily	子日報	,,	Wong Chun Kwan	
Chinese Medical Period-	中醫旬刊	"	Li Man-hin	Once in 10
ical	The America		NT (01.1)	days
Kung Lun Weekly		;;	Nga Chik-man	Weekly
Men Ming Po	民 命 報	Taileung	Kan Liu-ching	10 times
Chiu Kuo Chau Po	499 [2] 3 E 4D	Swatow	Kwan Kuo-shih	yearly Weekly
Sung Tak Weekly	救國週報崇德週刊	Canton	Yim Yiu-kung	
The Wai Fung Ten Days	崇德週刊維風雜誌	Canton,	Leung Sheung-yin	Once in 10
Express		* * *	Leang Sheang-ym	days
Kok Wen Pao	覺 魂 報	,,	Au Kin	Daily
Koo Kong Yat Pao	方岡日報	Kongmoon	Wong Keng	,,
Ngoi Kwok Weekly	愛問足期報	Canton	Wong Ling	Weekly
The Quarterly of the	人园生为 TX			
Student Society of	香山中學校			
the Heungshan Middle	校友會季報	Heungshan	Koo Chit	Quarterly
School Chun Kung Ho Pao	直共和報	Canton	Chang Min-chuen	Daily
Chu Kiang Shan Pao	珠汀新報	,,	Wu Chung-jên	,,
Tu Kwong-Yuet Pao	道光 月報	Kungyifow	Lau Yuet-shing	Monthly
Ming Tak Weekly	明德调刋	Canton	Lai Tu Wing	Weekly
Seven One Weekly	七一星期報	,,	Leung Man-chi	,,
Chinese Railway Magazine	路政之研究	,,	Chang Ta-yi	Monthly
Shiuhing-Sikiang Weekly	肇慶西江星期報	Shiuhing	Shek Kang	Weekly
Yao Yien Periodical			Ku Chih	Once in 10
and a ton a critourous	安日刊力	2.7	Tru Ollin	days
Kwang Chao Weekly	廣覺星期報	Kongmoon	Huang Teh-yu	Weekly
Kwangtung Shih Shih			**	-
Hsin Pao	事 新報	Canton	Pee Ping-yi	Daily

NAME OF PUBLIC	ATION	Name of	Name	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	place where issued	of Proprietor	of Issue
The Magazine of the Union of Kiung-A; Students in Canton . The 'People' Self-Enlight	奠崖	Canton	Fung Ho-ching	Half yearly
ening	斯少年日刊 國貨調查表	Swatow Canton	King Hoo-yü Chang Shuen Hu Sze-cheng	Monthly Daily Monthly
Tung Shan Shen Tao i Students Monthly Ta Lin Tung Yih Pao		Canton	Feng Mo-chow Hsü Wai-hsin	Monthly
Kwongtung Pao	東 東 報 報 報	Canton Kongmoon City	Kong Chung Nga	"
Two Kwong Baptist As- 因 sociation Monthly	中會月報	Canton	Chung Tze-liang Tam Hi-tin	Monthly
Men Yin Pao	民 言 報 湯江日報	Yeungkong	Tam Men-sam Tam Chuk-ming	Daily
Tsung Wên Weekly	C 界 旬 刊	. Canton	Chan Shao-shêng Shun Tai-hsien Liang Chih-an	Once in 10 days Once in 10
Mei Chow Middle School	省立梅州中	Kaying	Shun Yi	days
Rwangtung Shih Yeh Pao	廣東學生	Canton	Tsang Tsung-ping	Daily
Union's Weekly 用 The Chao Hsun Medical 训	心 週 報	,,	Mêng Cho-fan	Weekly
Monthly	聲 薬 報 風	Swatow Canton	Yang Hwai-chin Chên Shou-yi Leung Chung-toi	Monthly ,, Weekly
Pui Ching Weekly Froishan Hoian Monthly	计山海曼月報	,,	Chên Hsin kwai	Monthly
Szeyi Kung Pao	9邑星期報	Kongmoon ,, Canton	Ch'ên Shao-hwang Li Ching-tung Mêng Pao-ku	Daily Weekly Monthly
Hsing Chun Monthly Hui Wên Periodical	星群月報	Kungyifow Canton	Chang Cho-min Liao Chan-ta	Once in 10 days
The Students' Weekly	管育 月 刊	Swatow Canton	Lin Po-chü Mo Kung-min Mo Ta-ming	Monthly ,, Weekly
Sunday Review	水息 调 刋	Heungshan	Go Koon Kung Chang Lang-shih	,,

KWEICHOW DISTRICT.

NAME OF PUBLIC	ATION	Name of	Name	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	place where issued	of Proprietor	of Issue
Kweichow Kung Pao The Daily News of Young Kweichow Kweichow Cheng Pao	少年貴州日報	,,	李王 務廳 長	Daily ,. Once in 10
Kweichow Hsuen Sheng Lien	貴州學生聯	,,	張 屏 粗	days Tri-daily
Ho Hui Shan Jih Kan Ta Teh Hsüeh Hiao Hsüeh Sheng Peh Hua Wen Chen Chil. Chen K	達德學校學 生白話文成	,,	學生中年內者輪充	Weekly
Chih Chou Kan	積 週 刊震 東 報		張 伯 休	Daily
	SHANSI	DISTRICT.		
Shansi Kung Pao	晉陽日報 宗聖學報 採州新報	. ,,	劉梁柯喬賈玉	Daily Mouthly Daily ''
Tang Fêng Pao	醒世畫報山西教	Taiyüan ,, ,,	張楊王馬配み鴻甲	,, Half-monthl y
Pao Lai Fu Pao	· 來山山太益警 一來山山太益警 一來山山太益警 一來山山太益警	,, ,, Paotowchen Taiyüan	曾張宋渠劉冀 望奮立不繼學	Daily Monthly ,, Daily
Chih Taiku Weekly Gazette Shansi Commercial Gazette	區行政雜誌 太谷星期報	,, Taiku Taiyüan	李孫 昭國 甲基楝氨	Weekly Half-monthl y
Shansi Chün Shih Tsa Chih.	山西軍	,,	知 陰 遠	
Si Peh Shih Yeh Pao Shansi 1st Normal School	西北實業報	Kweihwa	崔崇斌	Daily
Chuan Chih Hsiao K'an Lan Chih Chou K'an	一師範週刊	Taiyüan Sinchow Sha Tatung Sha	張 直 生 劍 南 春 榮	Half-monthly

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SHANSI DISTRICT (Continued).

NAME OF PUBLICATION		Name of place where	Name of	Frequency	
Romanised	Chinese	issued	Proprietor	Issue	
Kihsien Weekly News Shansi Ch'ing Nien Chiao			喬 子 零	Weekly.	
Yü Tsung T'uan Yüeh K'an Kuo Yü Pao		Taiyüan	劉隆遠		
Kuo Min Shih Fan Chou K'an Sin Nung Chou K'an	國 民 師	"	梁颜繁		

SHANTUNG DISTRICT.

1. Ordinary (Class A) Newspapers.

Shantung Hsueh Sheng Lien 山東學生聯 Ho Hui Hui Kan 合會會刊 Student Gazette of the 山東省立第 Shantung Provincial 1st 一中學校	Tsinan	張	共	昌	Biweekly
Mid. School — 學生週刊 Ta Lu Jih Pao — 大魯日報 Shantung Wai Chiao Yueh 山東外	"	吳羅	騰	华 零	
Tsinan Sheng Yeh Cha Chih 濟 南 商	**	宋	紹	唐	Monthly
業雜誌 Ho Hui Chou Kan 合會週刊	,,	李木	鶴子	卿方	Biweekl y
Pei Chihna Tung Hsin 北支那涌信	27		鴻爾	章松	Daily
Chefoo Daily News	Chefoo	mı	loo () inity J.		Monthly
Chung Sheng Pao 錦 磬 報	"		ullan. 訓	初	Daily
Chefoo Shang Pao 之 果 商 報 Chefoo Jih Pao 之 果 日 報 Kiao Tung Sin Wen 膠 東 新 聞	,,	李桑	循學	芳海	"
Pai Hua Ai Kuo Pao 白話愛國報 The Chien Pao 健報	,,	鄭劉	千振舞	甲燾公	"
Ming Hsing Pao	 Hwanghair u	T	訓紛	初生	Every 10 days
一	H wanghsich	历代	錠	人	12/612 10 (14/8

NAME OF PUBLICATION		Name of place where	Name of	Frequency
Romanised	Chinese	issued	Proprietor	Issue
Mission News	山東省立第	Tsaohsien	Paul Henry Bartel	Weekly
Shantung Provincial Agri- culture College No. 2 Chiao Yu Hui Hsing Chi	二甲種農業學校月刊	Yenchow	王廟	Monthly
Pao	星期報華與週刊	Tsaochow	楊孫西州	
Tung Hsu Chiao Yü Pao	通俗教育報	Pingtu	茶 鵬 素	Weekly

2. Special Marks (Class A) Newspapers.

The Great Democrat	大民=	主 報	Tsinan	克		勞	Daily
Pai Hua Shang Pao	白話下	有報	23	劉	仲	永	"
Hai Tai Hsin Wan	海岱	新聞!	,,	梁	家	義	"
Chang Yen Pao	昌言	報	,,	採		房	1)
Shantung Fa Pao		去報	,,	張	思	緯	"
Chien Pao	簡	報	,,	沈	橋	落	2)
Tsinan Jih Pao		日報	,,	中	西正	樹	29
Chi Mei Pao		幸设	"	魯	兆	德	"
Shangtung Shang Wu Jih	山東	商					
Pao		報	,,	吳	日	儒	,,
Shantung Jih Pao	山東	3 報	,,	汪		加	**
Ta Tung Jih Pao		日報	,,	安	鵬	東	"
Hsin Chi Lu Kung Pao	新齊魯	公報	,,	王	漁	父	**
Shantung Kung Pao	山東石	、報	,,	馬	纺	臣	,,
Shantung Tung Hsu Pai	山東道						
Hua Jih Pao	白話日	報	"	羅	亞	民	"

SHENSI DISTRICT.

Tsin Chung Kung Pao	秦中公	報	Sian 西安	Sun Nai-chün 孫 乃 鈞	Daily
Si Pei Jih Pao	西北日	報	西 安 西 安	Chang Ch'ang-ling 張 長 齡	,,
P'ing Min Jih Pao	平民日	報	Sanyüan 三 原	Chang Yün-cheng 張 雲 程	,,,

SZECHUAN DISTRICT.

NAME OF PUBLICATION	ATION	7			Name of			Frequency
Romanised		Chinese	ese		place where issued	Name of Proprietor)r	of Issue
West China Missionary News					Chengtu	Rev. G. M. Franck.		Monthly
Shang Wu Jih Pao	極	務	Н	紫	Chungking	Chou Wen-ching. 周	周文欽	Daily
Ts'ai Cheng Hui Pien	五	沟	黨	灩	Chengtu	Ts'ai Cheng-ting	財政廳	Monthly
Kuo Min Kung Pao	涵	民	交	兼		Hsiang Tien-hou	向天厚	Daily
La Verite Journal Catholique	玼	軍	SLone	華	Chungking	F. M. J. Gourdon		Every 15
West China Church News Morithly	田	1 皆發	會羅	描	Chengtu	R. J. Davison		$\frac{\mathrm{days}}{\mathrm{Monthly}}$
Chuan Pao	E			教		Chiang Chung-kuan 森中寬	中寬	Daily
Szechuan Lu Hsien Chiao Yü Hui Chiang	1	1	1	1				
NaU.	国	四川瀘縣教育會講稿	中国	青稿	Luchow	Lı Wei	華	Weekly
Szechuan Kung Pao	凹	H	以	载	Chengtu	Liu Yung-nien 2	劉永年	Every 5 days
Chengtu Ch'en Pao	松	禁	直	報		Hsū Chi-ming 徐	徐濟民	Daily
Szechuan Sheng Nung Hui Hui Pao	四河	一台原		兼	,	Chiang Shu-hsiang X	江書群	Monthly
Szechuan Yen Wu Kung Pao	回	川鹽務	務公	泰		Szechuan Yen Yung Shih Shu Chang Chan Ko.	hih	
						四川鹽運使署傷產科	南村	
Hsing Chi Jih Chou Pao	叫	期間	剽	談		Yang Chi-san	楊吉生	Weekly

SZECHUAN DISTRICT (Continued).

					(manufacture)	. (
NAME OF PUBLICATION	ATIO	Z			Name of			Frequency
Romanised		Chi	Chinese		place where issued	Name of Proprietor	orietor	ot Issue
u Wu Jih Pao	兴	7	Ш	辯	Chengtu	Chin Kan-ming	金贛民	Daily
in Chüeh Pao	民	~	比	報	•	Wang Szu-wu	王泗舞	Every 3 days
Hsüeh Tsa Chih	篮	個	雑	45	· ·	Ho Chung-kao	何仲皋	Monthly
ne Weekly Review	函	les.	京	N.		Sun Lu-yü.	孫魯于	Weekly
chou Kan.		川東學生聯合會週刊	新 合 画	過利	Chungking	Chin Yüan-pu.	金元圃	
lengtu Kao Tung Shih Fan Chiao Pa	成者	成都高等師範核報	師範	核報	Chengtu	Chang Feng-k'e.	張鳳翩	,,
ung Nieh Chou Kan	農	継	剽	刑	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Liu Hsi-tsen.	劉錫岑	33
ng Ming Jih Pao	H	出	ш	紫	Chungking	Tien Shu-pu.	田書甫	Daily
ao Peng Yu Yüch Kan	斑	朋	友 月	利	Kiating	Tan Mou-keng.	唐懋廣	Monthly
ing Su Hsun Kan	浬	谷	间	所	Chengtu	Wang Lin	出	Every 10 days
ang Nieh Chou Kan	Н	絲	剽	刑	**	Nieh Yin-chung.	晶英仲	Weekly
nu Chin Jih Pao	供	進	Ш	類	Chungking	Chan Lin-shu.	詹熙樞	Daily
ne Renaissance of Szechuan students	国	III A	學生	湖	Chengtu	Yao I-ching.	姚以敬	Weekly
niang Yüan Jih Kan	H	崇	Ш	刑	Suchow Sze	Chang Chih-chung. 張治中	g. 張沿中	Daily
uan Ch'un Jih Pao	图	藝		兼	Chengtu	Han Hsien,	韓	

YUNNAN DISTRICT.

NAME OF PUBLI	CA'	TION		Name of place where	Name of	Frequency
Romanised		Chinese	:	issued	Proprietor	Issue
Chiao Yü Tsa Chih	敎	育雜	誌	Yünnanfu	Chêng Chung-hsien	Monthly
Kuo Shih Jih Pao	國	是日	報	22	鄭 崇 賢 Pun Po-ying	Daily
I Shêng Pao	義	聲	報	,,	彭伯英 Hui Ta-O	"
Yunnan Kung Pao	雲	南公	報	2.3	惠 大 我 Chêng-wu-t'ing	,,
Tien Sheng Pao		聲	報	,,	政務廳 Hsuing O-shêng	,,
Shih Yeh Chou K'an				,,	熊 碍 生 Hui O-chuen	Weekly
Chung Hua Hsin Pao				,,	惠 我 春 Chên Yu-ping	Daily
Shih Yeh Jih Pao			報	,,	陳 宇 平 Liu Tzu-ching	,,
Shang Chih Tsa Chih				,,	劉 梓 慶 Kung Tzu-chih	Monthly
					襲自知 Chang Tien-fang	Daily
Yunnan Chiu Kuo Jih K'an	國	南日	救刑	,,	張天放	Weekly
Yunnan Hsüeh Shêng Ai Kuo Chou K'an	愛	國週	刋	,,	Yang Nan-chun 楊 藍 春	·
Kung Ho Tien Pao	共	和滇	報	,,	Wu Cheng-po 吳 徵 伯	Daily
Chün Pao Shê	均	報	社	,,	Nieh Shih 話 石	,,
Yunnan Chün Shih Tsa Chih	雲事	南雜	軍誌	,,	Ning Li-t'ai 審 李 泰	Monthly
Yunnan Lu Chün Chou	雲	南	陸	,,	Ning Li-t'ai	Weekly
K'an	車	週	刊		寧 李 泰	

MANCHURI	A DISTRIC	<i>i</i> 1 .	
Shengking Daily News 盛京時幸	Mukden	一宮房	次郎 Daily
Tung San Sheng Kung Pao 東三省公幸	足 ,,	隆	中 "
Fengtien Kung Pao 素 天 乃幸	段 ,,	財政	Bi-daily
Hsing Shih Pai Hua Pao 醒時自話幸		石 鐵	民 Daily
Chi Chang Jih Pao 吉 長 日 耋	R' Kirin	顧植	純 ,,
Kirin Tung Hsu Pao 吉林涌俗幸	B ,,	姚錫	慶 Weekly
Ch'ung Chen Pao 些 直 幸	Ŗ ,,	紀懷	Half-monthly
Kirin Nung Pao 吉 林 農 幸	,,		3 in 1 month
Kirin Commercial News 吉 林 商 幸	设 ,,	劉 文 紹	虞 Daily

MANCHURIA DISTRICT (Continued).

NAME OF PUBLIC	ΑT	ION		Name of place where		Name of		Frequency
Romanised		Chinese	2	issued	P	roprieto	or	Issue
Kirin Kung Ho Sin Pao	吉	林	共					
	和	新	報	Kirin	韓	楚	材	Daily
Tung Su Chiao Yu Pao	通			Tsitsihar	郭	毓	奇	"
Heilungkiang Pao	黑	龍江	報	"	魏	警	鑰	"
Heilungkiang Ching-ch'a-tsa-	黒	龍江	夢		4ds	1.4.	1828	Half-monthly
chih	察	雜	誌山	"	趙	桂	馨小	Daily
Hung Yüan Shang Pao	譚宏	風	報報	,,	張聞	浮 文	生山	,,
Yuan Tung Pao	公遠	遠南東	報報	Harbin	中	星	秦	"
Novosti Jisni	2X	**	丁以	,,	P.	Sheinfe		"
Tung Ya Jih Pao	東	電 日	報	,,	周	祉	民	,,
Harbin Mei Jih Hsin Wen.	哈	阚濱	毎			,,		
	日	新	聞	,,	張	[階]	菴	2.1
Ya Yen Pao	雅	言	報	,,	郭	秉	鈞	,,
	東	陲 商	報	IV an a b a man	王	德	弦	"
Ta Tung Jih Pao	大	東日	報	Kwancheng- tze	劉	鍾	樹	,,
Min Chan Til D	0	d. n	北口		李	(H)	址	,,
Min Sheng Jih Pao Sin Min Jih Pao	民並	生品	報報		子白	佛雲	華深	,,
	新遼	民百恵	報報		孫	頸	俠俠	,,
Ying Shang Jih Pao	还營	帝 日	報	Marrichana	胡	級	蘭	,,
Tung San Sheng Yen Wu		===	省		424	His	LA.	
Kung Pao	- 6-1	務公	報	,,	E	存	倜	Monthly
Suihwa Tung Shu Chiao	2.00	化通	俗	Pehtwan-	劉	振	書	Weekly
Yu Pai Hua Chou K'an.		話	報	Lintze	Kuri	ale	· · · · ·	M (11
Heilungkiang Chiao Yü Hsin	黑	龍江教	育	Tsitsihar	黑	龍		Monthly
Cheng Yueh Kan	行	政月	刋	Kirin	教張	育	廳	Daily
Kirin Jih Pao	古山	林日	報	Changehun	饭張	浩 復	如生	Dany
	國	際協	報	M 1 1		池貞		Weekly
	本北	天燙文		Harbin		野清-	- 郎	Daily
Kitamanshu Ta Chung Pao		滿中	洲報		E	趾	舒	,,
Tung Hsü Pao	涌	俗俗	報	1	孫	斗	山	,,
Chi Tung Hsin Pao	1700	東新	-1-11		齋	籐竹	藏	,,,
Ta Pei Jih Pao		北日	報		亿	/- X	毅	,,
Cheng Shu Jih Pao	1	俗日	報		arres.	航賈朝		,,
Heilungkiang Shih Yeh		龍	江		p-Run	龍江里	4	,,
Kung Pao	200.	業公	報	1	聽	編輯		
Man Mêng Jih Pao	滿	蒙日	報		0.5	邊寅省		"
Shen Yang Kao Teng Shih	2.00	陽高	等和		藩師	陽學		Weekly
Fan Chou K'an	帥	範週	刑刑		即敦	 東	校文	Monthly
Chiao Yü Yüeh K'an				COS 1. 15	10金	子介	火忱	
Pei Chi Jih Pao	北	極日	報	a styping!	TE	N.	1/L	al .

CHAPTER IX.

PRODUCTS-GENERAL, PASTORAL AND AGRICULTURAL.

In the list of native goods that pass through the Maritime Customs for export are included 300 different specifications. Of these, half belong to different products of the country. Hongkong for Customs purposes is reckoned as a foreign port. It serves, however, as a port of redistribution as well for the whole of China. The issue, beginning with 1918, of Trade and Shipping Returns by the Superintendent of Imports and Exports is a valuable addition to statistical knowledge of the distribution of Chinese products and of the imports into the country, 640 articles being listed under Exports. A long standing lacuna in statistical information has thus been eliminated, and the destinations and provenance of many items can now be traced. China can claim close upon 100 products or manufactures that, with the exception of sugar-candy, bed-quilts and safflower, are produced in sufficient quantities to allow severally of an annual consumption outside the place of origin of over £3000 or £4000.

EXPORTS.—The total value of exports abroad of Chinese merchandise in 1919 as recorded in the Customs Returns, was Tls. 630,809,411, equivalent at 6s. 4d.—the average rate of exchange for the year—to £199,756,331. "In sterling" says the Customs Report on the Trade of China, "this represents an advance of 55 per cent. over 1918, of 228 per cent. over the pre-war year 1913; in silver, of 30 per cent. over 1918 and 56 per cent. over 1913; and is far the highest figure recorded in the history of the country. To a very considerable extent, no doubt, this remarkable increase is due to a general rise in prices, but by no means entirely—as will be seen from the following comparison of the quantities of the 10 chief exports in 1913 and 1919:—

		1913	1919
Raw silk	Piculs	149,000	165,000
Seed oils	,,	1,287,000	4,433,000
Beancake	,,,	11,818,000	20,725,000
Beans	99 1	10,325,000	15,119,000
Wheat	,,	1,848,000	4,453,000
Flour	,,,	119,000	2,694,000
Raw cotton	,,	739,000	1,072,000
Sesamum seed	,,	2,035,000	2,838,000
Goat skins	Pieces	7,794,000	13,832,000
Tea	Piculs	1,442,000	690,000

The returns for this division of trade show increase or recovery in all articles of any importance except tea and certain metals, the demand for which ceased with the signing of the Armistice. In other respects the table presents no unusual feature, onless it be the unprecedented exportation of cereals, including over a million piculs of rice, the embargo on which was removed in favour of Japan in order to meet serious shortage in that country caused by excessive exportation and the partial failure of the crop in 1918. Silk and its products remained by far the most valuable of China's exports, raw silk alone representing over 100 million tae's. Next in order of value came seed oils, 46 million; beancake, 44 million; beans, 39 million; cereals (including flour), 36 million; raw cotton, 30 million; skins and hides, 26 million;

seeds and seedcake, 25 million; eggs and egg albumen and yolk, 25 million; tea, 22 million; metals, 22 million; wool, 14 million; sugar, 9 million; frozen and preserved meats, 8 million; cotton goods, $7\frac{1}{2}$ million; coal, 7 million; straw braid, 7 million; tobacco, 7 million; cigarettes, 6 million; groundnuts. 6 million; lard, $4\frac{3}{4}$ million; bristles, $4\frac{3}{4}$ million; fibres, 4 million; chinaware, $3\frac{3}{4}$ million; grasscloth, 3 million."

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS.

(Shown in Production Map, 1913 edition)

ARTICLE	WHERE FROM	ARTICLE	WHERE FROM
Animal Products.		Fibres—cont.	
Furs and Skins of Wild Beasts.	Manchuria, Mongolia, the forests of Nan- shan region, West	Ramie	Szechuan, Kiangsi, and Hupeh. (In Kwangtung the local
	Szechuan, North Szechuan, Kansu, and Shensi.	METALS.	product is made into Grasscloth.)
Skins, Lamb { Wool, Sheep's { Skins, Goat	Mongolia and Tibet chiefly. Mongolia, Chihli,		also Kwangsi and Yunnan.
	Shansi (the best), Szechuan, Kwei- chow and the Yang- tze Valley.	Iron	For foreign export, practically all from Tayeh, Hupeh, but it is found in many
Hides, Cow and Buffalo Horns, Cow	·	Lead	provinces. Chiefly Hunan, also North Yunnan.
and Buffalo Leather	Most parts.	·	Great deposits right across Kweichow.
Bristles	Principally Chihli, Honan, Hupeh, and Szechuan, also the		South Yunnan. Hunan.
Egg Albumen	Liang Kwang. Large Yangtze ports. The Yangtze Valley	Oil-bearing.	
Feathers \ Eggs	and the Kwangtung Delta.	Soya Beans	Manchuria, Honan, Chihli, Shantung, and Central Yang- tze.
CEREALS. (Vide infra.) FIBRES.		Ground-nuts	All parts, except in high regions; Shan- tung (best), mostly
Abutilon Hemp	Hupeh. Almost all parts, but chiefly Hukwang and Liang Kwang		Kwangtung. Chiefly Central Man- churia, Anhui, Kiangsu, Chekiang,
Jute	provinces. Chihli.		and Szechuan. Manchuria, Honan. and developing in Shantung.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS.—contd.

ARTICLE	WHERE FROM	ARTICLE	WHERE FROM
SEEDS.		TIMBER.	
Sundry :-			
	Manchuria, Chihli,	Timber (in-	East and North Man-
	etc.	cluding	churia, the Nanshan
Mustard	Chiefly Mongolia and	Bamboos).	
D 211.	Yunnan.		kiang, South Anhui,
Perilla	Manchuria.		Fukien, South Hunan, North Kwang-
Other Kinds.			tung, South Kiangsi, South Kweichow,
Apricot	Chihli and Shantung.		and Kwangsi.)
	Honan, Hupeh,		87
	Kiangsu, and Che-	SUNDRIES.	
26.1	kiang.	A i a .d	77
Melon	Manchuria, Hupeh,		Kwangsi.
	and the Yangtze Valley.	Cilina-1000	Hupeh and Liang Kwang.
	vaney.	Chinaware	Kiangsi and Kwangsi.
Silk		Coal	Manchuria, Chihli,
			Shansi, Honan, and
White	Chekiang, Kiangsu,	G	Shantung.
37 11	and Kwangtung.	Cotton	Chihli, Honan, Shan-
Yellow	Shantung and Sze-		tung, Hupeh, and
Wild	chuan. South Manchuria,	Fungus	Chekiang. Chungking, Hupeh,
***************************************	Shantung, and Kwei-	8	and Kwangsi.
	chow.	Lily Flowers	Hupeh and Kiangsi.
		Musk	West Szechuan.
TEA.		Nutgalls	Szechuan, Kweichow,
01 1	IT . 1 NT II IT'		Hupeh, and Kwang-
black	Hupeh, North Kiang- si, Hunan, Fukien,	Sugar	si. Liang Kwang.
	and Kwangtung.	Tobacco	Manchuria, Kansu,
Green	Kiangsi, South Anhui,		Hupeh, Kiangsi,
	Chekiang, Fukien,		Fukien, and Liang
	and Kwangtung.		Kwang.

CEREALS.—The export abroad of Cereals is not generally permitted. Rice does not grow much north of 32nd parallel, except in Kiangsu, but it is the staple food south of this. Wheat, Barley, and Millet grow in the drier north, but Wheat also is grown in the south as a secondary crop to Rice. Kaoliang is the staple food in Manchuria. and Maize in North Yunnan and parts of the neighbouring provinces. Oats are found in Mongolia, Kansu, and Kweichow; Rye, only in Kansu.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO EACH PROVINCE.

Province	ARTICLE	PORT OF EXPORT	Remarks
Heilungkiang	Skins (Furs), Fox, Sable, Marmot, etc.	Manchouli (Manchuria).	

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS.—contd.

PROVINCE	ARTICLE	PORT OF EXPORT	REMARKS
KIRIN		Harbin. Suifenho	Chinese Eastern Railway to
	(Sansing.	Vladivostok. Down the Sungari River.
	Cereals (chiefly Wheat), Bran, and Flour	Suifenho Harbin.	Chinese Eastern Railway. Chinese Eastern Railway and to
	Timber { Timber and Firewood		the South. From the Upper Yalu River.
Mongolia, East	Hides, Live Stock,	Harbin.	
Mongolia	Hides	Chinwangtao	
FENGTIEN	Skins (Furs), Dog, Lamb, etc	Antung, Dairen and New-	
	Cereals (Maize, Millet, and Wheat), Sesa- mum and Sundry Seeds (Castor Oil, Pearl Barley, Peril- la, etc.), and Salt	Newchwang.	
	Coal	Dairen and Newchwang.	From the Fushun, Yentai, and Pen- sihu Mines.
	Timber		From the Lower Yalu River.
Kansu	Bristles, Hides, and Skins	Tientsin, Kiao- chao & Han- kow.	
	Goat Skins Coal Soya Beans	Tientsin.	
Снінці	Coal Sesamum Seed Apricot and Melon S e e d s, Bristles, Dates, Jute, and Straw Braid	Tientsin. Hankow. Tientsin.	
	Cotton		From South-west Chihli.
	Ground-nuts		From South-east Chihli.
	Coal	Tientsin and Chinwangtao	From the Kaiping Mines.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS.—contd.

PROVINCE	ARTICLE	PORT OF EXPORT	Remarks
SHANTUNG	Cotton		From North-west Shantung.
	Pongees and Wild Silk	Kiaochao.	From Poshan and Weihsien.
	Glassware, Straw Braid, Wheat, and White and Yellow Silk.		
	Bean Oil, Beancake, Bristles, Dates, Ground-nut Oil, Ground-nuts, and Walnuts	Kiaochao	
	Vermicelli	Chefoo.	Made from Green Beans.
SZECHUAN	Bristles, Feathers, Fungus, Goat Skins, Grasscloth, Hemp, Hides, Ramie, and Turmeric.		All products of the "Red Basin"
	Varnish, Vegetable Tallow, and Yellow		
	Silk	1	From the Western Mountains most-
	Rhubarb White Wax		ly. From North-west Szechuan.
Kweichow	Salt		From Kiating. From North Kwei-
	Wild Silk	Chungking.	chow.
Liner Wrom	Timber		From South Kwei chow border.
HUPEH, WEST	Cotton, Fungus, Hemp, Nutgalls, Varnish, and Vege- table Tallow.	Ichang and Shasi.	
Нирен			
	White Wax, Wood Wood Oil, and Yellow and White Silk		

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS.—contd.

PROVINCE	ARTICLE	PORT OF EXPORT	REMARKS
Hunan	Tea, Fire-crackers, Grass-cloth, Hemp, Lily Flowers, Ramie, Rice, and Wheat.		Keemun Teas.
	Metals: Antimony, Arsenic, Lead, Man- ganese, Realgar, and Zine		From Pingsiang.
Anhui	Feathers, Black and Green Tea, Hides, Rape Seed, Rice, Silk, and Wheat.		
Kiangsi	Coal and Coke	Changsha.	
	Be an s, Camphor, Chinaware, Cotton, Fans, Grasscloth, Groundnuts, Indigo, Melon Seeds, Paper, Ramie, Rice, Sesa- mum Seed, Tea, Timber, Tobacco, and Vegetable Tai-	Kiukiang.	Tea (both Black and Green).
Kiangsu	Broad Beans and Pa-		
	Goat Skins, Hides, and Melon and Sesa- mum Seed	Nanking and Chinkiang.	
	Eggs, Lily Flowers, and Soya Beans	Chinkiang.	
	Ground-nuts	Chinkiang and Shanghai.	
	Cotton, Eggs, Straw Braid, and Wheat	.1	
	Silk	Soochow.	
	Green Tea and Rape Seed		
CHEKIANG	Salt	Ningpo.	
Chamma	ery Products, Mats Matting, Medicines and Rush Hats Cabbages, Hams, Silk		
	and Tobacco		
	Cotton, Green Tea and Paper and Pa	Ningpo.	
	Black and Green Tea Fish, Oranges, Pa	Wenchow.	
	per, Timber, and Tobacco		

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS.—contd.

PROVINCE	ARTICLE	PORT OF EXPORT	REMARKS
FUKIEN	Bamboos, Camphor,	Santuao and	
	Tea Oil, and Timber	Foochow.	
	Paper and Black and	All ports.	
	Green Tea	73	
	Olives and Oranges Lung-ngans		
	Lung-ngans	Amoy.	
	Chinaware, Sugar, and Tobacco	Amoy.	
WANGTUNG	Cassia and Silk		
	Palm-leaf Fans	Lappa and	
	ann-lear rans	Kongmoon.	
	Bamboos, Bamboo-	All ports.	
	ware, and Oranges. Fish and Fishery Pro-	Kowloon Lan-	
	ducts	9 01	
		tow.	
	GrassclothGround-nut Oil and		
	Ground-nuts		
		Pakhoi.	
	Indigo	Swatow and Pakhoi.	
	Eggs, Fire-crackers,		
	Fruits, Paper, and		
	Tobacco	Canton	
	Preserves	Cuitoii.	
	Sugar		
		cept Kong- moon.	
	Tea	All ports, ex-	
		cept Pakhoi.	
HAINAN	Betel-nuts, Galangal, and Pigs	Kiungchow.	
Kwangsi	Ground-nuts, Paper,	All ports.	
	Sugar, and Tobacco.		
	Aniseed and Hides	Nanning and Wuchow.	
	Mouse-deer Skins		
	Hemp, Indigo, Melon	Wuchow:	
	Seeds, Nutgalls, Silk, Tea Oil, Tim-		
	ber, and Wood Oil .		
YUNNAN	Cunao and Tin	Mengtze.	
	Black Tea		
	Nankeens and To-	Szemao. Szemao.	
	bacco Orpiment, Walnuts,	Tengyueh.	

PASTORAL.

The Chinese are agriculturists; pastoral pursuits rank as of entirely secondary importance. Pasture-lands are for the most part those that cannot be put to any other use, such as the slopes of mountains. An exception to this rule is to be found in Central China, where the Yellow River with its floods renders a large tract of land unfit for cultivation. region has become a pasture ground for cattle, with a rapidly increasing market in Shantung province. Shantung cattle, which are derived from Central China, were introduced into foreign markets by the Russian Government, who exported them, via Chefoo, to Port Arthur and Dairen. trade was considerably expanded under the German occupation of Kiaochao, and in 1913 the Leased Territory supplied 37 per cent of China's export of cattle, and 49 per cent of the export of fresh meat, the chief destination being Siberia. It was estimated in 1918 that there were 600,000 head of cattle in Shantung. The largest cattle market is at Tsinan, the daily sales covering from 300 or 400 to 1,000 head. The cattle are for the most part large framed, the ox weighing from 7 to 11½ cwt.; they have a comparatively thin hide. The International Export Co. (British) has established a slaughtering and refrigerating plant at Nanking in connection with the Shantung cattle trade. Cattle-breeding is now receiving the attention of the Chinese Government. Experimental stations for cattle-breeding have been established by the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce: (1) at Shihmenshan, in the valley of the Shaochi Ho, district of Fenyang, Anhui; and (2) near Kalgan. The export of animals is gradually increasing, and in 1913 amounted to £1,016,708. Cattle (£464,981) and pigs (£410,917) accounted for the bulk of this export. Formerly the bulk of the cattle trade was in South China, but the prevalence of disease interfered with the export, which was mainly to the Philippines. The export of Mongolian cattle to Russian territory increased largely as a result of the European war, which also resulted in a very considerable expansion in the export of frozen and preserved meat and game, Great Britain entering the field as a customer. The trade in skins, however, is more considerable and centres mainly in Hankow, cow and buffalo hides (36 per cent), and Tientsin (27 per cent), with Wuchow (Kwangsi) and Kiaochao a long way behind, the chief destinations being France, Germany, Italy and Great Britain. Chinese hides have improved in quality in recent years, and exports have greatly increased. If improved breeds of cattle could be introduced into the Mongolian grasslands and the downs of Yunnan (where the hide trade is showing signs of development) a striking increase in exports would take place. Hankow and Chungking share with Tientsin the major part of the export of goat skins (to the United States), while the latter port is concerned largely with trade in lamb skins, dressed skins of all kinds, kid, lamb and sheep clothing, the furs of the fox, marmot and sable (Hankow claiming the bulk of the trade in raccoon and weasel skins), and the wool of camels, goats and sheep-in these industries acting as the main outlet for Mongolian and The wool resources of the Mongolian and Kokonor Manchurian products. grasslands are almost limitless, and although the staple is poor at present, owing to lack of care of the sheep, which are permitted to wander at will, and are only shorn once a year, the possibilities for the future During the war Chinese wool was used in the manufacture of clothing, having previously been employed only in the carpet trade. If the breed be improved and care taken to avoid the admixture of dirt. the wool trade will make a great advance. Pigs' bristles form an allied trade, which thrives in Manchuria, Chihli, Central and Western China, and in a lesser degree in the south, the chief centres being Tientsin, Chungking and Hankow. China's chief customers are Great Britain, Japan, and the United States, Japan having lately made great efforts to increase her share

in the trade. The prevalence of anthrax has, however, led to restrictions on import to England.

BRISTLES.

An important item in the export trade, but one which has come into disfavour recently on account of the prevalence of anthrax, is bristles. These are derived from Manchuria, where the pigs are associated with spirit distilleries as scavengers, from Chihli, Hunan, Szechuan, and to a lesser extent from Kiangsu and Kwangtung. The Hankow bristles have the best reputation, as Hunan pigs are stall fed and well-conditioned. The best sorting is done at Canton. where the trade was first established. At Chungking the bristle business is now one of the leading industries. The colours are black and white, with a few brown. Bristles are collected in the winter, as in the hot weather they are soft and without the necessary stiffness. China's chief customers are Great Britain, Japan, and the United States.

WOOL.

The wool trade is of old standing, Russia having been a customer of China in Mongolian wool, which was used for padding clothes, for over a century. In the 1870 the United States began to buy Chinese wool for the shawl trade, and shipments have increased to both America and England, until in 1890 the industry had become of considerable impertance. The wool resources of Mongolia and of the Kokonor region are almost limitless, and, although at present the staple is poor, owing to lack of care of the sheep, there are great possibilities for the future. The best grades are now used in the manufacture of clothing. The trade is centred at Tientsin. Record figures were reached in 1919 in the export of Sheep's wool of which 365,826 piculs valued at Hk. Tis. 11,609,979, were exported. The trade collapsed at the end of the year, New York, the chief market being overstocked, while Japan's purchases were reduced and the outlook for the trade appeared gloomy.

Of the part played by Tientsin in these latter industries a Customs

Commissioner says :---

"The hard water at Tientsin gives very unsatisfactory results (in regard to tanning and cleaning), especially in the case of the more delicate skins. Therefore skins in their crude condition and covered by the original pass are carried to the two great tanning centres, Kalgan for goat skins, and Kiaocheng, near Taiyuanfu, for lamb skins. Goat skins after being collected and roughly packed are also conveyed to Kalgan, where they are cleaned, sorted, sewn together into rugs and thus brought down to Tientsin. It may be noted that the sewing up of skins and furs into robes and carosses is effected in the interior, and forms an industry amounting to about £400,000 a year. Wool is brought down roughly packed to Paotowchen, Kalgan and other repacking centres, where it is sorted out, cleaned and properly packed before proceeding to Tientsin. The same happens in the case of bristles, which are brought down, mainly from Manchuria, in their crude state to Fengjunhsien, near Tongshan, to be cleaned, sorted, répacked and sent to Tientsin."

The importation of tanning materials and the chemicals employed in the industry has led to an increase in the number of tanneries in China.

FURS.

In China's fur trade appear the following:—Tiger, leopard, set leopard, wolf, badger, deer, wild cat, squirrel, grey squirrel, ermine, sable, sloth, land otter, sea otter, white fox, red fox, black fox, yellow fox, spotted fox, common fox, marten, marmot, beaver, raccoon, weasel.

AGRICULTURAL.

The Chinese Government is taking practical steps to promote the agricultural interests of the country. Under the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce schools of agriculture have been established, experimental stations started, and regulations dealing with the tea, cotton, silk and sugar industries issued. Among the experimental stations, in addition to those already mentioned, are three for cotton growing at Chengtinghsien, Chihli, Nantungchou, Kiangsu, and Tunghaingchou, Hupeh; one for sugar in Kiangsi and one for general farming at Laianhsien, Anking. Tea bureaux have been established at Hankow, Shanghai and Foochow, and experts are sent to advise planters on their own land. This part of the Ministry's work is centred in the Peking Agricultural Experiment Station.

RICE.

Rice is the staple food of the Chinese. The earliest mention of rice cultivation is connected with China, where about 2800 B.C. the Emperor Chin-Hung established a ceremony in which the sowing of five kinds of grain, one being rice, was the chief observance. The plant is indigenous to China and India. Probably the oldest actual samples of rice are those found by Sir Aurel Stein at Kara-dong (Ancient Khotan), which are supposed to have been engulfed by sand towards the end of the eighth century.

The rice beit in China extends across the country south of the 31st parallel, north of which line climatic conditions do not permit of its growth, except to a small extent in highly irrigated land in Shensi and Kansu. Dry rice is however cultivated in South Manchuria, where the area has shown a remarkable extension during the past ten years, owing to the encouragements given by the Japanese and to the influx of Korean settlers. The only provinces which are able to raise rice for export i.e., export to other provinces (there is no export abroad, but, on the contrary, large quantities are imported annually) are Hunan, Kiangsi, and Anhui; the latter supply the northern provinces and Kwangtung. The production of paddy (or unshelled rice) is estimated at over 50,000,000 tons, producing about 35,000,000 tons of cleaned rice (Vide Imperial Institute Bulletin Vol. XV, No. 2) annually. Tribute rice was sent to Peking under the Manchu dynasty from Anhui, Chekiang, Kiangsu and Shantung, about 100,000 tons going by the ships of the China Merchants Steamship Company and about 20,000 tons by the Grand Canal. Honan, Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi commuted their tribute in grain for a monetary payment.

OTHER GRAINS.

Large numbers of the poorer classes in China, especially in the North, do not consume rice as their staple food, but subsist on the millets, kaoliang and Italian millet, and maize, which are extensively cultivated throughout North China and Manchuria, as well as, in the case of maize, in the hilly regions of the West. The cultivation of wheat has made rapid strides during recent years, and flour is becoming increasingly popular as an article of diet, owing to its cheapness. Wheat is grown as a winter crop in the Yangtze Basin all over North China, and in the three Manchurian provinces. The flour milling industry is becoming one of the most important in the country; there are now upwards of 40 mills in the Yangtze Valley, where the suppression of poppy plantations and the opening up of a market by the construction of the Tsin-Pu Railway have had the effect of encouraging wheat growing. In Manchuria the cultivation of wheat has increased enormously since the coming of the Russians, over 600,000 tons of wheat being raised annually, and 25 flour mills are now in existence. As a consequence of this new development, flour is no longer imported into

China, as was the case only a few years ago; in fact, 160,000 tons were exported abroad, mostly to Great Britain, in 1919.

OPIUM.

Vide Special Chapter.

SILK.

The silk industry of China is reputed to be 4000 or more years old. For 2000 years the country has been noted for its silk. The Chinese are supposed to have guarded their secret until A.D. 419, when a princess who married the chief of Khotan succeeded, at the risk of her life, in carrying away with her seed of the mulberry plant and eggs of the silkworm. In this way originated the silk industry of Central Asia, which in turn supplied Europe with its silk trade and industry. In the sandburied ruins of Dandan-Uiliq Stein (Ancient Khotan) found a painted wooden tablet which, in his opinion, depicted the story of the princess. After having supplied the West with all its silk products, China fifty years ago was still responsible for half the silk trade. It has now to yield pride of place to Japan. The division of the world's raw silk trade during recent years has been as follows:—

Countries.	Percentages.					
	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915	1916.
China	31.2	32.5	31.1	25.9	32.4	27.7
Japan	38.1	39.7	44.3	44.5	48.7	51.9
Western Europe	17.6	18.6	15.5	22.2	14	15.8
Levant and Central Asia	12	8.6	8.4	7.1	4.4	4

At one time Italy alone contributed a quarter of the world's trade in silk, but European crops have been stationary for the last twenty years. Roughly speaking, 68 per cent of China's silk and silk products come from the northern half of the country (including the Yangtze Valley provinces and Chekiang) and 32 per cent from the south.

The Total Export of Silk direct to Foreign Countries for the past ten years is shown in the following Table:—

YEAR	White	Yellow	Re- reeled	Steam Filature	Wild	Co: coons	Waste Silk	Refuse Co- coons	Waste Yarn
1910		Piculs 15,876					Piculs 110,238		Piculs 28
1911 1912	11,869	13,488	15,321	55,416	33,831	20,925	117,937	38,240	144
1913	20,876 11,617	17,633	22,430 20,553	69,541	29,662	25,469	103,113 116,372	26,049	522 488
1914 1915	6,491 6,780	14,659 13,145	9,601 26,029				81,026 117,444		
1916 1918	5,947 4,612		15,461 15,377	68,286	18,682	30,333	138,731 113,992	42,963	1,234
1917	4,159	12,361	15,659	64.187	28,588	32,740	127,890	43,145	828
1919	4,468	18,669	18,331	90,038	33,681	34,726	114,586	30,400	709

Large steam filatures are now found at Canton, Shanghai (10), Hangchow, Soochow, Hankow, Chefoo, Samshui and Chinkiang. With the exception of the products of such mills the silk industry in China is in the hands of the peasantry. As in the case of all other Chinese products,

lack of scientific cultivation and preparation handicaps the industry. Wusieh, in Kiangsu (about half-way between Shanghai and Nanking on the railway), enjoys the reputation of producing the finest white silk in the world, Shaohsing, in Chekiang, is another favoured spot; the rest of the white silk (the tsatlee of the European market) comes from the Yangtze Valley and from Kwangtung. The chief silk district in the Kwangtung province is the district of Shun Tak, 30 miles from Canton. Within an area of 250 square miles there are 180 filatures, each employing from 300 to 500 girls. From six to eight crops a year (between May and November) are produced in this district, the best cocoons coming from Yung Kee. Raw yellow silk is produced in Szechuan, Shantung and Yunnan, the chief places of export through the Customs being Kiaochao, Chungking, Hankow and Tengyueh. Wild silk, the product of a silk-worm fed upon oak leaves, comes mainly from Manchuria and Shantung. It is coarse in comparison with white and yellow silks and is manufactured into the tussahs of commerce. Pongees are also produced from silkworms fed on oak leaves. Wild silk has recently become more popular owing to the adoption of a new process of bleaching which allows the material subsequently to be dyed in the most delicate shades of colour. Wild silk is also considered the best material for aeroplane wings. Waste silk comprises a variety of by-products of the industry, obtained mostly from rejected cocoons. Silk piece goods are handwoven by peasant weavers, mainly in the district where the silk is produced. Hence the numerous varieties, each weaver adopting one particular kind of silk. Kiangsu and Chekiang are the chief provinces for the better kind of piece goods, where between 200 and 200 kinds are made, with Soochow, Wusieh and Nanking, in Kiangsu, Shaohsing and Hangchow, in Chekiang, as the principal centres.

Education in sericulture has been given in China at silk-producing rentres for the last twenty years or more, but always on an inadequate scale. More recently an attempt has been made to impart instruction on scientific lines, and under foreign stimulus pressure is being brought to bear on the Chinese Government to introduce the methods that have led to the marked success of the Japanese industry. The Foreign Silk Association of Shanghai is working to this end; while the Silk Association of America has dispatched representatives to China with a view to bringing home to the silk producer the shortcomings of Chinese silk and Chinese methods of reeling. In China the selection of eggs is left to the farmers, who lack technical knowledge, whereas in Japan, in Italy, and in France this work is done by Government experts. It is estimated that nearly 75 per cent of the Chinese silkworms hatched die before they reach the spinning stage, with the result that while an cunce of good eggs elsewhere will produce from 110 to 133 pounds of cocoons, an ounce of seed eggs in China produces from 15 to 25 pounds. The University of Nanking includes in its courses one on silkworm culture, and in co-operation with the International Committee for the Improvement of Sericulture in China is undertaking comprehensive experiments in mulberry culture. Its collection of silkworm eggs from all the silk-producing districts of China comprised 170 varieties.

The value of the export of silk from China during the four years 1916-19 was as follows:—

1916	1917	. 1918	1919
Hk. Tis.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
90,042,152	88,186,552	87,634,561	113,957,908

The year 1919 (we quote from the Customs Reports) opened with the market still under the depression that immediately followed the Armistice. None of the consuming centres could be tempted to buy in spite of the very low level to which tael prices declined, and in consequence stocks ac-

cumulated here until, with the approach of the China New Year the situation became alarming. Fortunately a temporary loan of Hk. Tls. 1,000,000 granted by the Government helped the filatures to make their usual financial arrangements, and the crisis was averted. The stagnation continued until about the end of March when an extraordinary boom in silk started and resulted in the liquidation of long-held stocks with such rapidity that attention had very quickly to be turned to contracts for the new season's silk for delivery the following June and onwards. The result was that prices were forced up with astonishing rapidity. Best grade steam filatures, which, at the beginning of April, were selling in the neighbourhood of Tls. 750, had by the end of May advanced by well over Tls. 100. This, however, had no restricting influence on demand, and with the new season's cocoons shortly having to be marketed, filatures found themselves faced with comparatively high costs for the coming season, and the prospect of more than the usual irresponsible gambling in cocoons. Unfortunately the cocoon crop. harvested in May and June, proved very poor in quantity and quality, owing partly to over-production stimulated by high prices and partly to unfavourable weather causing disease in the worms. Throughout the remainder of the year demand from consuming centres was well maintained, the outstanding feature being the extraordinary buying capacity of America. Supply lagged behind demand and at the end of the year the prices for best chops steam filatures stood at about Tls. 1,200, showing an advance of nearly Tls. 500 during the twelve months in face of the continually rising exchange. As a matter of interest it may be recorded that the increase in value when expressed in gold was from about U. S. \$6.50 per pound to something like U.S. \$15 for best chops steam filatures—a striking testimony to the increasing popularity of silk fabrics in Europe and America. Taking the year altogether, it was a remarkably good one and for the most part profitable to those interested in it. But the steam filatures, faced with continually advancing prices, had to cover their sales of silk at prices which showed a very meagre return Generally speaking, the quality of the new season's silk showed a considerable falling off.

A large fire in Shanghai in March 1921, destroyed 3,000 bales of steam filature silk.

BEANS AND BEANCAKE.

The phenomenal rise in China's trade in the soya bean has been the chief commercial feature of recent years. Beans and beancake have always been the principal exports from Newchwang, but the trde remained entirely domestic until about 1890, when a few shipments were made to Japan. The traffic quickly increased in volume, and between 1900 and 1907 the annual value of the beans exported abroad was in the neighbourhood of £600,000. In the spring of 1908 a trial consignment of Manchurian beans was sent to England by a Japanese firm; orders immediately followed and the export of beans from China rose in value that year to £1,180,000. In 1909, owing to the failure of the linseed crop in the Argentine and a small cotton seed crop in Egypt, the foreign export was £4,260,000, with an export of beancake valued at £2,500,000, while the total production amounted in value to £9,000,000. An official estimate places the annual yield of beans for the whole of China at 9,000,000 tons.

The Customs Report for 1919 states that: "The export figures of beans show an increase of 46 per cent. over those for 1913. The European market came into full swing again and the agricultural development of Manchuria... has been so great in recent years that the farmers were fully able to cope with all demands. It is estimated that in the last ten years the production of beans has increased 50 per cent. The actual export of these was not very much greater than in 1909, when beans first became prominent

as an article of export, but that of beancake was almost double (75 per cent. ahead of 1913 when the crop was poor) and bean oil has increased about sixteen fold. The manufacture of bean cake and bean oil is now one of the most important industries in China. As regards distribution, Russia has been ousted as the chief customer for beans by Japan, in which country a large proportion is crushed and the oil exported to the United States, the cake being retained for fertilising purposes. The export figures for beancake were 11,818,443 piculs in 1913 and 20,724,769 piculs in 1919, practically the sole importer being Japan, where the farmers were enabled to purchase large stocks owing to the high prices they obtained for rice in 1918. Great Britain, Denmark, and the Dutch Indies are the other chief importers of beans, and the United States, Great Britain and Sweden, of bean oil."

Some particulars of the soya bean (Glycine hispide or Dolichos soja), taken from a monograph of the Maritime Customs, may be given here.*

The soya bean is an annual leguminous plant with stout stems which are nearly erect but have a tendency to climb. The haulms are covered with hairs—which in some varieties are rusty-looking, in others light green—and they bear trifoliate leaves which vary from the darkest to a light shade of green and inconspicuous pale lilac or violet flowers. The plant averages 2 to 3 feet in height, though under the most favourable conditions it may even reach 4 feet and over, and bears pods about 2 inches in length. The number of these borne on each plant depends largely upon climatic conditions; thus in 1908, in the Tiehling district, each plant was reckoned to carry 35-80; in 1909, 40-76; and in 1910, 42-105.

Ten varieties of soya bean are recognized for commercial purposes, while botanical distinctions might call for any number of sub-species from 22 to

50. The varieties are:-

(a) Yellow Bean.

 Pai-mei, or white eyebrow, from the whiteness of the hilum or scar on the saddle marking the point of attachment to the pod.

2. Chin-yüan, or round golden bean.

3. Hei-ch'i, or black navel, from the dark brown hilum.

(b) Green Bean (Ch'ing-tou).

4. With green epidermis and yellow interior.

5. Green inside and out.

- (c) Black Bean (Wu-tou).
 - Ta wu tou, or large black, having black epidermis and green interior.

7. Small black with yellow inside.

8. Pien wu tou, or flat black with yellow inside.

(d) 9. Brown Bean. (e) 10. Mottled Bean.

The last two are grown in Korea, Japan and the Yangtze Valley, but do not appear in Manchuria. The Yellow Bean is the commonest and is found generally throughout Manchuria, the finest crops being raised in the upland country beyond Mukden. The bean has been grown successfully up to the 47th degree of latitude. The black variety grows in the neighbourhood of Liaoyang, and generally south of Mukden; the "white eyebrow" west of Kwanchengtze; and the Green Bean along the coast from the Liaotung Peninsula and in the Yalu basin.

The uses to which the soya bean is put in the Far East are thus enumerated (op. cit.):—

1. As bean sauce, or soy.

2. As Chinese paste (chiang): cheaper than soy.

^{*} The Soya Bean of Manchuria, published by order of the Inspector-General of Customs Special Series, No. 51. 1911.

3. As beancurd and kindred substances.

 The beans are also consumed in the form of flour, as a table vegetable and in soups. In Japan they are used for making confectionery

5. Bean refuse is used as a fertilizer and for fattening pigs.

6. Bean oil is used as an illuminant, a lubricant, and in cooking as a substitute for lard. In South China it is also used for the making of waterproof cloth, paper umbrellas and lanterns, and the oil is also mixed with lacquer for manufacturing varnish and printing ink.

Beancake is used as fodder for animals and as a fertilizer. The following chemical analysis of beancake is given (op. cit., p. 9):—(percentages), Water, 17.71; Oil, 9.60; Albuminoids, 42.16;

Carbo hydrates, 19.43; Fibre, 6.54; Ash, 4.56.

In Europe the beans appear as foodstuff in margarine and mixed with flour and meal. They have even been employed as a substitute for coffee beans, while in Japan a "not very palatable" milk is made from them. Bean oil is used largely for soap and in the manufacture of toilet powders, paint oils, lubrication and lighting oils, as well as of various edible goods. The bean contains about 18 per cent of oil. By the hydraulic-press method from 11 to 12 per cent. of oil is extracted, while by the chemical process (using benzine) 17 per cent. is obtained.

In China the number of oil mills, which are to be found in every town in the bean district, has shown a steady increase. Newchwang claims 1 Japanese hydraulic bean mill, 7 large Chinese steam mills, 5 small oil-motor mills, and 9 crush-stone mills worked by animals; Antung, 12 Chinese crush-stone mills and 1 steam mill; Dairen, 2 large modern mills (hydraulic and

electric) and 40 native mills.

TEA.

The universal beverage of the Chinese, of which the consumption is estimated at 5 lb. per head of the population. According to Bretschneider (Bot. Sin. 1892, ii.) the tea plant appears in the ancient Chinese Dictionary, the Rh-ya, under the name of kia and k'u-tu. He points out that the comparatively modern Chinese character ch'a arose through a confusion with that of t'u somewhere between 202 B.C. and A.D. 25, but that it did not come into general use much before the seventh or eighth century. The earliest use of tea in China is thought to have been as a vegetable relish rather than as a beverage (Watt, The Commercial Products of India); a use to which pickled tea-leaves are put to this day by the Shans and Burmans. Bretschneider mentions that in the Ch'a-pu—a special treatise on tea, published between the tenth and thirteenth centuries—the Emperor Wen-ti (A.D. 589-605) was recommended by a Buddhist priest to drink boiled ming (i.e. tea plant) leaves as a medicine for headache. The habit of drinking a decoction of the specially prepared leaves must be regarded as of comparatively modern origin. In the eighth century we have the first undoubted evidence of tea having become a regular industry, for in the annals of the Ta'ng dynasty we learn of its being subjected to an imperial duty (Watt, op. cit.).

The tea plant grows principally in Hunan, Hupeh, Fukien, Kiangsi, Anhui, Chekiang, Kwangtung and Yunnan, the principal ports of export being Hankow (black tea, and black and green brick tea), Kiukiang and Foochow (black tea), Hangchow, Ningpo, Kiukiang and Santuao (green tea). Tea is black or green according to the method of preparation. It grows in small patches round the homesteads, plantations being practically unknown. The leaves are picked by the members of the family and dried in the sun, being subsequently handed over to the middlemen, who subject

them to the process of firing. In the case of green teas the leaves are roasted almost immediately after they are gathered, and dried off quickly after being rolled into balls by hand and squeezed. There are usually three pickings, early in April, when the young leaves are covered with a whitish down (a limited output known as pekoe); towards the middle of May and again in August. Brick tea is made by pressing the damp tea leaves in a mould in the form of a brick, 8 to 12 inches long, and about 1 inch thick. The industry had its origin in Foochow in the early 'seventies. The trade prospered rapidly, and three factories, equipped with British machinery, were in full operation within a few years. In 1875 6,200,000 lb. of brick tea were exported from Foochow; in 1879 13,700,000 lb. The trade prospered with varying success until 1891, when there was a gradual decline, chiefly due to the transfer, for economical reasons, of the Russian teamarket to the Yangtze River tea marts in the neighbourhood of Kiukiang and Hankow. The Foochow trade soon languished, and all three foreign factories were obliged to close. In 1910 a Chinese company—the Chee Woo Brick Tea Co.-was organized, with a capital of \$150,000. The company purchased the building and machinery of one of the brick tea factories closed some years previously. The company has two brick tea presses in operation during the season. Output in 1914, 1,600,000 lb. Practically all this product was pressed from the dust, only 2,000 lb. of the whole leaf being manufactured into brick form. Tea bricks are packed in bamboo baskets, each basket containing 80 bricks. A brick of tea-dust weighs 40 ozs.; cost of manufacture, 32 cents. A brick of leaf-tea weighs 36 ozs.; cost of manufacture, 48 cents, inclusive of freight to Shanghai, the distributing centre for the product. The factory employs 200 workmen, engaged in day and night shifts, with a daily production of 8000 bricks. Tea-dust used costs \$7 to \$16.80 per picul (133\frac{1}{3} lb.). Russian firms in Hankow, Kiukiang and Foochow manufacture a higher grade of brick tea, composed mainly of the fannings separated from the tea by winnewing together with tea-dust imported from India and Ceylon, hydraulically pressed into bricks.

The different kinds of China tea have been classified as follows by the

late Mr. H. T. Wade, a Shanghai authority :-

Oolong (Foochow)

BLACK TEAS.

(a) Northern. Province. representing one quarter of Keemun Ningchow the total production of the Kiangsi North. Moning Oopacks Oonahms Sungyang Oanfa Liling Yungloutung Tongsan Hupeh. Nipkasee | Hunan. Ichang Wunkai Cheongshukai Lowyong Shuntam (b) Southern. Scented Capers. Congou Scented Orange Pekoe. Panyong Packlum Pouchong. Souchong Fukien. Kooloo. Soomoo Flowery Pekoe. Suey Kuts

Mr. Wade added:—"The fragrance of all scented tea is not natural, but is imparted by firing the leaf with a sort of jasmine flower, called by the Chinese Mok-lee. In inferior teas the scenting flower is strewn over the top of the tea when packed and removed after a day or two. 'Flowery Pekoes are white, velvety tipped teas with no fragrance, and are unfermented. . . . These teas are made only from the earliest buds of young leaves in the Packlum, Chingwo and Panyong districts.'"

GREEN TEAS BLENDS

Province. Sowmee (also known as "Shanghai packed"). Moyune Tienkai Anhui Gunpowder (Siaou Chu=small leaf). Fychow Imperial (Ta Chu = large leaf). Pingsuey Hyson. Young Hyson. Hoochow Chekiang. Hyson Skin. Wenchow Twankay.

Sowmee, the small leaf of country green teas, is primarily not a blend, but it is often mixed up with Pingsuey and Wenchow leaf, recoloured and packed in Shanghai. "Shanghai packed" teas also include Chunmee, Fongmee, Gunpowder, and sometimes Young Hyson. They were instituted as a means of cheapening the cost of country teas by blending, and in order to

find a market for the surplus Chekiang leaf.

The tea trade of China does not keep pace with the world's increasing consumption of tea. In the case of the common black teas India and Ceylon have had little difficulty in capturing the foreign market from China; but the latter, according to one authority, should be able to hold her own in the finer qualities, which so far have not been imitated elsewhere. Chinese methods of cultivation, however, are based on tradition and the needs of the moment; and hitherto have been entirely divorced from scientific knowledge. The attention of the Government is now being directed to an industry which is estimated to give employment to 60,000,000 people. According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, the total yearly output of tea is over two million cases of a value of \$40,000,000.

The first step towards improving the tea industry was taken in 1905, when a committee was sent to India and Ceylon with a view to studying the methods of cultivation and manufacture adopted in those countries. A school was subsequently established at Nanking, and instruction given in scientific tea culture. In 1915 tea investigation bureaux were formed under Government auspices at Hankow, Shanghai, and Foochow; experimental stations were started, one being in the Keemun district in Anhui province; and the policy of subsidizing certain planters who conformed to the methods of culture prescribed by the Ministry of Agrculture was adopted. In the same year a 20 per cent reduction of the export duty on tea

was also carried into effect.

Customs reports state that the quantity of tea exported abroad during 1919 was: green, 249,711 piculs; black, 288,798 piculs. "These figures show a considerable advance over those of 1918, but with that exception are the lowest yet recorded, mainly owing to the elimination of the Russian market. I have been favoured with the following notes on the trade of the 1919-20 season. Kiukiang and Hankow Black Teas.—The season 1919-20 has been nearly as disastrous as that of 1918-19, trade with Russia being still impossible and other markets unable to absorb even a very small crop. Restrictions on shipments to London of China black tea were removed early in 1919, but for consumption in Britain China tea is handicapped by a duty of 1s. per pound, compared with a duty of 10d. per pound on British-grown teas. After constant endeavour on the part of the China Tea Association,

backed by native merchants, the Government took off the export duty on tea for two years from 10th October, 1919. The likin tax was also reduced by half. It is much to be hoped the export duty will not be imposed again and that the whole of the likin tax will be taken off. The lack of demand has led to a further curtailment of supplies, and the prices obtained for the small crop produced have shown considerable losses to growers. The position is most unfortunate, more especially as regards Keemuns-the most popular kind of China tea,—for unless foreign markets are able to pay higher tael prices in the near future, growers will either only prepare teas for the home market or else turn their attention to other kinds of produce. The Keemun crop for export was about 40,000 piculs. The quality was fair, but the make bold and uneven, showing evident want of care in the preparation. Costs up country were on about the same level as the previous season, but the loss to growers is estimated at about Tls. 150,000. The quantity produced from the Ichang district was again negligible, being only 1,000 piculs in all. Ningchow and Moning Teas .- The amount of leaf available for export was small, about 15,000 piculs, but up-country costs were about The quality was fair, but the leaf poor. The the same as last season. estimated loss to growers is about Tls. 80,000. Hunan and Hupeh Teas.-The production for expert was only about 65,000 piculs, quality being average but the make very poor. Most of the leaf appeared to have been picked rather late. The estimated loss to growers is about Tls. 150,000. is still a stock in Hankow of 30,000 piculs of 1918-19 tea and 15,000 piculs of 1919-20 tea, for which at present there is very little demand. Only 3,000 piculs of second crop black tea have been made this season. As in 1918-19, the market for black tea was in Shanghai, and this is likely to remain the centre of the tea trade for North China until Russia once more becomes a buyer. Of the new estates being worked on modern lines, the Ningchow Tea Planting Company produced this season about 70 piculs of fine tea, which sold at Tls. 40 per picul. This estate will come into full bearing (estimated production, 5,000 piculs per season) in about seven to eight years from now. Green Teas.-Production was slightly more than in the previous season-193,000 piculs, against 184,000 piculs in 1918-19. The production of hyson, however, again shows a large falling off-17,500 piculs. compared with 50,000 piculs in the previous season. Even this small supply has proved too much for the consuming markets, and there is a stock in Shanghai of nearly 10,000 piculs, which at present appears to be quite unsaleable. Should, however, there be an increased demand from North Africa, this stock could be converted into teas suitable for that market (namely, gunpowders and Foongmees). The Pingsuey crop was 70,000 piculs, compared with 65,000 piculs in 1918-19. The cost up country was about 20 per cent. cheaper than in 1918, but the quality on the whole was distinctly poor. The export to date to the United States and Canada is slightly in excess of the previous year's figures, but there is still unsold in Shanghai a stock of 10,000 piculs. The market in the United States slumped badly during the latter part of 1918, and up to date it has not recovered, the consequence being that the prices obtained show heavy losses to the growers. The estimated total loss is about Tls. 300,000. The export of green tea to Europe and North Africa has been largely in excess of the previous season (to date 10 million pounds, against 2½ million pounds during 1918-19), but it is to be hoped that the increasing demand in North Africa for green tea will be able to absorb the increased supply. Of the total quantity of tea shipped abroad in 1919, Great Britain took 69,401 piculs of green and 137,-684 picuis of black (both notable advances on the figures of recent years); France, 53,632 piculs of green and 7,808 piculs of black; the United States of America, 72,931 piculs of green and 10,514 piculs of black. a total of over 22.000 piculs of black tea was shipped by land and Pacific ports, of which little, it is to be feared reached its destination.

COTTON.

Cotton.—The cultivation of cotton and the spinning of it into yarn were probably unknown to China until the thirteenth century. dustry to-day is almost coextensive with China Proper, but the plant grows best in the Yangtze delta, in Chekiang, Honan and Hupeh. The native cotton staple is very short, and is only adapted to weft and short-end work; but the introduction of new seed has resulted in the growth of a cotton of longer staple in Manchuria. The average vield per acre is reckoned at 490 pounds of seed cotton, or 176.46 pounds of clean cotton. The Chinese Ministry of Agriculture estimated the average annual production of cotton for the years 1909-11 at 15,680,000 piculs = 933,333 tons, a figure greatly exceeding the highest estimate previously made by foreigners. It is only within the last twenty years that cotton mills have been crected in China, and the impetus to foreign ownership did not come until legitimized by the Chino-Japan Treaty of 1895. The products of China's cetton mills are subjected to an excise duty of 70 Hk. Tl. candareens per picul of yarn, 8 candareens per piece of sheetings, and 10 candareens per piece of drill. Native looms are to be found in most dwellings. According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, only eight provinces in China grow cotton for market purposes. Area devoted to the cotton plant approximately 26,000,000 mow. Annual output should amount to 1,509,000 tons of cotton under proper cultivation. No statistics available of actual output. Six or seven years ago there was a considerable increase in the production. This was stimulated by the high prices then prevailing in the United States and India. Also the Government, anxious to encourage cotton growing instead of opium, officially recognized societies for the study of cotton cultivation. These distributed seeds and appointed agents to teach improved methods. Most recent display of interest was the issue in April, 1915, of regulations providing monetary rewards to encourage cotton growing. The Commercial and Industrial Commission established in 1915 is making a systematic effort to improve the cultivation of cotton. An American cotton growing expert (Mr. H. H. Johnson) was engaged on a three years' contract to assist the Chinese Government. There are four experimental cotton farms-at Tungchow, Wuchang, Chungting Fu (in Honan), and Peking.

During 1919 and 1920 important work in connection with Cotton improvement was done by Mr. John B. Griffing, of Nanking University, who was engaged in the former year jointly by the Cotton Mill Owners' Association and the Cotton Anti-Adulteration Association of Shanghai, to conduct experimental work and propaganda for the improvement of cotton cultivation in China. In company with Dr. O. F. Cook of Washington, D.C., U.S.A. and Professor Reisner of the University of Nanking, he undertook a survey of cotton experiments and cotton problems throughout East, Central and North China. He has introduced a supply of the Trice variety of American cotton-seed. His reports have been published in Millard's Re-

view (January 31 and June 12, 1920) and in pamphlet form.

Raw cotton exported to foreign countries:—1910, 1,484,885 cwt.; 1911, 1,044,935 cwt.; 1912, 959,180 cwt.; 1913, 879,538 cwt.; 1914, 785,362 cwt.; 1915, 867,208 cwt.; 1916, 1,013,199 cwt.; 1917, 991,027; 1918, 1,538,207 cwt.; 1919, 1,276,233 cwt.

Total annual production of the cotton mills in China is 200,000,000 to 250,000,000 pounds of yarn and 50,000,000 to 60,000,000 yards of cloth. Principal kinds of cloth woven are 36 inch 48/48 2.50, 2.85, and 3.00 yard grey sheeting and 30 inch 68/44 or 68/48 2.85 and 3.00 yard drills. One mill in Shanghai has recently begun to weave Canton flannels.

There is no organization among the Chinese cotton mills, and there are no Government industrial statistics. China has to-day about 1,250,000

spindles, and 5,000 power looms, producing 250,000,000 lb. of yarn and 60,000,000 yards of cloth per annum. Practically all the mils run day and right on a 23-hour schedule. Shanghai is the centre of the cotton industry.

The following notes are taken from the 1919 Customs Report:

Raw Cotton.—Exports abroad maintained a fair average in spite of the greatly increased demands of the domestic industry. Of the quantity shipped abroad in 1919-1,072,000 piculs,-Japan took 912,800 and the United States of America 112,000 piculs. Although cotton is grown in no less than 14 of the provinces of China, the important producing areas are at present confined to Chihli, Western Shantung, Honan, Hupeh, Kiangsu, and Chekiang. Hankow, which taps the Hupeh and Honan cotton districts, is a growing centre of the spinning and weaving industry and the main channel of supply for Shanghai and for export. Tientsin, which has 150 weaving establishments and three large modern spinning mills, is shortly to build several more of the latter, and it is anticipated that the cotton area of Chihli and Western Shantung, from which Tientsin derives its supplies, will undergo a very considerable development within the next few years. At present, however, Shanghai overshadows all other centres of the industry and has made remarkable strides during the war period. In 1913 the deliveries of raw cotton in Shanghai were only 614,000 piculs, of which 135,000 piculs came from abroad. In 1919 this total had increased to 1,333,000 piculs, imported by steamer, junk, and rail, 205,000 piculs coming from foreign countries. 700,000 picu's were exported from Shanghai, and the balance—633,000 piculs-presumably represents the consumption of the Shanghai mills.

The overseas export of cotton from all ports shows a decrease from 1,292,094 to 1,072,040 piculs—Japan, practically the only customer, having bought largely in other markets. The exports of yarn, however, show an increase—from 27,745 to 67,203 piculs. An interesting sign of the times is the shipment of 13,000 piculs to Great Britain. There can be little doubt but that the production of raw cotton is increasing in China, as the shipments at ports of origin, which were only 953,000 piculs in 1913, had increased to 2,185,000 piculs in 1918. The slight decrease to 2,022,000 piculs in 1919 may be attributed to increased local consumption. A recent writer states that an increase of 250,000 spindles may be expected in the near future, and to provide for these production must be further extended. It is to be hoped that the attempts being made by the Cotton Association to improve the quality of cotton may meet with better success than in the past, and that the efforts of such an enlightened official as the present Governor of Shansi to extend cultivation may cause others to emulate his example. Recent estimates of China's total production vary from 10,000,000 to 12,-000,000 piculs, a figure which places her third on the list of cotton-producing countries. In view of the world-wide demand, reflected in the unprecedented prices now paid for raw cotton, China is now in a position to take advantage of these favourable circumstances and to become a formidable com-

petitor of her rivals.

SESAMUM.

Recent years have witnessed a great advance in the export of sesamum seed, which is grown largely in Honan, owing to the facilities afforded by the Peking-Hankow Railway. Nine-tenths of the trade before the war was with Europe (Netherlands, Germany, Italy, Austria, Belgium), where the seed is used for making the finest lucca oil. Exports:—1910, 162,545 tons; 1911, 123,397 tons; 1912, 119,034 tons; 1913, 121,110 tons; 1914, 74,475 tons; 1915, 137,155 tons; 1916, 92,744 tons; 1917, 13,285 tons; 1918, 15,828 tons; 1919, 32,252 tons. Both Manchuria and Kiangsu contribute their quota to the export trade, while the seed is grown in smaller

quantities in most parts of the country, the area under cultivation becoming

extended with a view to meeting the European demand.

"The quantity exported during 1919 was 2,838,504 piculs, as compared with 223,200 piculs in 1917 and 234,103 piculs in 1918. This figure can only be regarded as a recovery from war conditions, which had effectually put a stop to shipments to the Netherlands, Germany, and France-up to 1914 the principal consumers of this article. In 1910 export had risen to 2,730,763 piculs—the average for the 1909-13 quiquennium being over 2 million piculs. With the cessation of hostilities, the market for sesamum seed, together with all other oil seeds, was bound to be among the first to recover, the demand being accentuated during the war and only the difficulties of transport having kept the export to such low proportions. The year 1913 could be taken as an average year for export of seeds, which amounted to about 120,000 tons, and this figure would probably have again been reached in 1914 were it not for the complete stoppage of all trade during the last four months. After the first shock of war, business was again organised to meet the prevailing conditions and a normal export was possible, but after this year-and particularly in 1917 and 1918-the submarine warfare and its effect on shipping made itself felt, particularly with such bulky cargo as sesamum seed. There were practically no shipments to Europe, and Japan was the only outlet. As soon as the Chinese planters realised that the export business had to stop, they at once reduced the area under cultivation, which would even have been smaller than it was had there not been a few optimists who believed that the then existing stagnation had to be followed by a very large demand, and took the opportunity of the prevailing depressed market to lay in stocks for storage in China to be shipped as soon as shipping conditions altered. Though this appeared to be a very large risk, as sesamum seed is liable to deterioration through long storage, especially in such a climate as this, yet in spite of various expenses in maintaining the seed in as good a condition as possible, and in spite of a naturally resulting loss in weight, their foresight has been crowned with success. In spite of the rise in exchange in 1919 and the competition from India, which market did not suffer so much from this effect, both tael and sterling prices rose very considerably and it became once more very profitable for the Chinese to extend their areas under cultivation. The first flush of replacing the depleted stocks in Europe having now passed, there is a temporary lull, whilst so many countries have still to put their factories and business on a sound basis again, but we fully expect there will be no retrogression in this trade and that the figures of pre-war days should easily be maintained, if not surpassed. The future for this article, as one of the principal exports from China, should be most promising, provided both growers and dealers can be induced to pay serious attention to the cultivation and preparation for export and successfully resist the temptation to adulterate." *

VEGETABLE OILS.

Oils (apart from bean oil and oils essential) obtained from ground-nuts, tea, wood, etc., are made throughout the country, and some 40 Customs ports share in the trade. The chief ports concerned are Hankow, Kiaochao, Shanghai, and Changsha. Manchuria supplies bean, ground-nut, and castor oil; Kwangtung and Kwangsi, ground-nut, tea, and wood oil, while all kinds come from the Yangtze Valley. The amount exported in recent years has been:—

1917 1918 1919 2,932,629 piculs 3,651,511 piculs 4,577,739 piculs (Tls. 29,721,732) (Tls. 41,019,563) (Tls. 46,876,171)

^{*} Customs Trade Report, 1919.

Nine-tenths of the wood-oil exported from China is made from the t'ung-yu shu (tung-oil tree), mainly in Central and Western China, the remainder from the mu-yu shu (wood-oil tree), in Kwangsi. Both trees are varieties of Aleurites, a small genus of the Spurge family. Tung-yu is used largely in China as a paint oil for outdoor purposes, also as an adulterant in the manufacture of lacquer varnish. The so-called Chinese or Indian ink is made from the soot obtained from burning the oil or the fruit husks of the tree. Szechuan, Kweichow, Hunan, and northern Hupeh account

for practically all the output of tung-vu oil.

The export of groundnut oil rose to the quite unprecedented figures of 1,224,173 piculs, valued at Hk. Tls. 13,949,441, in 1919 the leading customers, Japan and the United States, having largely increased their purchases. The latter country only began to take this oil in 1916. The chief feature of this development is the great increase in the oil-producing capacity of Tsingtao, but there has been a general increase at all the ports in the groundnut-growing districts. The trade in sesamum seed oil, although not important, shows an increase from 20,622 piculs in 1918 to 37,755 piculs, valued at IIk. Tls. 438.326, in 1919, which indicates that it is progressive. The United States is again a new factor in this trade.

Wood oil shows another record figure—613,455 piculs, valued at Hk. Tls. 7,960,968—and represents a 25 per cent. increase on the 1918 figures, which were slightly larger than those for 1913. The chief feature in regard to this item is the appearance of Canada as a large purchaser, with 128,793 piculs. Wood oil is now shipped in barrels to the Pacific Coast where it is discharged direct into tanks, thereby greatly minimising the risk of loss.

TOBACCO.

With the exception of Kiangsu, Honan and Chihli, the tobacco plant is cultivated in marketable quantities in every province of China, and figures in the exports of 40 out of 48 Customs stations. The Amoy district is estimated to produce about one-tenth of all the tobacco grown in China. Tobacco is said to have been first introduced into China from the Philippines about 1620. Smoking is now more universal even than the cultivation of the tobacco plant, which, it may be added, is being grown in some places as a substitute for the prohibited poppy. Original export from the various Customs districts in piculs:

1917	1918	1919
223,626	253,655	443,036

FIBRES.

The fibres known to China are coir, hemp, jute and ramie, but it is probable that the bulk of the exports figuring under the four headings should all be grouped under the first and last only. Ramie, known also as China-grass (Boehmeria nivea), grows mainly in Hupeh, Szechuan and Kwangtung. Hemp (Cannabis sativa) is found more widely distributed; in Kiangsi it is harvested three times a year, in June, August and October. Jute comes from Chihli.

The following are the exports in piculs for 1918-19:—	
1918	1919
Coir 15,558	14,696
Hemp 148,634	101,196
Jute 84,702	79,512

210,941

Ramie

VEGETABLE WAX OR TALLOW.

These are distinct products, derived respectively from "a tree in the Rhus order, probably Rhus succedanea," and from the tallow tree, Stillingia sebifera. Of the former the Hankow Commissioner of Customs writes (1909):—"The wax-like substance is formed between the kernel and the outer skin of the seed, and in its crude form is of a greenish tinge. . . . It is harder and more wax-like than vegetable tallow, and its melting point is higher." The tallow tree grows in Hupeh and Chekiang, the product being found in the form of a coating round the seed. Movement of vegetable tallow through the Customs: 1918, 162,881 piculs (Hk. Tls. 2,123,869); 1919, 164,544 piculs (Tls. Hk. 1,979,333).

Reference may here be made to the white wax industry which flourishes especially in Szechuan. The wax insects are brought in baskets from the Kienchang valley, south of the Ta-tu, to the neighbourhood of Kiating, where they are placed on dwarf ash trees. On these the insects cover

themselves and the branches with a thick coating of wax.

GROUND NUTS (PEA-NUTS.)

The trade in this commodity has also received considerable impetus in recent years by the growth of the demand on the Continent of Europe. Ground-nuts, which are found in nearly every part of China, contain 46 per cent. of oil. Shantung and Kiangsu were formerly the chief producing provinces, but Chihli has now outstripped the later. In 1919 the Customs handled 1.302,269 piculs (valued at Hk. Tls. 5,850,337.) The ground-nuts grown in the Luanchou district (Luan River) are said to be superior in quality to any grown elsewhere in the Far East. "When the fruit begins to develop, the plant tends downwards and thrusts its fruit into the ground, where the nut matures: hence the name."

CAMPHOR.

With the cession of Formosa to Japan, China lost her main camphor-producing centre. An attempt was made, consequently, to exploit camphor on the mainland, chiefly in the province of Fukien and also in Kwangsi and Yunnan. The industry reached its high-water mark in 1907, but the rapid destruction of the trees on the part of the Chinese camphor-distiller, without any attempt to replant, has accelerated the extinction of the trade. The Chinese method of distillation is most primitive, the oil often being subjected to sixteen or seventeen distillations before all the camphor is extracted. The export of camphor from China during recent years has been as follows:—

1918 1919 5,742 piculs (Hk. Tls. 428,074) 23,093 piculs (Hk. Tls. 1,595,313)

MEDICINES AND ALLIED PRODUCTS.

The Medicines and Allied products of China include:— Alum, Aniseed Star, Arsenic, Cassia Lignea, China-root, Galangal, Ginger, Liquorice, Musk, Nutgalls, Oils Essential (Aniseed, Cassia-leaf, etc.), and Rhubarb. Aniseed, star anise (Illicium verum) the oil of which is used in making liqueurs. Anise is produced by distillation from the tree, which is cultivated in S. E. Kwangsi and the neighbouring territory of Tonking, which together possess the world monopoly of this valuable product. Exports are from the Treaty port of Nanning, and there has been a striking increase in the trade of late years. Both the fruit and oil are sent to Hongkong, and thence distributed to Great Britain, the United States and France. Other plants from which essential oils are extracted for export from China are camphor, cassia and peppermint. The camphor

tree occupies a very wide area, but the principal centres of the camphor industry are in Fukien and Kiangsi. The destruction of the tree is necessary for the distillation of the oil, and the once flourishing industry almost came to an end in 1909, through the short-sighted action of its promoters in destroying without replanting. However, the great rise in price in 1919 caused a new and remote field to be opened up, and the exports in 1919 were very large, amounting to 23,093 piculs. In the Shan States of Yunnan province the camphor forests are still almost untouched, and in time these will yield further their supplies. Cassia, from the West River in the two Kwang provinces, is used as a condiment in China and for flavouring liqueurs abroad; 1919 was also a good year for the trade in this article, which is of very old standing. Alum is found in Hunan, Anhui, Kansu, Kwangtung, Fukier, and Chekiang. It is used in bleaching and dyeing, in purifying water, in cement for masonry, in silver and pewter work, and as a medicine. Arsenic, exported from Changsha, Hankow, and Canton, mostly to the northern ports, where it is used in agriculture for the destruction of insect pests, especially those which attack the wild silkworm. Orpiment, a compound of arsenic, is mined in N. W. Yunnan, and used in the manufacture of depilatory soap Cassia Lignea is the bark of the Cinnamomum cassia, stripped off the branches and allowed to lie for a day, during which time it undergoes a kind of fermentation: it is used to flavour medicine and for making incense. China-root is found growing, like a fungus, from the roots of fir trees or in the ground apart from the trees, and appears to be caused by a disease of the root of the Alpinia galanga. Liquorice, a drug of great importance in Chinese pharmacy; the dried roots of Glycyrrhiza glabra and Gl. echinata, grown in Shansi, Kansu and Szechuan. During the later years of the war a keen demand for Chinese liquorice sprang up in the United States, where the root is used to make chewing gum and in the manufacture of tobacco. The exports in 1919 reached 157,383 piculs--more than six times those in 1913. Ginger (Zingeber officinale) is produced chiefly in Kwangtung, and for which Britain is the chief customer, to the value of Hk. Tls. 346,850 (108,812 piculs) was exported in 1919. Musk is the dried secretion of the preputial follicles of a species of antelope, found in Tibet, Annam and Central India; it is used as a medicine, as a perfume and to scent Chinese ink. The chief musk market in the world is at Tachienlu, West Szechuan, the average export of musk from Chungking, the nearest Customs port, being 3000 lb. yearly. Fully half this amount passes through Tachienlu, where the best quality of musk is obtained. A United States Consular Report says: "Most of the musk is sent to France, where it is employed in the manufacture of perfumery. It is not only used for the perfume that bears this name, but is an essential ingredient in all the better classes of perfumery. A large firm in Paris has established a representative at Tachienlu for the sole purpose of buying musk. It is very difficult to obtain pure musk, and every pod has to be carefully examined. Musk has certain radioactive properties that cause the odour of the perfume to be carried through the air in a way that would otherwise be impossible. The radioactive properties of the musk affect most peculiarly the natives who carry it. If it is held close to the body for any length of time, it produces sores that are probably similar in character to those caused by pure radium. The musk deer are becoming more and more scarce each year, and at the present rate of destruction will eventually become extinct. The animal is much smaller than is generally supposed. It is seldom more than 3 feet long and 22 or 23 inches tall." Nutgalls are the oblong, hollow and brittle excrescences produced on the Poison Oak (Sumach Rhus semi-reata) by a small insect which deposits its eggs in the tender shoots. The same tree is used in the manufacture of Chinese varnish. Nutgalls are used chiefly as a dye, but also as a medicine. The European

war gave considerable impetus to the nutgall and indigo industries in view of the check administered to the aniline dye trade, which was mainly in German hands. Old processes, it is reported, are being revived by the Chinese. Rhubarb is the root of the *Rheum officinale* and *Rheum palmatum*, which grows in Chihli, Shensi, Kansu, Hupeh, Szechuan and Tibet: the roots are dug up, when from six to seven years old, in the spring, with the tree in the bud, and again after the seed has ripened; they are then peeled, cut into pieces, bored through the middle, placed on strings and hung up to dry. Safflower, the dried red flowers of the *Carthamus tinctorius*, used as a dye and a tonic, also an ingredient in the manufacture of rouge.

STRAWBRAID.

The manufacture of strawbraid for foreign export is a peasant industry associated mainly with the plain bordering the Yellow River in Western Shantung and Southern Chihli, where a wheat with long straw is grown, but it is also practised in the Yangtze delta. Owing to the defective methods of bleaching employed by the Chinese the strawbraid used to be sent to England to be-rebleached at Luton and re-shipped to the Continent. With the opening of Tsingtao, the strawbraid intended for the Continent came to be shipped direct from that port. After a period of depression during the whole of the war straw braid recovered, in 1919, the position it had attained in 1913, viz., 102,604 piculs were exported, as against 101,037 piculs. The value, however, increased from Hk. Tls. 5,074,043 to Hk. Tls. 7,717,587, but in spite of this, profits made are said to have been very smail. The exports in recent years have been as follows:—

53,338 piculs (Hk. Tls. 4,167,659) 102,604 piculs (Hk. Tls. 7,717,587),

VERMICELLI.

The making of vermicelli and macaroni is another peasant industry. The ingredients are, for the better qualities, wheat flour, rice paste, green beans; and for inferior qualities, sweet potatoes, or kaoliang with a small admixture of beans. Chefoo (Ninghai and Fushun districts), where the green bean, known as lii tou, is used, is the headquarters of the trade, with Hankow, Amoy, and Swatow as other centres. The export in recent years has been as follows:—

1918 1919 182,378 piculs (Hk. Tls. 1,522,564) 184,738 piculs (Hk. Tls. 1,407,210)

SUGAR.

In Kwangtung and Fukien and in Szechuan and Yunnan China would probably be able to produce under proper methods of cultivation and with scientific treatment as much sugar as is required for national consumption. As things are, the country imports ten times the amount that comprises the internal trade, while in Szechuan foreign loaf sugar has been reported to sell as a sweetmeat at five or six cash a lump. Efforts are now being made, however, under official auspices, to improve the position of the industry by the establishment of modern refineries. At Swatow, the chief centre of the sugar industry, the export shows a gradual decrease. Hongkong, with its superior refineries, attracts the raw cane, and the Swatow product is degenerating, but the outbreak of the European War and the consequent dislocation of the world's sugar markets caused a revival in the industry, which reached its high-water mark in 1899. The following figures represent the movement of brown and white sugar through the Customs of the original place of production in cwt.:—

8,884,734 piculs (Hk. Tls. 60,381,794) 5,899,500 piculs (Hk. Tls. 38,158,991)

parative cheapness, the use of wheat flour is becoming as general in China in 1913, Japan taking about 44 per cent. and Siberia about 55 per cent. of the former amount. Besides this, there is a very large interprovincial trade in wheat and flour, and there can be no doubt that, owing to its comas it is in Japan, where the production has increased 54 per cent. in the past 10 years."*

WHEAT.

Wheat, the staple food of the North, as rice is of the South and Middle China, is grown in nearly every province of China, but Manchuria stands first with an estimated production of 10,000,000 bushels annually. An official estimate places the total wheat yield in China at 26 million tons annually; that of Kaoliang at 5 million tons, and other cereals, not including rice and beans (q.v.) at 7 million tons. Movement of flour (Shanghai supplying from 70 to 75 per cent) through Customs stations in piculs.

1918 2,011.899 1919 2,694,271

"The development of wheat cultivation and the attendant increase in the flour-milling industry are a conspicuous feature of the economic history of recent years. Many writers have drawn attention to the wheat-producing potentialities of Manchuria, but less is known of those of North China and the Central Yangtze region. where, however the greatest advance has been made in respect of increased production. To illustrate the change that has taken place no comparison could be more effective than that between the figures of 1913 and those of 1919, when 119,451 and 2,694,271 piculs of flour respectively were exported. Japan and Russta took one-third each of the 1919 export, the remainder being divided between Great Britain, the Philippine Islands, and Hongkong, from which port large quantities are normally sent to French Indo-China. The imports of flour, which were 2,596,821 piculs in 1913, had shrunk to 271,328 piculs in 1919. Of wheat, 4,453,471 piculs were exported abroad in 1919, against 1,848,071 piculs

CHAPTER X.

MINES AND MINERALS.

1. GENERAL STATISTICS.

In order to gain a clear idea of the present condition of the mining industry it is necessary to have some statistics of the mineral production. Unfortunately only for the modern mines are there any figures available; the small mines worked by native methods have very little organisation and do not, as a rule work continuously throughout the year. In many cases even the owners have only a rough idea of what they themselves produce therefore it is impossible for the government to get accurate figures. These mines are however by no means unimportant. Take coal and iron for example. The production from the small mines amounts to 39% of the total for the former and 44%, for the latter; yet these two industries are certainly the most extensively modernised. There are however several ways of making approximate estimates. By calculating from the taxes collected, the number of pits in operation and workmen employed, or the facilities for transport, it is possible to arrive at figures which are at least accurate enough to indicate the order of magnitude. The Geological Survey has been collecting these data ever since its organisation and the most complete figures are those for the year of 1916: (Tables 1 & 2, pp. 158-9).

Adding together the total values in the 2 tables we have approximately 138 million doliars of which nearly one half is coal. Antimony, tungsten, iron and tin are also worth more than 10 million each, but the first two metals enjoyed abnormally high prices that year. Ordinarily iron and tin are the most important. Zinc, lead, mercury, copper, gold and alunite are all worth more than a million, but here again the first 4 metals have an

abnormal value owing to the inflated prices.

It is interesting to compare Chinese production of minerals and metals with that of the whole world. Table 3, (p. 160) gives the estimated figures of world production for 1916 compiled from various sources. The values are given in Chinese dollars to facilitate direct comparison for which

purpose the percentage of Chinese production is also included.

Out of the 32 substances enumerated above 19 are being produced in China. Only antimony and tungsten are over 10%; tin and mercury above 5%; zinc, arsenic, coal, asbestos, magnesite and talc above 1%. Substances of fundamental importance to national industry such as iron, copper, petroleum, and sulphur are very insignificant in amount, whilst phosphates, nitrates and potash so necessary to modern agriculture have not yet been found in any quantity. Again the total value of all mineral products is more than 15 thousand million dollars for the whole world, but only less than 140 million for China, i.e., less than 1%. Compare this percentage with that of the area and population, we see at once that China does not have her proper share, for taking China's area (including Mongolia and Tibet) to be 4 million square miles. it forms about 7% of the world land surface; and the population is nearly if of that of the whole globe. In other words the value of mineral products per square mile of land is about \$27 per annum for the whole world, whilst that for China is only \$3.5. That of course does not mean that China is poorer than the average in mineral resources though the usual notion that China has enormously rich deposits waiting for development is undoubtedly erroneous.

TOTAL PRODUCTION FOR 1916 (METALS) (Gold and Silver in Chinese Ounces or Taels, the rest in Metric Tons).

Tungsten	100	:	:	:	:		1 000	_	: :	: :	;	•	200	:	:	:	:	400	:	:	;	: :	:	:	:	2,000	8,000	3,000 16,000 000
Moly b	::	:	:	:	•	•	:	.2		:	:	:	:	:			:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	63	1,500	3,000
Mercury	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	: :	: :	:	;	3	10,000	:	:	:	N	:	:	10	300	:	:	:		314	4,600	1,444 000
Antimony Mercury	::	:	:	:		:	:			: :	Crude 500	Crude	14,500 Regulus	:	:	:	: 0	200	300	Reguius 400	Crude 300		:			Regulus 10,400 Crude 16,100	1,000	17,665,000
Tin	::	:	:	:	:	:	:	: :		: :		•	300	:	:	:	:	10	350	7,500	:	:	:	:	:	:	1,500	5:6,000 12,240,000 17,665,000 1,444 000
Manga- nese Ore	: :	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		: :	200		008'9	:	:	:	:	3,600	2,000	:		: :	:	:	:	12,930	40	- 1
Iron Ote	72.000	:	:	06 500	90,000	200,000	000 066	4 000	5 500	320	572.000		106,000	3,700	1 200	2000	71,200	1,600	3,000	28.000	000.9	:	:	:		355,750 1,338,520	ræ	\$000,0,68,1
Lon	49 200	:	:	14 400	000 00	69 000	000	1 400	9.600	500	149 000	000,255	35.400	1,200	400	150	23,700	250	1,000	9,300	2 500	:	:	:		355,750	40	14.230,000 1,39,0 000\$
Copper		45	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	: :	6	4		:		5	818	:	:	959	:		:	:	:	1,342	1,000	1,342,000
Zinc	:	: :	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	: :		:	500	3 2 2 4 7	:		150	:	:	200	01	2	: :	:		1,360 27 242	500	1,634 000
Lead	: "	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	. 0	0	500 Ore 9 684	*00'C 310	:	9	100	2	10	800	¥	•	10	:	:	1,441 Ore 9,684	181	403,000
Silver	:	::	:	:	:	*		:	000	2006	:	:	:		: :	:	200	:	8 000	2,600		17 000	2001	:	:	29,200	:	38,000
Gold	1.680	2,000	80,000	2,600	.50	:	:	:		250	: 0	neg	4.440		3,400	3,600	5,630	:	;	089	}	800	200	: :	2,000	108,630	:	5,901,000
Substance	Province: Chihli	Kirin	Amur		Honan	Shausi	Kiangsu	Anhui	Kiangsi	Fukien	Cheklang	Hupeh	Hunan	Character C	Kanen		Szechuan	Kwargtung	V seconds	N. Waligal	I uman	K weichow	Jenoi Choha	Suivijan	Ch'uannien	Total tonnage	Unit Value	Total Value (In Chinese dollars) 5,901,000

& Export only.

TABLE 2.

TOTAL PRODUCTION, 1916 (NON-METALS) MATRIC TONS EXCEPT PETROLEUM.

Substance	Coal	Arsenic Ores	Sulphur	Kaolin	Asbestos	Talc	Dolomite and Magnesite	Alumnite	Gypsum	Gypsum Petroleum
Province:	3,825,000	:	20		100	100	100	•		
	2,733,000	:	:	1,160	300	10,300	7,500	:	:	:
:	31,000	:	:	:	:	:		:	:	:
:	728,000	:	: "	:	:	:	:	:		:
shantung	953.000	:	000		:	:	:	:	:	:
Ionan	1,481,000	:	250	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	1,616,000	:	007	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
niangsu	31,000	:	:	~	:	:	:		:	:
:	170.000	:	∩ 1	~	:	::	:	3,300	:	:
:	1,306,000	:	0	16,000	:	170	:		:	:
ukien	57,000	:	: 1		:	:	:	300	:	:
hekiang	8,000	:	∩ !	~-	:	:	7 600	3,000		:
lupeh	225,000	: 1	J.	:	:	:	000'/		000,72	:
:	750,000	200	150			:	:	200	071	
:	93,000	:	10	•	100	:	:	:	:	2,240
										(barrels)
:	45,000		:	•	:	:	:	:	:	: 6
Turkestan	000'67	30	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	280
Szechuan	1,021,000	20			:	*	:		:	280
wangtung	42,000	:	20		:	:	:	200	:	:
ISDUCA	44,000	:	2		:	:	:	:	:	:
innan	117,000	450	5	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
weichow	88,007	:	2	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	000'69	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
hahar	22,000	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Suivijan	112,000	:		:	:	:::	:	:	:	:
Ch'uanpien	:	:	:	:	:	:		:		:
	15,584,000	1,000	770	~	500	10,520	10,100	16,200	27,120	500
				-						
Unit Value	4	300	44		125	5	עו	62	9	3
300 000 300 000 62 320 000 300 000	000 022 29	200 000	34 000	:	62,000	52,600	50,500	1.010.000	162,000	8 400

Table 3.

World production of minerals and metals, 1916.

				Percentage of
Substance	Tonnage	Unit Value	Total Value	Chinese
				production.
Gold			\$ 941,000,000	0.6
Silver	`	streets.	210,000,000	0.02
Lead	1,200,000	\$ 280	336,000,000	0.6
Zinc Copper	950,000 1,400,000	500 1,000	47 5,000,000 1 ,400,000,000	1. 0.1
Iron	70,000,000	40	2,800,000,000	0.5
Tin	120,000	1,500	170,000,000	7.
Manganese Ore .	1,426,000	40	57,000,000	0.9
Antimony	56,000	1,000	56,000,000	44.
Mercury	3,600	4,600	16,000,000	8.7
Tungsten	20,000	8,000	160,000,000	10.
Coal	1,500,000,000	4	6,000,000,000	1.
Sulphur	850,000	44	37,000,000	0.06
Gypsum	4,800,000	6	25,000,000	0.6
Arsenic (ores)	80,000	300	24,000,000	1.2
Talc	250,000	16	4,000,000	4.
Asbestos	160,000	125	20,000,000	3.
Magnesite	800,000	20	16,000,000	1.2
Petroleum	573,000,000	3	1,539,000,000	0.0005
	barrels			
Platinum	98,000	190	19,000,000	0.
	taels			
Aluminium	178,000	1,280	226,000,000	0.
Nickel	49,000	1,550	77,000,000	0.
Cobalt	400	4,000	16,000,000	?
Chromiun ore	200,000	28	56,000,000	0.
Pyrites	3,145,000	8	25,000,000	?
Potash Salt	11,000,000	9	100,000,000	0.
Phosphates	4,000,000	14	56,000,000	0.
Nitrates	3,200,000	40	252,000,000	?
Graphite	124,000	140	17,000,000	0.
Asphalt and				
Bitumen	1,000,000	11	11,000,000	0.
Mica	7,000	300	2,000,000	?
Precious Stones	-	_	64,000,000	?

Total...\$15,138,000,000

2. MINING CLAIMS.

The so-called "Mining Regulations" of 1914 which have been so much criticised by foreigners are nevertheless the first modern law of the kind promulgated in China that recognised the mining rights as distinguished from the surface rights. From 1914 to August 1920, more than 1,700,000 mow (258,000 acres) have been claimed. The detailed figures are summarised in Table 4 (pp. 162-3).

Of course in China as elsewhere the area of concessions granted does not necessarily have any relation with the extent of mining. If we arrange the various minerals and metals in two orders: one according to the area of concessions granted, and the other the value of total production, we have the following table:—

ssion area.	Order according to value	produced
a in sq. li	Substance: Val	ue in dollars
2,285,759	Coal	62,320,000
297,797	Antimony	17,440,000
205,648	Tungsten	16,000,000
204,759	Iron	15,620,000
44,093	Tin	12,240,000
35,204	Gold	5,901,000
28,704	Zinc	2,314,000
28,222	Mercury	1,444,C00
33,426	Copper	1,342,000
21,241	Lead	1,177,000
	Alunite	1,010,000
	Manganese	516,000
12,555	Magnesite	501,500
	Arsenic	300,000
8,093	Talc	168,000
7,592	Gypsum	162,C00
5,463	Ashestos	62.000
4,018	Silver	38,000
3,500	Petroleum	8,400
2,500	Molybdenum	3,000
2,018		
0,574		
0,011		
	a in sq. li 2,285,759 297,797 205,648 204,759 44,093 35,204 28,704 28,704 28,722 33,426 21,241 15,703 13,500 12,555 10,166 8,093 7,592 5,463 4,018 3,500 2,500 2,018 0,574	a in sq. li Substance : Vala 2,285,759 Coal 297,797 Antimony 205,648 Tungsten 204,759 Iron 44,093 Tin 35,204 Gold 28,704 Zinc 28,222 Mercury 33,426 Copper 21,241 Lead 15,703 Alunite 13,500 Manganese 12,555 Magnesite 10,166 Arsenic 8,093 Talc 7,592 Gypsum 5,463 Asbestos 4,018 Silver 3,500 Petroleum 2,500 Molybdenum 2,018 0,574

Again if we arrange the provinces in a similar way we have another table: -

Order according to area of	concession	Order according to value produced
Province: Area	in sq. li.	Province: · Volue in dollars
Chihli (including Metro-		Hunan 28,815,000
politan district)	692.352	Chihli (including Metro-
Shantung	476.741	politan district) 16,153,000
Mukden	373.167	Yünnan
Shansi	256.241	Kiangsi 13,282,000
Kirin	251.130	Mukden 13,181,000
Jehol	206.611	Shansi 9.235.000
Amur	186.500	Hupeh 7,863,000
Anhui	142.426	Honan 6,512,000
Honan	134.185	Szechuan (including
Yünnan	120.796	Ch'uanpien) 5,741,000

TABLE 4.

MINING AREA CLAIMED, 1914-August, 1920 (in sq. li). *

sten Arsenic			9.405	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	0.574	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	•	5.463 0.574	(Continued on next Page)
Molyb. denum		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	14.270	1.333	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		15.703	ontinue
Anti- mony	•	:	:	:	3.000	:	:	:	:	:	0.315		0.111	:	0.148	23.926	2.093	2.111	0.185	:	3,315	:	:	:	:	:	:	35.204	3)
Man. ganese		: 0	0.937	:	4.852	:		:	:	:	:	:	:	: 1	2.000	12.981	0.870	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	21.241	
Zinc		;	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.315	0.241			0.259	:	:	:	6.278	:	:	:	:	:	:	8.093	2.7 acres
Lead		4.148	3.278	35.223	1.166	:	:	:	:;	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	0.278	:	:	:	:	:		:	:	:		44.093	ual to 10
Tin		•	:		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		16.537	0.278	2.037	1,555	:	8.296	:		:	:	:	:	28.704	nately eq
Iron	1	9.278	47.778	48.168	8.963	•	14.259	:	:	9.722	5,332	31.278	4.629	23.092	1.407	0.296	0.037	:	:	•	:	:	1 407	:	:	:	:	205.648	approxin
Copper		:	2,444	21.888	65.000	:	3.852	2.907	:	:	:			:	3.722		:	:	:	;	100.944	:	:	:	:	:	:	204 759	A square li is approximately equal to 102,7 acres.
Silver		:	2.407	5.148	5.000	:	:	:	:	:										:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	12.555	* A squ
Gold		6.889	15.963	18.166	2.798	179.704	:	0.332	:	:			-						50.332	:	0.537	:	:	:	:	1.815		297.797	
Substance	Province: Metropolitan	district	Chihli	Mukden	Kirin	Amur	Honan	86	Shensi	Kiangsu	Kiangsi	Anhui	Chekiang	Fukien	Hineh	Hinan	Kwanotimo	Kwangsi	Szechuan	Shensi	Yünnan	Kweichow	Kansu	Turkestan	Chahar	Jehol	Suiyüan	Total	

MINING AREA CLAIMED, 1914-August, 1920 (in sq. li). *-Continued.

Total	014 770	977 574	410.116	5/3,16/	251.130	186.500	134,185	476.741	256.241	70.241	48.278	142,426	46,185	35,537	49,648	63.796	3,810	4,140	7000,1000	1.000	29.7.90	0.044	5, 944	7.00.71	7.037	206,611	29.389	3,270.518
Mag. nesite		:	: 0	28.228	:	;	:	:	:	*	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		28.222
Gra. phite		:		0.222	2.2.2	:	:	:	:	:	:		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		2.500
Felspar		:	: 3	2.018	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		2.018
-luorite Kaolin Felspai		:	. (3.500	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		3.500
Fluorite		:	: 1	10.611	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	: 0	2.889	}	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	13 500
Phos. phate		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	4.018	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	4.018
Sulphur		:	: (2.722	:	*	:	:	3.852	:	:	:	:	:	. !	3.407	:	:	:	: 0	0.185	:	:	:	•	:	:	10.166
Talc		:	:	7.555	:	:	:	:		:	:	:	:	0.037	:	:		:	;	:	:	•	:	:	;	:	:	7.592
Baryte		0.011	:	;	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	0.011
Asbes.		936			:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		:	:	:	:	:		1.000	:	:	:	:		3.778		33.426
Coal		292.426	267.241	191.463	136.944	6.796	116.074	473.500	252.389	56.500	42.630	111.166	22 870	10.833	42.370	6.074	:	. 1	15.278		1.240		2.537	: 0	7.037	201.018	29.389	2,285.759
Substance	Province:	Metropolitan district	Chihli	Mukden	Kirin	Amur	Honan	Shantung	Shansi	Kianesu	Kiangsi	Anhui	Chekiang	Fukien	Hupeh	Hunan	Kwangtung	Kwangsi	Szechuan	Shensi	Yünnan	Kweichow	Kansu	Turkestan	Chahar	lehol	Suiyüan	Total

* A square li is approximately equal to 102.7 acres.

Szechuan Hunan Hupeh Kiangsi Chekiang Fukien Suiyüan Kiangsu Chahar Kwangsi Kansu Kwangtung Shensi Kweichow Turkestan	67.352 63.796 49.648 48.278 46.185 35.537 29.389 10.241 7.037 4.148 3.944 3.815 1.000 0	Amur Shantung Kwangtung Kweichow Anhui Kwangsi Chekiang Turkestan Suiyüan Shensi Fukien Jehol Kansu Kirin Kiangsu Chahar	5,712,000 3,903,000 3,775,000 1,974,000 970,000 778,000 479,000 452,000 388,000 363,000 328,000 239,000 160,000 91,000
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In neither table is there any agreement. This is due to several reasons: The statistics of production are for 1916 whilst those of concession area are up-to-date. 2. Some substances such as coal and iron require a much bigger mining area in order to produce the same value. 3. Many large mines such as the Kailan, Fushun, etc. are special concessions granted before the promulgation of the Mining Regulations therefore their mining area does not appear in the above table. 4. Many of the important metal mines such as gold in Amur, copper in Yunnan have a special status. 5. The small native mines have failed to register according to the new law, but some of them, i.e., tin in Yunnan, and mercury in Kweichow constitute the larger proportion of production. The same is applicable also to tungsten. These mines would have come under the law had the authority of the Central Government not been entirely withdrawn as it has been since the revolution of 1917. Ineffective enforcement of the law in the outlying provinces such as Turkestan and Kansu is also apparent. 6. Many concessionaires are holding claims for speculation rather than mining. The case of copper is the most striking.

3. COAL.

No other mineral in China has enjoyed such a reputation as coal, but no reliable estimate of the resources has yet been published. Those made by Drake and Inouye in the "Coal Resources of the World" are in many ways misleading. Ever since its organisation the Geological Survey has paid special attention to the question, but of course the work is far from being completed. In the following table an attempt is made to summarize the results thus far obtained. The kind of coal is indicated by the letters A. B. C according to the international nomenclature adopted in the "Coal Resources of the World," and a depth of 1,000 metres is assumed in calculating the quantity:—

		. Res	serve
Province	Nature	(in millio	ons of tons)
Chihli, including the metropolitan	1		
districts	. A		762
	B & C		1,608
Mukden	. A		35
	B & C		950
Jehol	A		80
0.001	B & C		850
Chahar & Suiyüan		***************************************	150
Chanal & Sulvacil	B & C		310

Shansı	A		2,370
	B & C		3,460
Honan	A	********************	1,385
	В		380
Shantung	A		30
g	В		655
Anhui	A		70
	B		135
Kiangsi	Ā		110
44.001831	B		705
Kiangsu	В & С		190
0	A	/	50
Chekiang		*******	70
TT 1	В		
Hupeh	A	********	70
	В		60
Hunan	A		1,000
	В		600
Szechuan	A		200
	B & C		1 ,300
Shensi	B & C		1,000
Kansu	\mathbf{A}		100
	В		900
Amur	B & C		160
Kirin	B & C	******	160
	B & C & D		1,200
Kweichow	B & C		1,300
Fukien	A		150
999	B & C		500
8	A		200
Kwangtung	B	*********	
	D		100

Total of all provinces A 6,252 B & C & D 17,183

Grand total...23,435

These figures are however extremely conservative. For the first 12 provinces, they represent more or less the actual reserve, whilst those for the other 12 provinces (Hupeh, etc.) are nothing more than guess work based mostly on the distribution of the various coal series. In all cases only seams greater than 1 m. have been taken into account. Probably it is safe to regard all the above tonnage as actual reserve because the last 12 provinces give altogether only 7883 million, scarcely 1/3 of the grand total.

Comparing this with the figures of reserve for the principal coal producing countries given in the "Coal Resources of the World," we see that the actual reserve for the German Empire before the war down to the depth of 1200 m. was 56,889 million tons, and that for Great Britain, down to 4,000 feet and including a foot seams, 135,111 million. The figures for United States were 3,225,394 million tons which must include much that cannot be called actual reserve in the same sense as that for England and Germany, though the reserve of that country is undoubtedly very large as the tonnage exhausted up to 1910 was already 11,220 million tons. These figures are therefore not strictly comparable with those given for China. If we include the smaller seams and increase the depth, it is probable 40—50,000 million tons would be a good figure for the total Chinese coarreserve. Even then it will only form 79% of the reserve of Germany, 33% of that of Great Britain, and rather less than 1.4% of that of the

United States, being only 4 times the coal already exhausted in that country. Another and a far more striking way of realising the magnitude of things is to compare the reserve with the population. Assuming the larger figure, 45,000 million tons, to be more correct, we have a little more than 100 tons per head of population. Now the population of America is roughly 100 million and that of Great Britain 50. Their coal output per annum is on the average 650 and 280 million tons respectively. In round numbers these come to about 6 tons per head of population. If we increase the consumption per capita in China to the same degree, then her coal reserve will only last a little more than 15 years. Of course we have taken the 2 most favoured countries in the world as examples and the result is strikingly in China's disfavour. If on the other hand we take as the standard the present consumption in China which is about 20 million tons per annum then 45,000 million tons will last more than 2000 years! Incidentally therefore it shows how small is the coal consumption in China to-day. Again if we look at the matter from the view point of the countries on the Pacific, we see that China is certainly the only country with respectable resources in coal, for Australia has only 4,000 million; Japan perhaps not any more; and the Pacific Coast of America lacks also the same material. As not only the consumption is bound to increase, but also such increase will be rapid and prolonged, it is safe to predict that the Chinese coal industry will before long become the most important factor in the economic development of the Far East.

According to the figures given in the "Coal Resources of the World," the proportion of the anthracite to bituminous coal for the whole world is about 1:8. It is interesting to notice that this proportion for China is greater than 1:3. Such provinces as Hunan and Honan, which possess considerable resources, have more anthracite than any other coal. In the richest province, Shansi, bituminous coal occupies a greater proportion, but unfortunately it is found in the western, and less accessible part. In Yunnan, Kweichow, Szechuan, Shensi and Kansu bituminous coal predeminates, but owing to the difficulties of communications these provinces will for a long time remain unimportant contributors to the total output. In fact the provinces of Chihli, Mukden, and Shansi in the north, and Kiangsi in the south are the only provinces capable of supplying coal suitable for metallurgical purposes in large quantities. Kiangsu, Anhui and Chekiang have obvious geographical advantages but unfortunately their

reserve is quite small, and the coal is usually of a poorer quality.

Estimates of coal production in the different provinces have already been given. Table 5 (p. 167) gives details of some of the larger producers for which we have more accurate statistics.

Of the mines mentioned in the Table the following were either Sino-Foreign or foreign enterprises:—

Mine.	Nationality. O	utput in 1916.
Kailan	Sino-British	2,853,255
Chinghsing	Sino-German	482,069
Linch'êng	Sino-Belgian	100,508
Fushun	Japanese	2,044,409
Yent'ai	,,	91,645
Pênch'ihu	Sino-Japanese	322,625
Pekin Syndicate	British	506,087
Hungshan	Originally German but now oc-	
	cupied by Japan	360,000

TABLE 5.

COAL MINES (Output).

1917	3.176.469 77.351 435.009 50.000§ 2.311.445 90.000§ 438.009 Stopped 450.000§ 428.064 506.087 340.385 121.823 946.080 145,000§
9161	2,844,610 100,508 482,069 52,385 2,044,409 91,645 322,625 Stopped 360,000 349,242 416,627 154,335 950,000 130,000§
1915	992 992 992 96 96
1914	2,798,932,2,971,7 290,048,259,7 36,282,35,10 3,124,692,169,2,96,815,71,03 3,123,3,123,510,00 248,424,244,8 252,767,425,9 110,00 248,424,244,8 252,767,425,9 129,870,105,30 800,000,927,44 126,411,131,31,3
1913	2,036,9672,7 231,544 298,480 20,556 21,79,2022,0 95,300 245,623 3,043 3,043 3,043 222,000 214,000 250,
1912	1,636,085 259,659 1,471,126 43,104 133,149 3,597 199,000 375,000 256,000 256,000 7,298
Province	Chihli Rengtien Chinli Amur Shantung Honan Chinli Chinl
District	Luanhsien Linch'eng Chinghsing Hsüanhua Fushun Liaoyang Pênch'i Nehkiang Weihsien Tzüch'uan Ihsien Hsiuwu
Ouality of Coal	A B B A A B B C C B B C A B B B B B B B
Name of Mine	Kailan Mining Ad Linch'éng Chingh-ing Chimpshan Fushun Yent ai Pênch ihu Kanho Fangtsü Hungshan Chunghsing Pekin Syndicate Chungwian Linhokou Pinghsiang

It is to be noticed that only 3 mines are working anthracite coal, the great majority are bituminous coal mines.

S. Fetimotod

In addition we have one Sino-foreign and one foreign company for which we have no exact statistics but only estimates:—

Mine.	Nationality.	Output in 1916.
T'unghsing Jolainor	Sino-British Russian	000,000
		Total310,000

The following are the private Chinese mines:-

Hanyehp'ing	992,494
Changyuan	416,627
Chunghsing	349,399
Liuhokou	148,472
Paochin	130,000

Total...2,036.992 tons

Total......176,385 tons

In addition the following are the modern Chinese mines whose output in 1916 did not exceed 100,000 tons:—

Mine	District	Province	Output in 1916
Chengfêng	Chinghsing	Chihli	41,740
Linkiang	Linyü	99	14,957
Yili	Tzuchow	,,	33,667
Chungho	. ,,	j)	., 4,788
Huafêng	Ningyang	Shantung	40,000
Yiho & numerous			
other Cos.	Poshan	,,	250,000
Kwangyi	Yiyang	Honan	60,000
Tayaokou	Chinhsi	Mukden	90,000
Chiawang	T'ungshan	Kiangsu	30,000
P'uyi	Shuhsien	Anhui	36,000
Numerous Cos.	Louyang	Hunan	100,000
		Total	701,152 tons

This together with the 2,036,992 makes the total output for the modern Chinese mines 2,738,144 tons.

The Chinese Government works several coal mines. They are mostly under the control of provincial authorities. Here are the figures of their production in 1916:—

Mine .	District	Province	output in 1916
Tzuhsien	Tzuhsien	Chihli	5,000
T'anshanwan	Tayeh and Yang- hsing	Hupeh	
Yükan	Yükan	Kiangsi	40,000
Fuchuan	Fuchuan	Kwangsi	9,000
Chimingshan	Hsüanhua	Chihli	52,385
J			

Of these only the Hsüanhua mine is a modern one.

Summing up the various figures for 1916 we have the total output of coal distributed as follows:—

Foreign or Sino-foreign Cos. Modern Chinese mines Government mines Native mines	2,738,144 176,385	Percentage 43% 18% 1% 38%
Total	16,003,127	100%

It is interesting to compare these percentages with the conditions prevailing at the present. Whilst no complete statistics for the year 1920 are yet available, reliable estimates for most of the mines can be made:—

		Estimate	d Output	
Mine	Nationality	. for	1920	
P'inghsiang	Chinese		1,000,000	
Chunghsing	,,		700,000	
Chungyüan	,,		460,000	
Linch'eng	,,		200,000	
Paochin	,,		200,000	Total = 3,720,000
Liuhokou	,,		160,000	
All the oth	er			
smaller mo	dern			
mines	,,		1,000,000	
Kailan	Sino-Britis	sh	4,100,000	Total=8,980,000
Fushun	Japanese		3,000,000	
Pekin Syndica	ate British .		600,000	
Tzuchuan &	Wei-			
hsien	Japanese	***************************************	600,000	
Pênchihu	Sino-Japan	nese	460,000	
Jolainor	Russian		220,000	

It is to be noticed that both the Linch'eng and the Chinghsing mines are now Chinese.

Compare these with 1916 :-

				PERCEN	TAGE OF
	OUTE	UT		\mathbf{Total}	OUTPUT
	1916	1920 %	increase	1916	1920
Chinese modern mines	2,738,144	3,720,000	36%	18	19
Foreign or Sino-foreign mines	7,070,598	8,980,000	33%	42	46
Government mines	176,385	780,000	340%	1	4
Native mines	6,018,000	6,020,000		39	31
Total Output	16,003,127	19,500,000	26%		

The great increase for the Government mines is due to the taking over of the German mine at Chinghsing by the Chinese Government.

It is perfectly clear that as far as coal mining is concerned, modernisation is rapidly taking place, and although the percentage of total output for the modern Chinese mines is not much higher than in 1916, the percentage of increase is very considerable. All the Chinese mines are under purely Chinese management with Chinese technical staffs.

4. Iron.

Nothing has been so much exaggerated as the iron resources of China. Richthofen was largely responsible for creating the impression that China was specially rich in iron, because he was impressed by the innumerable native furnaces of Shansi, partly because he came to China half a century ago when the modern iron industry was only just beginning and he seemed to have had a rather wrong perspective. The high price of iron during the European War and the scarcity of iron deposit in Japan have further magnified the importance of the Chinese supply. The Geological Survey has for the last 6 years continuously studied the question of iron reserve. The following table is based on the unpublished information in the possession of the Geological Survey:—

very shallow and the estimates are therefore extremely conservative.

	Reserve.	
Province	Ore	Iron Contained
Chihli	91,479,000 tons	45,434,000 tons
387,580,000 ,,	105,205,000 ,,	Mukden
Shantung	29,920,000 ,,	14,138,000 ,,
Honan	3,400,000 ,,	1,640,000 ,,
Anhui	50,000,000 ,,	25,000,000 ,,
Kiangsi	18,060,000 ,,	8,671,000 ,,
Hupeh	52,660,000 ,,	29,780,000 ,,
Kiangsu	35,000,000 ,,	17,500,000 ,,
Fukien	7,500.000 ,,	3,650,000 ,,
Chekiang	2,300,000 ,,	1,050,000 ,,

Total...677,099,000 tons

The above figures represent, of course, only the reserves of such known deposits as have been already studied by the Survey and cannot be taken to be the total existing reserve. The detail and reliability of the studies on which the estimates are based vary greatly in individual cases, consequently no great accuracy can be claimed except for such deposits as Tayeh where continued working has made reliable estimates possible. It is probable however that much of the error resulting from the inaccurate estimates will be found mutually compensating and that the total reserve arrived at is not far from the truth. The base level taken is in all cases. There is no way of guessing the possible tonnage of the unsurveyed

There is no way of guessing the possible tonnage of the unsurveyed deposits or that of the undiscovered ones. Suppose we add to the 600 and odd million tons an amount equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the known total for the unknown and undiscovered, as well as for the deeper part of the surveyed deposits we will have the round number of 1,000 million, which may be taken as of the right order of magnitude. Compare this with the figures of the countries rich in iron ore, we see that China has about one fourth of the reserve of America 8/10ths of that of England and 1/3rd of that of France or Germany before the war.

Again, if we take the consumption per head of population in the United States as the standard, 400,000,000 people should have an annual supply of one hundred million tons of pig, the standard being about 0.25 ton per capita. This would mean an annual output of two hundred million tons of 50% ore. At that rate 1,000 million tons can last only five years! This makes us realize vividly two things; namely, the difficulty of supplying the enormous population and the extremely low standard of the present consumption in China which is less than 0.0008 ton per head. Of course, as in the case of coal, we are here comparing things with those of the most favoured nations. Taking the world as a whole, China is not poorer in iron ore than the average. In fact, in the Pacific countries iron is by no means abundant. The estimated resources of Australia and Japan for

example are quite insignificant. Therefore as in the case of coal the geographical position of the Chinese deposits is quite favourable for their

industrial development.

Unlike coal the output of iron has made very little progress since 1916 for which year we have the most complete statistics. This is due to the fact that it was impossible to build new furnaces during the war. Even those already ordered were hopelessly delayed, and China lost one of the best opportunities for establishing her iron industry on a modern basis. The following are the detailed statistics for 1916:

									Perce	ntage of
	Name	of	smeltin	ig u	vorks	Nationa	ulity	Pig Iron	total	output.
Hany	vang Iro	n W	orks			Chinese		149,930	tons	42.2%
										13.8%
Smal	l native	furr	aces			Chinese		156,610	,,	44%

The production in 1920 is only slightly larger than the figures given above because only 2 new iron works have been established, namely the Anshanchan and the Yangtze Engineering. The former has not been a great success whilst the latter has only one 100 tons furnace opened in the later part of the present year (1920). During the last three years, however, many owners of iron deposits have made long term ore-selling contracts with the Japanese. None of these contracts have been carried out fully owing to the business depression in Japan after the war. The following is the table giving the names of the companies which have contracted with the Japanese and the maximum amount per annum the latter has the right to demand.

 Hanyehp'ing, Hankow, Hupeh
 400,000

 Yüfan Co., Fanchang, Arhui
 300,000

 Fuli Co., Tangt'u, Anhui
 150,000

 Paohsing Co., Tangt'u, Anhui
 50,000

 Chengyeh Co.,
 ","
 20,000

 Paohsing Co., Ch'anghsing, Chekiang
 120,000

1,040,000 tons

Therefore as soon as the iron and steel industry in Japan resumes its activities the export of ore from China is likely to exceed one million tons per annum. However many owners of iron deposits are now eager to organize their own iron works and many concrete proposals have been made and are being carried out. The following is a list of iron works existing or proposed with their approximate capacity and probable date of opening:—

Name of the works Approx	ximate capacity	Probable date of opening.
Hanyang, (Hupeh)	. 150,000 tons	Already in operation
Tayeh, (Hupeh)	. 240,000 ,,	End of 1921 Already in operation
Anshanchan, (Mukden)	. 100,000 ,,	Partly in operation
Lungyen, (Chihli)		End of 1921
Yangtze Engineering, (Hupeh) Kungch'angling, (Mukden)		Already in operation 1922 (?)
Chinwangtao, (Kailan) (Chihli)		1922 (?)

From the above it will be seen that two years hence the production of iron in China will probably come near one million tons, including the output of the scattered native furnaces. This would mean an ore-production of at least two million tons. If the export of ore corresponds to the figures in the contracts, China would then produce at least three million tons of iron ore per annum, which is more than double the production of to-day. Much of course depends on the price of pig and the exchange, but with the due allowance for eventualities there is no doubt whatsoever that the Chinese iron and steel industry is bound to develop largely in th near future.

5. Antimony.

No country in the world contains such rich antimony deposits as China. According to the investigation made by the Geological Survey the Hsihkwangshan deposit, (Hsinghua, Hunan) alone contains more than two million tons of pure metal. Deposits of considerable size are known in the districts of Anhua, Yiyang, Paoch'ing, in Hunan, T'ungjeng in Kweichow, Wenshan and Ami in Yunnan. For the last ten years in fact China has been the leading country in antimony production, often supplying more than 50% of the world's demand. In the early years of the European war the price of antimony went up to abnormal heights which of course greatly stimulated production. But even before the armistice, antimony had already become difficult to sell. Since then the low price and the abnormal exchange have together practically killed the industry. It is doubtful if it will ever be able to recover even if the exchange becomes normal again because of the very limited use of the metal. It is to be hoped, however, that the Chinese companies that are largely interested in the trade will come together and give stimulus to scientific metallurgical research in order to find out whether some new and more useful alloy may not be made out of the metal.

The great bulk of antimony comes from Hunan where the Huach'ang Co. holds the monopoly for the Herrenschmidt process. Their principal mine is in Yiyang but the smelting works are in Ch'angsha. The following are the figures of the regulus produced:

1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 2,306 tons 2,356 tons 1,928 tons 6,046 tons 5,978 tons

The comparatively small production in 1914 was caused by the general dislocation of business in the first months of the war. The following two

years represent the largest output the company has ever had.

Besides the Huach'ang, the Paohua Company also produced regulus from the Wenshan and Ami deposits in Yunnan, having made a special arrangement with the Huach'ang Co. to share the monopoly. The Germans and the Japanese did not respect the Huach'ang monopoly and set up smelting works of their own to smelt the crude ore bought from the native smelters. Their production in 1916 was considerable hence the unprecedentedly large out-put of regulus. In the same year the production of the Paohua company was 170 tons.

6. TIN.

After the Malay States and Bolivia China is the next largest producer of tin. With quite primitive methods of mining and smelting the district of Kokiu in Yunnan produces something between 7,000—8,000 tons of tin per annum valued at more than 10 million dollars. The districts of Fuch'uan and Hohsien in Kwangsi, and Kianghua, Linwu, and Ichang in Hunan are also tin-producing. The lack of means of communication and better technical methods have hitherto prevented greater development. At

the present all the mines are worked by native methods and there is only one modern smelting plant, the Kokiu Tin Smelting & Mining Co. which is a semi-Government enterprise. The following are the figures of production for Kokiu district. Those of the Tin Smelting & Mining Co. are given for the same period for comparison:

Year	Kokiu district	Smelting & Mining-Co.
1912	5802	219
1913	6580	72
1914	6591	450
1915	7 520	640
1916	7387	720§
1917	8900 §	850§
1918	7066	700 §
1919	8257	820 §

Here again the outbreak of the war caused a temporary setback in the rate of increase but the subsequent high prices soon caused a recovery and, generally speaking, production was on the increase during the European War. Recently, however, the very unfavourable exchange for export has made the price of tin so low in Mexican dollars that a great decrease of output is anticipated this year (1920). The situation is however quite different from that of antimony, and any temporary depression will certainly pass away when the relation between silver and gold becomes once more normal. It is to be noticed that the production of the modern smelting plant has never exceeded 10% of that for the whole district.

7. Gold.

The gold production in China has been estimated at 108,000 taels or Chinese ounces, the province of Heilungkiang or Amur being the biggest producer. The von Grote concession in Outer Mongolia had reached a considerable output before the 1911 Revolution but since then it steadily declined. Most of this gold comes from alluvial deposits which are easy to mine but also easy to exhaust. The methods used for washing are still primitive and consequently wasteful; the heaps of partially washed material are often piled on to the top of minable alluvium which is thus spoiled for working. Future development tends probably in two directions: the introduction of modern machinery in the bigger alluvial fields and the gradual opening up of lode mining. Quartz veins of considerable size and richness are known to occur in Shantung, Szechuan, Turkestan and Outer Mongolia where they have begun to be worked already. Modern methods will most probably prove satisfactory in reopening many of the mines abandoned through water troubles, though the prospecting may prove expensive.

Gold mining in China differs from all the other metals because it has always been more or less a Government monopoly. The following are the statistics of the gold produced in the various mines either worked or controlled by the Government:

Mine	Province	1912	1913	1.914	1915	1916
Gold Mining	Amur	52,474	62,589	85,402	69,555	67,891
Bureau						
Shanhsing	Kirin					400
Pingkiang	Hunan	1,934	1,528	1.135	1,262	983
Hweitung	.,			633	600	350
Yishui	Shantung		2,700	2,200	1,600	1,200
Yenyuen	Szechuan		1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Yutien	Turkestan	3,500	3,500	3.500	3,500	3,571
		•		To	tal	.75,405

In 1916 the total production for the whole of China exclusive of Outer Mongolia was estimated at 108,000 taels (or Chinese ounces), therefore the production of the Government mines amounted to about 73%. But the term "government mine" needs some explanation. Except for the two mines in Hunan the so-called government mines are not really worked by Government officials. They simply police the mining district and farm out the alluvial ground to contractors who contribute a fixed amount of gold per month. Very often the Government has also the monopoly of buying all the gold from the mines. For this reason the figures given above, though official, cannot be taken exactly as the output but only as approximate indications of the relative importance of the different fields, and the amount of gold passed through the hands of the officials. The other private mines are mostly small and scattered. The Chaoyüan mine in Shantung is almost the only private mine that has been known to be continuously working for a number of years.

8. COPPER.

Copper occurs widely in all parts of China, and copper mining is one of the most ancient metal industries. Its history is exceedingly instructive and may prove important in the reopening of the old mines by indicating the favourable localities for prospecting with modern methods. Briefly, in the days of the Han dynasty the centre of the copper industry was in Honan and later on in Chekiang, for example, the famous Copper Hill of Têngt'ung is in the Chiyüan district in Honan, and that of Wupi is in Anchi in Chekiang. In the T'ang dynasty it was at first in southern Shansi, then in western Hupeh. In the time of Sung it was shifted to the Fukien and Kiangsi border. The Yunnan and Szechuan deposits from which most of the copper of to-day is produced were not worked to any extent until the time of the Mings. On the average none of these localities lasted more than three centuries because copper, being the metal for coinage. has always been minutely prospected for and every bit of outcrop discovered and worked, but native methods of mining have their limit in depth owing to ventilation and drainage difficulties. For example, the well-known districts of Tungch'uan in Yunnan and Hweili in Szechwan are among the most recent discoveries, hence are still producing some copper. But the annual output of the metal has decreased from over 6,000 tons in the time of Ch'ienlang to about 800 tons at the present day. Owing to the lack of outcrop and the drowning of old shafts it is exceedingly difficult to express any opinion about the value of most deposits, but in general it may be said that most of the districts mentioned above should be well worth while reopening with a view to prospecting thoroughly by modern methods, for the continuation of many of the rich ore bodies may still be found in the depth; and there is also a great hope that the old miners left untouched the low grade ore, the working of which has proved such a success in the United States.

Before 1911 copper was a government monopoly and no private mines were allowed to exist. After the first Revolution, however, the T'ungch'uan copper mines fell into the hands of a private company. It is still the largest copper producing district in China. The annual production varies between 700—800 tons and because it is a monopoly it pays a handsome profit. The P'ènghsien mines belong to the Provincial Government of Szechuan and have a semi-modern smelting plant. The Panshih mine in Kirin is the only other Government mine still being worked. The total production of the last two mines has been for several years about 200 tons per annum, forming 15% of the total.

Since 1915 the T'ienpaoshan mine in Yenchi district, Kirin, has been worked by a Sino-Japanese Co. It was originally a silver mine but now

the company resmelts the slags for copper. In 1916 the production was about 200 tons. A railway has been built which ought to facilitate a greater output.

Several mines are known to be producing copper in Turkestan but the methods of mining and smelting are very primitive and the output quite

small.

9. LEAD, ZINC, AND SILVER.

Both lead and zinc have been used for coining brass cash, therefore both have been prospected for. At present only two important mines are being worked.

1. The Shuik'oushan mine in the district of Ch'angning, Hunan, is controlled by the Provincial Government. It has two inclined shafts over 200 meters deep and is equipped with pumping machines and a washing plant. The production of concentrated ore since 1912 is as follows:

Year	Zinc Ore	Lead Ore	Sulphur
1912	9,144	2,987	339
1913	10,319	3,146	182
1914	11,454	5,777	50
1915	26,722	10,668	8
1916 -	28,104	9,684	77

On the average the zinc concentrate contains about 42% of zinc; the lead ore about 66% of lead with 10 ounces of silver. 1916 was practically the best year. Since then the civil war and the unsteady market have caused a constant decrease of output. At present owing to the lack of demand, especially for zinc, more than 100,000 tons of unsold ore are piled up at the mine. Unless a modern smelting plant with floatation is established, the mine will recover only with great difficulty.

The second important mine is that of Kunshan, Tungch'uan, Yünnan, owned by the Tungch'uan Mining Co. The ore is mostly carbonates but sulphides also occur with a silver content of 16 to 20 ounces per ton. The production is about 700 tons for lead and slightly less for zinc which is

also more difficult to market.

China next to India is the second largest consumer of silver in the world, but like India, hardly produces any silver at all herself. The estimated output for 1916 is less than 30,000 taels! In fact, China has never been known to produce silver at any period in her history; the largest production known is considerably less than half a million. For this reason the price of silver relatively to gold has always been higher in China than anywhere else. Before 1860 one tael gold in China was equal to 17 taels of silver but in the Ming dynasty one tael of gold was worth only 5—8 taels of silver, indicating also the scarcity of the latter. Considering the fact that the metallurgy of silver is so well-known and the price so high, the small production in all times must be probably taken as a real indication that China is poor in silver.

10. Mercury.

Mercury is one of the important metals produced in China. Because of its scattered distribution which is confined to the 5 provinces of Kweichow, Hunan, Szechuan, Yünnan and Kwangsi where the means of communication are rather difficult, it has not, in recent years, attracted the attention of miners as some of the other metals. Of the five provinces Kweichow is the real centre; mercury produced outside of that province is largely confined to those districts near its border, thus Yuyang in Szechwan, Fenghuang in Hunan are both adjacent to the Kweichow frontier. In Kweichow itself the districts of Shench'i, T'ungjen, Tzukiang, Annan

and Nanlung are the most important. Native methods are used both in mining and in metallurgy; one mine often attracts hundreds or even thousands of workmen but the ore is of a low grade and the mercury content is seldom more than 3%. The Wanshanch'ang Mine in Shench'i district was, in the beginning of this century, more or less in the hands of the Anglo-French Syndicate which attempted to introduce modern methods in smelting, but the venture was a total failure and all working has been stopped since 1911. The high price of mercury during the European War stimulated active production, but no permanent improvement has been effected

11. TUNGSTEN, MOLYBDENUM & MANGANESE.

These three metals differ from all the others that have been discussed kitherto in the fact that they are not known to have been utilized by the Chinese. Consequently all the outcrops are quite intact and discoveries comparatively easy. Tungsten is by far the most important of the three. The discovery dates back only to 1915. In a little over a year 2000 tons of concentrates were produced; 1917 and 1918 saw a still greater increase; the export reached something like 5,000 tons per annum, making China the second largest producer in the world. The region from which most of the tungsten came lies between the three provinces of Hunan, Kiangsi and Kwangtung. The district of Juch'eng, Tzuhsing, Yichang, Ch'enghsien in Hunan and a few districts near the coast in Kwangtung are important, but the largest centres are in Ch'ungyi, Tayü, Nank'ang and Shanyu all of which are within the Kiangsi border. The sudden drop of price, the abnormal exchange and the high import duty imposed by the United States which used to be one of the largest buyers, combined to kill the industry, which had its phenomenal development in a few years and then disappeared almost as suddenly. There is no doubt however that China will be a very important source for tungsten and as soon as these unfavourable conditions are removed, the easily mined deposits will regain their importance.

Molybdenum have been discovered in Ningteh in Fukien and Ch'ingt'ien in Chekiang but the production is small. New discoveries have also been made in Kwangtung near the coast but no active mining has yet been started.

Manganese is found principally in Hunan, Kwangtung and Kwangsi. In the first province it has been mined by the Yüsheng and the Hanyehp'ing companies. The mines are situated mostly in the Hsiang valley. In
Kwangtung it occurs in Ch'ingchow district and is mined by the Yüch'ing
Co., and in Kwangsi by the Hoyeh Co. During the war export of the
ore was considerable but the low price during the last 2 years or so compelled most of the mines to stop working.

12. Petroleum.

Next to iron and coal, China's resources of petroleum, have attracted great attention from foreigners. Since the decision of the Standard Oil Co. of New York to stop their work in Shensi, after spending something like 2 million dollars since the granting of the prospecting concession in 1914, great disappointment has naturally been felt. But it is to be noticed that the prospecting work was confined to the northwestern part of Shensi and the number of holes put down were by no means sufficient. Altogether seven holes, each less than 2,000 feet deep, were put down in the districts of Yench'ang, Fusu and Chungpu. The oil flow was found to be insufficient. In Yench'ang, however, the Government wells have been producing oil steadily for a number of years, and the large number of seapages known to occur justify the belief that it is worth while to carry

Careful organization should be able to do with on further prospecting. much less money in order to accomplish the same amount of work as the Standard Oil Co. whose results should not be taken as conclusive. Besides Shensi, the oil bearing formation with numerous seapage localities extends northwestwards through the districts of Chengyüan, etc., in Kansu to Yümên and Tênghuang where it extends along the northern slope of Nanshan until it reaches northern Turkestan. In the last province oil in some quantity has been produced from the districts of Wusu, Suilai, Tach'eng and Tihwa (Ili). No prospecting has been done in these areas. South of the Tsingling range we have the red basin of Szechuan where oil is known to occur in the salt wells. The amount of oil produced is however small. For example in Tzuliuching area over a thousand salt wells from one thousand to four thousand feet deep produce altogether only about 50 tons of oil per annum. It is possible however that the wells made principally for mining salt and brine may have often passed the oil stratum unnoticed, and the amount of oil obtained does not represent the real resources. On the other hand even if Tzuliuching is excluded, there are numerous other anticlines in the red basin which may prove more favourable. In view of the rapid exhaustion of petroleum reserve any one of the regions indicated above certainly justifies careful investigation and sound prospecting.

13. OTHER NON-METALS.

The other non-metallic minerals have not attracted so much attention but many of them are of considerable importance and some are peculiar to China:

Natural Soda. Natural soda consists of a mixture of sodium carbonate and bi-carbonate. It is found in the salt lakes in Mongolia. Briefly there are three principal regions. 1. Eastern Mongolia now partly incorporated into the Mukden province under the name of T'aoch'angtao, where the two large salt lakes of Tapusu and Polishan contain large quantities of natural soda. The company working these deposits has now an output of over 2 million catties or 1,200 tons per annum. All of it is exported from Yingkow via Changchun, 2. The region north of Kalgan also produces soda for which Kalgan forms the natural outlet. 3. The Ordos region, with 2 important localities: one in the Shenmu district in Shansi and the other in the northern part of Ninghsia. Better methods of extraction and improved means of communication will certainly increase the output.

Alunite. Alunite is found principally in P'ingyang district in Chekiang and Futing district in Fukien. The normal production used to be about 7,000 tons. During the European War it went up to 18,000 tons valued at more than one million dollars. Apart from the economic importance the deposit is of great scientific interest, as alunite is usually a

manufactured article.

Magnesite. Magnesite when pure consists of magnesium carbonate. Usually however some calcium carbonate occurs with it. The discovery in China is quite recent. In 1915 magnesite was found to occur in the districts of Haich'eng and Kaiping in the southern part of Mukden, and Japanese merchants soon began to buy the product for export. In the midst of European War the output became quite considerable. The magnesite is found in what is known as the Wutai series which is rich in magnesium minerals such as serpentine and talc. The Geological Surveys have recently proved that the magnesite in Mukden is equivalent to the marble commonly found in the same series all over northern China. Many of these marbles are extremely rich in magnesium and probably will be mined in the future as magnesite.

Sulphur and Phosphate. These two substances so important to the fundamental industries and to agriculture respectively have not been found

in large quantities hitherto. Most of the sulphur is obtained by distilling pyritiferous shale; no big pyrite deposit or natural sulphur has yet been discovered, although the chance of such discovery is fairly good in regions where other sulphides such as blende and galena occur. Phosphate is known in the Pratus Island not far from Hongkong. The island was occupied by the Japanese in 1907 but China regained possession of it after protracted negotiation and the payment of a large sum of money. Since then no development has taken place. Quite recently however, a very important deposit of apatite has been discovered in the district of Haichow in Kiangsu It seems to be a bedded vein in the crystalline schists. There is also a hope of finding similar veins in the same series which covers very wide areas in northern China.

14. LEGISLATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

Since the Republican era numerous legislative and administrative measures have been enacted. The following is a fairly complete list:

Suit	is mayo been chacted.		10 10	110 11 112	5 is a railly complete list.	
	Name		Date		Promulgated by No of	Art.
1.	Mines Law 1	11 I	Mar.	1914	Presidential Mandate 1	.11
2.	Detailed Regulations					
	for the Administra-					
	tion of Mines Law 3	31 I	Mar.	1914	,, ,, ,,	86
3.	Law governing the					
	Registration of	- 7				40
	Mining Enterprises	3 1	May	1914		49
4.	Appendix to the	_		1014		30
_	above Forms of applica-	O	,,	1914	ture and Commerce	50
5.	tion for Mining					
	Enterprises 4	Λ		1914		20
	Enterprises .	7	22 .	1314	Joint Order by the Ministries	
6	Short Regulations				of Agri. & Commerce &	
υ.	for the Collection				Finance sanctioned by the	
	of Mining Tax 2	23 J	July	1914		11
7.						
	ing the Qualifica-					
	tions of Mining				Ministerial order sanctioned	_
	Merchants 2	4 1	May	1915	by the President	7
8.	Temporary Regula-					
	tions governing			1015		0
_	Small Mines 1	11 J	luly	1915	,,	8
9.	Regulations govern-					
	ing the Organiza-					
	tion of Mining	Ω	Ann	1018	Presidental Mandate	19
10	Regulations govern-	0 1	apr.	1310	1 10SIGCIDAL LIGHTANO	
10.	ing the Option of				Order of the Ministry of	
	paying a single tax				Order of the Ministry of Finance sanctioned by the President	
	instead of Likin	8 3				14
	In addition we have	the	foll	owing	special regulations:	
11.	Principles governing					
	the Nationalization				Memorandum of the Oil Bur-	
	of Petroleum	10 .	Apr.	1914	eau sanctioned by the Presi-	0
12.	Temporary Regula-				dent	2
	tions governing the				Memorandum by the Ministry	
	Iron Mining Concessions	07	NT	1015	of Agri. & Com. sanctioned by the President	6
	cessions 2	47 .	Ana.	1016	Decision of the Cabinet	6
	The same modified 1	11 4	aug.	1910	Decision of the Capmer	

13. Regulations governing the duties of the Supervisor General of the Iron

The Regulations, etc., enumerated above all apply to the whole of China. The following are the two Regulations which are applicable only to special areas:

WI OU	100 +			
	Name	Date	Promulgated by	No of Art.
			Joint memordandum by	the
14.	Special regulations		Ministries of Agri. & C	om.
	for the Gold Mines		& Finance sanctioned by	the
	in Heilungkiang 28	5 Apr. 1915	President	47
15.	Temporary regula-		Memorandum by the K	irin
	tions governing the		Commissioner of Fina	ince
	small mines in		sanctioned by the Minis	stry
	Kirin 14	Aug. 1918	of Agr. & Commerce	9

The most important of these is of course the Mines Law which has often been called Mining Regulations. This inaccurate translation is due to the fact that in the Chinese text the word "t'iaoli" was used instead of "law" because the articles had not passed through the Parliament. As it is in every sense a true law it is much better to translate it by that name. Besides, the term "t'iaoli" means really articles and examples which are not exactly the same as regulations. A translation of the 111 articles will be found at the end of this Section.

The most important points in the Mines Law may be summarized as follows:

1. The recognition of mining rights apart from ownership of surface right.

2. The adoption of the claim system, granting rights of priority on application with proper maps, etc.

3. The fixing of mining tax at 1.5%.

4. The limitation of foreign capital which must not exceed 50%.

It is the last fact which has caused so much criticism but there is no doubt that the law marks a very important advance in the history of mining administration.

Of the other regulations, Nos. 7, 9, 10, 14 and those relating to oil and iron are the most important. They may be briefly summarized as

follows:

The Regulations governing the Qualifications of Mining Merchants require that applicants for mining claims shall produce security bonds by which the Chairman or Vice-Chairman of a Chamber of Commerce or the Manager of a registered company or business, having a capital of 30,000 dollars shall

guarantee the bona fldes of the applicant.

The Temporary Regulations governing the Small Mines were made to protect the small mines atready existing before the promulgation of the Mines Law. According to these, coal claims under 45 acres (270 mow) and other claims of less than 8 acres (50 mow) that had already acquired the right of mining before the promulgation of the law might obtain a special permit, allowing them to continue working for three years, but applications must be sent in within one year after the promulgation of the law. Strictly therefore these regulations have ceased to be in force since March 1915, but in many provinces special extension of time has been granted. It is somewhat uncertain whether these regulations should be still considered as effective.

The Temporary Regulations governing the Option of paying a Single Tax provide that the mine-owners may have the option to pay a compound tax

of 5% ad valorem on sending the product out of the mine instead of Likin. After this compound payment the product shall be exempted from all other duties in China. It does not however include the mining tax which is 1.5%.

The Regulations governing Gold mines in Heilungkiang resemble the Mines Law in general but provide that the claims may be as small as 50 mow and as large as 5 sq. li, being framed practically for the alluvial deposits. Again, the mining tax is fixed at 5% ad valorem and the administration in the hands of the Civil Governor instead of the mining supervisor.

The Memorandum on the Nationalization of Oil originally aimed at complete government control, for it was provided that besides the Standard Oil Co., concession in Shensi, the Government or rather the Oil Bureau should take over all the existing oil wells owned by the provinces, and buy from the private owners similar wells in operation. No new private wells should be permitted. Later on in the month of December 1914, this policy was modified to the extent that government ownership was to be limited to the inland and frontier provinces; oil wells in the Yangtze valley and in those provinces having access to the sea might be worked by private citizens or companies. In 1917 when the Oil Bureau was abolished, the Director recommended that instead of the claim system the concession system should be used for oil in such a way that private individuals or companies might own oil wells with the special permission of the Central Government.

The Temporary Regulations governing the Iron Mining Concessions are probably the most important besides the Mines Law. Iron was originally included in the substances enumerated in Article 6 of the Mines Law, but in 1915 it was withdrawn from the General Law, but provided that apart from several specially named deposits private people might own iron mines with the special permission of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce or the Cabinet. The other important provisions are:—

1. In granting the concession, the right of priority does not necessarily apply, the decision resting entirely with the Government which may also decide to appoint an official supervisor or to propose joint operation

with the private company.

2. No foreign capital can be included.

3. Except the technical staff, no foreigner can be employed. For the former the contract must be sanctioned by the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce.

4. No ore-selling contracts made with foreigners shall be valid without first obtaining sanction of the same Ministry. The latter has also the right of priority in buying the output.

5. In addition to ordinary mining tax, Customs duty and Likin, a

sur-tax of 40 cents per ton shall be paid to the Government.

The administrative organization has gone through all kinds of change. In 1914 when the Mines Law was first promulgated, 8 mining districts were created and in each district there was a supervisor directly responsible to the Bureau of Mines in Peking. The administration of the Mines Law was entrusted to these supervisors in the first instance. In April 1915, these newly created organisations were abolished and mining administration was then transferred into the hands of the Provincial Commissioner of Finance, but the technical staff was still directly appointed by the Central Government. In 1917 the post of Commissioner of Industry was created, and given charge of the mining administration. At present therefore the Commissioner of Industry represents the provincial unit to which all applications and petitions must be sent in the first instance, but the actual permits are still issued by the Bureau of Mines

in the name of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce. 'The latter is the highest authority in mining administration, but its decisions, like all other administrative decisions, may be appealed against in the Administrative Court whose findings are final.

MINING ENTERPRISE REGULATIONS.

(MINES LAW.)

[Reprinted by kind permission from "Mineral Enterprise in China," by William F. Collins, published by Heinemann in 1918].

Promulgated by the Chinese Government, March 11, 1914 (Translation by S. Y. Li, A.R.S.M., and William F. Collins.)

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL RULES.

Art. 1. Mining enterprise (Kuang Yeh) shall comprise prospecting (T'an Kuang), mining (T'sai Kuang) and other operations appertaining to them.

Att. 2. Mining enterprise rights shall comprise rights both of prospect-

ing and of operating mines.

Art. 3. Citizens of the Republic of China, or Companies which have been constituted according to Chinese Law, may acquire mining rights in accordance with these regulations.

Art. 4. Citizens of treaty nations may join with Chinese citizens in acquiring mining rights, but they must conform with these regulations and all other laws connected with them.

Foreigners shall not hold more than 50 per cent. of the total number

of shares.

Each foreigner shall present to the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, or to the Director of the Mining Supervision Office, a document granted by a diplomatic officer, or consul representing his nationality, certifying his willingness to adhere to these regulations and to all other laws connected with them.

Art. 5. Should two or more persons carry on mining by joint enterprise, or petition for permission to carry on mining under conditions of joint enterprise, one of them shall by mutual agreement be elected as representative and duly report this fact to the Director of the Mining Supervision Office of the district. In the absence of such report the Director of the Mining Supervision Office shall appoint one of them as representative.

Persons who have joined together for mining enterprise, or who have petitioned for joint mining enterprise as stipulated in the preceding para-

graph, shall be considered as having agreed to work jointly.

Art. 6. The various classes and kinds of minerals are as follows—Class 1:—Gold, silver, copper, iron, tin, lead, antimony, nickel, cobalt, manganese, zinc, aluminium, arsenic, mercury, bismuth, platinum, iridium, molybdenum, chromium, uranium, tungsten, coals and precious stones.

Class 2:—Rock crystal, asbestos, mica, corundum, emery, gypsum, alunite, natural nitre, apatite, barytes, nitrates, sulphur, pyrites, borax, fluor-spar, marble (especially for furnishing), felspar, talc, graphite, peat, amber, asphalt, bitumen, pumice, meerschaum, kaolin, diatom earth, tripolite, magnesium earth, fuller's earth, stones used to make pigments.

Class 3:—Slate, limestone, sandstone, granite, porphyry, dolomite, earth lime, marl, clay, fire-clay, other useful stones quarried for architectural

and manufacturing purposes.

The working of salt and petroleum is a State monopoly (chuan pan), and these minerals are not included in the three classes of minerals above enumerated.

Art. 7. Minerals not enumerated in the preceding article may be classified by the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce and their classifica-

tion promulgated by ministerial order.

Art. 8. The minerals specified in Art. 6, as well as waste-products from abandoned mines, cannot be prospected or mined except by previously obtaining approval of the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce or the Director of the Mining Supervision Office. All kinds of mineral springs, the public property of local communities, are not included in this limitation.

Art. 9. With regard to the minerals specified in Art. 6, Class 1, those persons (whether surface-owners or not) who shall first petition for claims

shall have the prior right to secure such claims.

Art. 10. As regards the minerals specified in Art. 6, Class 2, the surface-owner shall have the prior right to secure the claim. Should the surface landowner declare unwillingness to secure a claim or having registered fail to work the mine within one year from registration the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce or the Director of the Mining Supervision Office may allot the claim to others.

Art. 11. The minerals specified in Art. 6, Class 3, shall be exploited by the surface-owner, or the property may be leased to others for exploitation, but the previous approval of the higher local administrative

authorities must be obtained.

In granting their approval and consent to applications dealt with in the preceding paragraph the higher local authorities shall notify the Director of the Mining Supervision Office.

CHAPTER II.

MINING AREAS.

Art. 12. The mining area comprises the whole of the area of land within which the holder of the claim has been granted these rights by the Government.

Art. 13. The following lands may not be applied for as mining areas-

(1) Lands within one li from the boundaries of the tombs of the Ancient Sages, Emperors, or Kings.

- (2) Lands which are of importance to fortifications, strategic points. and all arsenals and naval bases, unless approval has been obtained from the controlling Government Offices concerned.
- (3) Areas within one li from commercial centres or trading markets. unless approval and consent has been obtained from the controlling Government Offices concerned.
- (4) Areas within 400 chih (Chinese feet) from the sites of official or public buildings, public parks, famous ancient monuments, public thoroughfares, railways and important waterways or water systems, etc., unless approval has been obtained from the controlling Government Offices concerned, the owner, or other persons interested.

Art. 14. The limits of mining areas shall be fixed by straight lines. The underground boundaries shall be the vertical projection downwards of the surface boundary lines.

Art. 15. The superficial measurements of the mining area shall be reckoned by square li and mow: 60 square chang are equivalent to 1 mow, 540 mow are equivalent to 1 square li.

⁺ The Mining Supervision Offices have been abolished, and the Provincial Financial Bureaus (Tsai Cheng Ting) have taken their place.

Art. 16. The minimum area for coal mining shall be more than 270 mow and the maximum area not more than 10 square li. The minimum area of other mines shall be over 50 mow and the maximum area 5 square li.

Should the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce deem it absolutely necessary owing to special circumstances to modify the stipulated areas, limits laid down in the preceding clause may be increased or decreased.

Art. 17. Within one mining area there shall not be established two or more rights of mining enterprise. In case the minerals are of different kinds or are affected by the stipulations of Art. 35 this clause shall not

apply.

Art. 18. Should tunnels for purposes of drainage, for ventilation, or transportation, extending outside of the mining area boundaries, be driven, these shall not be included in the mining area, but the consent of the Director of the Mining Supervision Office shall be obtained before such work is carried out.

Should mineral ore be discovered in tunnelling, in accordance with the preceeding paragraph, the fact shall be immediately reported to the

Director of the Mining Supervision Office.

In case the Director of the Mining Supervision Office shall consider the value of the reported mineral discovery as specified in the preceding paragraph to be such as to make it worth working, he may grant a time limit to the holder of the mining area in which to take it over as a mining area.

CHAPTER III.

MINING ENTERPRISE RIGHTS.

Art. 19. Mining enterprise rights shall be considered as proprietary rights, and shall be subject to all laws governing immovable property. In a mining area where the mining rights and other proprietary rights belong exclusively to one individual, the other proprietary rights shall continue to exist.

Art. 20. Mining rights may not be divided.

Art. 21. Except for purposes of legacy, transfer, arrears of dues, or acts under compulsion by the properly constituted authority, mining enterprise rights shall not be made use of as objects of privilege. Mining enterprise rights may, however, be mortgaged.

Art. 22. A petition for registration by the Directors of the Mining Supervision Office is required for the following matters; should, however, operation of any mining enterprise rights be subjected to certain restrictions no petition requesting the cancellation of the right will be entertained—

(1) Establishment, alteration, transfer, cancellation, or restriction of

mining enterprise rights.

(2) In case of mortgage of the mining enterprise right, alteration, transfer, cancellation, and limitation of such rights of mortgage.

(3) Withdrawal from partnership in joint mining enterprise.

Art. 23. Regulations for registration under the preceding article shall

be determined by another special legal enactment.

- Art. 24. With regard to matters that require registration under Art. 22 no case shall be operative until due registration has been effected. Legacy of mining rights, cancellation in consequence of expiry of mining rights, and sale by auction in accordance with these regulations, are excluded from this registration.
- Art. 25. Those who wish to prospect shall file a petition with the Director of the Mining Supervision Office concerned, for a permit. This petition shall be accompanied by maps and explanatory remarks. The Director shall, should be deem it necessary, instruct local officials to carry

out investigations or he himself may appoint a deputy to make a personal inspection of the area applied for.

Art. 26. Prospecting rights shall be limited to a period of two years.

Art. 27. The previous consent of the Director of the Mining Supervision Office must be obtained before sale or other disposal of minerals won during prospecting. Taxes must be paid on such minerals in accordance with these regulations.

Art. 28. Any person desiring to operate a mine shall file a petition accompanied by maps and remarks with the Director of the Mining Supervision Office concerned. The Director shall in turn petition for permission from the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. Registration shall be effected after due receipt of this permission. In case the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce deems it necessary he may instruct the Director or appoint a special deputy to make personal investigation into the case.

In accordance with the preceding paragraph the Director of the Mining Supervision Office may instruct local officials to investigate or inspect mining

areas.

Art. 29. During the term of prospection a petitioner for a mining or prospecting claim may change the name over which application is made subject to securing the consent of the Director of the Mining Supervision Office. After the right of operation has been secured change of such name may be effected only with the consent of the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.

Art. 30. The petitioner for a mining claim must prove that the area

applied for contains the mineral he desires to mine.

Art. 31. Should the maps and specifications filed by the petitioner be found to be incomplete the Director of the Mining Supervision Office or the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce may impose a time limit within which the petitioner shall make the necessary corrections or repetition. In case the corrections or the new petition be not filed within the time limit imposed the original petition shall be cancelled.

Art. 32. Should the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce or the Director of the Mining Supervision Office consider the area over which prospecting rights have been applied for to be actually suitable for operation as a mine, he may impose a time limit within which the petitioner shall file an application for operating rights in the said area. In case the petitioner shall fail to petition within the imposed time limit the Minister or the Director may allow other parties to apply. Should the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce consider that the area for which a petition has been received asking for the right to work, needs further prospecting, the preceding paragraph shall apply.

Art. 33. In case the situation and shape of the mining area applied for does not agree with the situation and shape of the mineral deposit, thereby causing prejudice to profitable working of the mine, the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, or the Director of the Mining Supervision Office, may impose a time limit within which an amended petition must be submitted. In case the amended petition is not filed within the time limit imposed, the original petition shall be cancelled.

The petitioner may of himself petition for correction of the nature

described in the preceding paragraph.

Art. 34. The Chief of the Mining Supervision Office shall make an investigation regarding the area applied for as a mining claim, and should the place be unsuitable for such enterprise, or should the enterprise be injurious to the public interest, the petition shall be rejected.

Art. 35. If, on account of the situation and nature of the mineral deposit, it be necessary to make an excavation into an adjacent claim, a consultation must be held with the neighbouring proprietor. A document

certifying to his consent for such acts must be obtained, and a petition may then be sent through the Chief of the Mining Supervision Office to the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, for permission to increase or alter the claim. In case excavation into an adjoining mining area is desired for other reasons than the above, in addition to securing the written consent of the holder of the claim concerned, written consent of the mortgagee, if any, must be obtained and be presented with the petition.

Art. 36. Should the area, over which prospecting rights are being applied for, overlap a claim for which mining rights have already been granted to another party, and the mineral sought be of the same kind in both cases, rights as to the overlapping portion shall not be granted.

Art. 37. Should the area over which operating rights are being applied for overlap a claim as to which prospecting rights have already been granted to another party, and should the mineral sought be also of the same kind in both cases, rights as to the overlapping portion shall not be granted, but this does not apply to the case stated in Art. 35.

Art. 38. Should the area over which operating rights are being applied for overlap the prospecting area secured by another party and the mineral be similar, the overlapping portion shall be dealt with according to the stipulations of Art. 32, par. 1.

Art. 39. Should the area over which mining rights are being applied for overlap the mining area of another party, but the mineral sought be of a different kind, the Director of the Mining Supervision Office shall duly notify the holder of the mining right as to this fact. This does not include the case in which injury would be done to the mining operations of others.

For sixty days after serving notification, the original holder of mining right over the area concerned shall enjoy priority in acquiring the right applied for.

The preceding two clauses are not applicable to circumstances set forth under Art. 35.

Art. 40. In case the claim wherein prospecting or mining rights are applied for be similar to the area wherein prospecting or mining rights are applied for by another, prior right to the area shall belong to the person whose date of application was the earlier. In case the applications were both sent in at the same time the Director of the Mining Supervision Office shall impose a time limit within which the two parties are to come to mutual agreement, and then submit their petitions again.

If no petition be forthcoming within the set period, the case shall be decided by drawing lots.

The stipulations laid down in the first clause of this article are not applicable to cases set forth under Arts. 33, 35, and 39 of the regulations.

In case the claim wherein prospecting rights are applied for overlaps a claim wherein operating rights are applied for, and should the petitions be of the same date and the mineral sought be identical, the operating application shall have priority.

 $A\tau t$. 41. Within thirty days after the expiration of prospecting time limit, the holder of the prospecting rights shall have priority as to securing mining rights for similar mineral in that area.

Should another party petition for mining rights in the same claim as stated in the preceding paragraph, and if the petition be for another kind of mineral, the procedure under Art. 39 shall apply. In this case the petitioner who applies first shall secure the claim.

Art. 42. In case the applicant for prospecting right shall further apply for operating rights for the same mineral, and should there be overlapping applications from others, then the date of his application for

prospecting shall be deemed the date of his application for operating rights. This does not include the case provided for under Art. 40, Clause 4.

The above shall also apply to the case in which the applicant for

operating rights shall change his application to one for prospecting.

The stipulations contained in the two preceding paragraphs shall not apply to cases set forth under Arts. 32 and 33, Clause 1, relative to applications after lapse of time limit.

Art. 43. In case of increase, decrease, amalgamation, division or other alteration in prospecting claims, petitions shall be filed with the Director of the Mining Supervision Office, applying for his approval and registration. If the changes be desired in a mining claim the petition shall be filed with the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce through the Director of the Mining Supervision Office, and only after the receipt of approval and due registration by the Director can the rights applied for become legally effective.

Art. 44. The legal holder of a mining claim shall from time to time submit plans, with drawings and explanation, indicating work to be performed, for approval by the Director of the Mining Supervision Office.

The legal holder of the operating rights shall proceed with the work in the manner approved by the Director of the Mining Supervision Office.

As regards the above mentioned plans and explanations, should alterations be proposed in working the claim the holder of the claim shall obtain the approval of the Director of the Mining Supervision Office previous to proceeding to active work.

Art. 45. The legal holder of the claim shall keep a plan of the under ground workings and also keep in his office a record of the mining operations. A duplicate copy of each shall be filed with the Mining Supervision

Office

Forms for the plan of survey and diary, mentioned in the preceding paragraph, shall be laid down by order of the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.

Art. 46. Rights to a mining claim shall be cancelled for any of the

following causes-

(1) If after registration for one year no operations have been begun without reasonable cause, or work shall have been suspended for one year or more during operation.

(2) If the mining operations be injurious to the public interest.

(3) If there be want of compliance with the Mining Police Regulations, as to precautions ordered to be observed to avoid danger or temporary suspension of work.

(4) Non-compliance with work in the approved plans and descriptions.

(5) Failure to pay mining taxes at due date.(6) If sanction shall have been given in error.

Art. 47. The holder of a claim shall in offering his mining rights as security for the raising of a loan or mortgage, conform to the procedure set out in the following rules—

(1) The borrowing of loans upon the security of mining rights shall not be effective unless previous permission of the Minister of Agriculture

and Commerce has been secured.

- (2) After mining rights have been pledged, if the claim-holder shall desire to divide, amalgamate, decrease or increase the area of his claim, the approval of the lender shall be obtained or a settlement made with various lenders.
- (3) Should mining rights be cancelled or voluntarily abandoned after due registration, the Director of the Mining Supervision Office shall inform the lenders to whom the claim has been pledged. Within thirty days of receipt of notification the creditors may file a petition to the Director of the Mining Supervision Office, requesting an auction of the claim. But

this procedure is not applicable when cancellation is due to circumstances laid out under Art. 46, Clauses 2 and 6.

(4) During this period in which the claim is for sale or auction, the

right may be considered as still existing.

(5) If after deduction of expenses in connection with the sale and repayment of the debt with interest there shall remain any surplus this shall be handed over to the original holder of the mining rights.

(6) The rights to a claim acquired by the new proprietor in accordance with the provisions of Art. 3, or Art. 4, shall be considered as having

been obtained from the time when the cancellation was registered.

Art. 48. After the cancellation or voluntary abandonment of a mining claim, in case the original holder of the claim shall personally undertake disposal of the property he may conform to the procedure laid down in Sections 4, 5 and 6, of the preceding article.

Art. 49. In case a deputy has to be appointed to inspect personally the claim over which prospecting or mining rights are sought, the expense

of such inspection shall be borne by the petitioner.

Art. 50. In case the owner of an adjoining claim, or any other party concerned, shall for some reason apply for investigation, he may petition the Director of the Mining Supervision Office to despatch a deputy to inspect the claim. The expense of such inspection shall be borne by the petitioner.

CHAPTER IV.

USE OF LAND.

Art. 51. The term "person concerned" in these regulations is to be taken as referring to the person who has the right of proprietorship over the land.

Art. 52. The term "compensation money," in these regulations is to be taken as referring to rent paid on land. It also refers to compensation for ordinary damage and actual loss incurred by the landlord and parties concerned.

Art. 53. In case there is necessity that a petitioner for a claim or a holder of a claim shall carry on surveying operations or make investigations on the land of other persons he may do so, but the previous consent of

the Director of the Mining Supervision Office must be obtained.

In carrying out operations on the land of other persons as set forth in the preceding paragraph, previous notice is to be given to the landowner or to the occupier of the land.

Art. 54. In case the removal of obstacles is necessary in order to carry out surveying or investigating operations properly, previous consent of the Director of the Mining Supervision Office must be obtained.

After due consent has been obtained under the preceding paragraph, notice is to be given to the landowner or the occupier of the land before

removal of such obstacles.

Art. 55. In the event of immediate necessity for protection against imminent danger in mining operations, the entry and use of land belonging to other persons is permissible, but immediate report must be made to the Director of the Mining Supervision Office, and simultaneous notice must be given to the owner or occupier of the land.

Art. 56. In case the owner of the land or concerned party shall sustain damage and loss in consequence of actions provided for in the preceding three articles fair compensation shall be paid to them by the

claim-holder.

Art. 57. The use by a claim-holder of land belonging to other persons for the objects enumerated below is permissible.

(1) Boring and sinking shafts.

(2) Heaping and storing mining products, earth, stones, explosives, timber, firewood, fuel, tailings and slag.

(3) The erection of ore-dressing plants and smelting works.

- (4) The construction of heavy and light railways, roads and waterways for transport, water and steam pipes, drains, reservoirs, wells, ropeways and electric wires.
- (5) Construction of plant and other works necessary for mining enterprises.
- Art. 58. When the land of others is utilised according to the above provisions, the approval of the Director of the Mining Supervision Office shall first be obtained. At the same time a petition shall be submitted with a working plan, drawing and description, to the Director of the Mining Supervision Office, for his approval.

After granting such permission the Director of the Mining Supervision Office shall immediately give public notice, or notify the landowner

or person concerned.

After publication of the notice, or after notification to the landowner, should the claim-holder desire to obtain the right to the land he must consult with the landlord or person concerned.

With regard to the provisions of the two preceding paragraphs, should the land be Government property he may apply for it to the official in

charge.

- Art. 59. When the land is utilised the landlord, or other person interested, must be adequately compensated.
- Art. 60. In case use of the land is to extend over a longer period than three years, or if in consequence of such use its character shall undergo change, the holder of the mining rights may negotiate with the landowner, or the landowner may demand a lump sum as compensation money according to the market value of the land. When the mining operations have ceased, or use of the land is terminated, the land in question shall be returned to its original owner.
- Art. 61. In case use of a portion of the land shall have decreased the value of the remaining portion of the land, or should some other kind of damage have resulted, the holder of the mining rights shall pay to the owner or the parties concerned fair compensation. Should the rest of the land have lost its former usefulness the procedure under the preceding clause shall be followed.
- Art. 62. If in utilising the land of others it is found necessary to erect buildings or alter the existing roads, ditches, walls, fences, and other works, the holder of the mining right shall pay fair compensation money to the owner. This does not include the case in which the matter has already been dealt with according to Art. 60.
- Art. 63. After public notice or notifications as provided under Art. 58, in case the owner or party concerned shall desire to alter the form or nature of the land, erect new buildings, or make extensive repairs and additions, the consent of the Director of the Mining Supervision Office must be obtained. Failing this no applications for payment of compensation money for outlay incurred will be entertained.
- Art. 64. After public notice or notification, as stated in Art. 58, should the claim be abandoned or altered, any loss sustained by the owner of the land or party concerned shall be fairly compensated by the holder of the mining rights.
- Art. 65. The owner or party concerned may demand that the holder of the mining rights shall furnish satisfactory guarantees with regard to compensation money.

Art. 66. If use of the land has been agreed on by mutual arrangement, judgment given, or arbitration, the claim-holder may, by a deposit of compensation money or furnishing a guarantee, secure the immediate use of the land, pending decision as to the amount of compensation money.

Art. 67. The landlord, or party concerned, may refuse permission for the use of land if the claim-holder shall fail to pay compensation, or to

furnish a guarantee.

Art. 68. During the period of utilisation of the land, the rights of ownership shall be invested in the claim-holder. Other rights of the land-owner shall also be temporarily suspended, but this does not include employment of the land not entailing interference with the claim-holder.

Art. 69. After use of the land is terminated it shall be restored to its original condition and handed back to the original owner. In case it is not possible to restore the land to its original condition, and loss shall thereby have been entailed, compensation money shall be paid. This does not include the case dealt with under Art. 60.

 $A\tau t$. 70. The regulations controlling the use of land are applicable

to the rights of use of water.

CHAPTER V.

MINERS.

Art. 71. Labourers working in connection with a mining enterprise are called miners.

Art. 72. The rules drawn up by the holder of a claim for governing the duties of miners shall be submitted to the Director of the Mining Supervision Office, and his approval must be obtained before they can be enforced.

Art. 73. The holder of the claim shall keep in his office a register of the names of the miners in his employ. The form of such register shall be in accordance with that promulgated by ministerial order of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce.

Art 74. The wages of miners shall be paid in currency accepted by the public. The payments shall be made on a date or dates previously

fixed, and in one or two instalments each month.

Art. 75. When a miner is dismissed, the claim-holder shall, upon request of the miner, furnish him with a certificate giving particulars of the period he has served in the mine, the kind of work he has done, his capacity, his rate of wages, and the cause of his dismissal.

Art. 76. In case any miner shall be wounded, fall ill, or die, in consequence of services rendered to the mine, the claim-holder shall pay

medical or compassionate allowance.

Art. 77. With regard to the age of miners, the hours of work, and the employment of women and child workers, the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce may regulate them.

CHAPTER VI.

MINING TAXATION.

Art. 78. Mining taxes shall be of the following kinds-

(1) Mining area tax.

(2) Mineral production tax.

Art. 79. The rate of taxation on mining areas is as follows-

(1) For mining areas in which minerals included under Class 1 of Art. 6 are worked, annual tax per mow, 30 cents.

For alluvial platinum, gold, tin, or iron found in river beds, annual

tax per 10 chang in length, 30 cents.

For minerals under Art. 6, Class 2, annual tax per mow, 15 cents.

(2) If the claim is being prospected the above tax shall be reckoned at 05 cent.

Art. 80. The above taxes shall be distinct from and in addition to the land tax.

Art. 31. Mineral production tax is as follows—

(a) For minerals enumerated in Art. 6, Class 1, fifteen per mille of the market price at the place of production.

(b) For minerals enumerated in Art. 6, Class 2, ten per mille of the

market price at the place of production.

Art. 82. The Mining Area Tax and Mineral Production Tax specified

in Arts. 79 and 81 respectively shall be paid in two instalments.

Art. 83 For minerals speciafied under Art. 6, Class 3, neither mining area nor mineral production taxes shall be levied.

CHAPTER VII.

MINING ENTERPRISE POLICE.

Art. 84. With reference to matters in connection with police on the mines they shall be undertaken by the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, and the Director of the Mining Supervision Office concerned. The regulations shall be drawn up by ministerial order of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce.

Art. 85. In case the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, or the Director of the Mining Supervision Office, shall consider any work in a mining enterprise to be dangerous or injurious to the public welfare, the holder of the mining right shall be ordered to adopt precautionary mea-

sures or temporarily to suspend operations.

Art. 86. The Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, or the Director of the Mining Supervision Office may order the claim-holder to employ or change technical men.

The qualifications and duties of the technical men mentioned under the preceding clause will be laid down by ministerial order of the Ministry of

Agriculture and Commerce.

Art. 87. Precautionary instructions adopted against danger in mining enterprises shall continue to be in force for one year after cancellation of the mining rights. The Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, or the Director of the Mining Supervision Office, may order the claim-holder to take precautions against danger.

CHAPTER VIII.

JUDGMENTS, COMPLAINTS, LAWSUITS.

Art. 88. As regards granting or refusal of claims, should the petitioner object, appeal may be filed with the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, within a period of three months. If the judgment be not in accordance with law or injurious to rights of the party an administrative lawsuit may be instituted.

Art. 89. In the event of failure to arrive at mutual agreement by consultation under Art. 35, paragraph 1, the case may be laid before the

Director of the Mining Supervision Office by petition for decision.

In case of objection to the award of the Director of the Mining Supervision Office further appeal may be made to the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. If his judgment be not in accordance with law or injurious to the rights of the party an administrative lawsuit may be instituted.

Art. 90. When the claim-holder does not agree with the decision to cancel his rights, appeal may be made to the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. If his judgment be not in accordance with law or injurious to the rights of the party an administrative lawsuit may be started.

Art. 91. If no settlement can be reached by consultation with regard to the use of the area, the compensation money, or the security, the proprietor of a mining enterprise may petition the Director of the Mining

Supervision Office for decision.

In case the claim-holder does not agree with the award in connection with the use of land under the preceding paragraph, appeal may be made to the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. If his judgment be not in accordance with law or injurious to the rights of the party an administrative lawsuit may be started.

In the event of dissatisfaction at the decision under the first paragraph, as regards compensation money and security, a civil lawsuit may

be instituted according to the procedure for civil lawsuits.

Art. 92. In case of dissatisfaction with the awards or judgments an appeal, or administrative lawsuit, may be instituted within sixty days from receipt of the official notice of award or judgment. In case no official notice or award be received, the date of publication of the public notification shall be the date to be reckoned from.

Art. 93. If foreigners, partners of Chinese citizens or employed by Chinese citizens, shall have any dispute arising from mining affairs, the case shall be settled by the decision of the Director of the Mining Supervision

Office.

CHAPTER IX.

PUNISHMENTS.

Art. 94. For fraudulent acquisition of mining rights or secret working of minerals without obtaining mining rights the punishment shall be imprisonment for a period not exceeding three years or a fine not exceeding \$3000.

Art. 95. Surreptitious sale or mortgage of mining rights shall receive

a punishment similar to that inflicted under the preceding clause.

Art. 96. Inadvertent excavation outside the registered boundaries of

a claim shall be punished by a fine not exceeding \$500.

- Art. 97. In the event of fine or punishment in accordance with the provisions of the above three articles the mineral won shall be confiscated. In case this ore has been sold or otherwise made use of, its value shall be recoverable to the authority.
- Art. 98. Violations of stipulations under Art. 13, or non-compliance with orders issued under Arts. 85 and 87. shall entail a fine not exceeding \$500.
- .1rt. 99. For violation of provisions set out under Arts. 27, 44 and 74, a fine not exceeding \$200 shall be imposed.

Art. 100. For violation of provisions under Arts. 54, 72 and 73, a

fine not exceeding \$100 shall be imposed.

Art. 101. In case of hindrance or refusal of permission to officials to scrutinise the registers connected with the mining enterprise, a fine not exceeding \$50 shall be imposed.

.4+t. 102. Evasion of payment of taxes or attempts at evasion of payment of taxes shall be punishable by a fine of three times the amount of the

tax leviable.

Art. 103. In case the provisions of these regulations or instructions issued under these regulations be violated, the following provisions of the criminal law shall not be followed—viz. remission, increase of punishment for second offence or one punishment for several offences.

Art. 104. Should the claim-holder not be an adult person or a person who is not allowed to control property, the fines laid down in these regulations shall be applicable to his legal representative. In the case of a per-

son who is not an adult, should his capacities equal those of an adult this

restriction shall not apply.

Art. 105. In case an agent, servant or other person employed in a mining enterprise shall in the course of his work violate these regulations, the holder of the mining rights may not plead that the violation does not originate with himself and thus be exempt from the punishments or fines imposed.

CHAPTER X.

ANNEX

Art. 106. These regulations shall come into force on the day of their

promulgation.

Art. 107. Within six months from the date of promulgation of these regulations all mines which shall have already secured mining permits shall restition for registration under these regulations.

petition for registration under these regulations.

Art. 108. For six months from the date of promulgation of these regulations all annual rent for mining areas and mineral production tax hitherto levied according to previous regulations shall be payable in accordance with the old regulations, and those which shall not have reached the half-year shall be accounted for by the month.

Art. 109. Previous to the enforcement of these regulations the collection of taxes upon minerals under Art. 6, Class 3, was considered to be local taxation. This shall continue as heretofore, but in no case shall the

tax exceed five per mille of the market value of the mineral.

Art. 110. The stipulations of these regulations shall be applicable to

Government mining enterprises, unless specially regulated.

Art. 111. All agreements under which foreign capital has been raised for mining enterprise entered into with foreigners before the enforcement of these regulations, and sanctioned by Government Offices, shall continue to be binding as heretofore.

ANNEX.

SOME FOREIGN COAL MINES.

THE KAILAN MINING ADMINISTRATION.

With a view to expanding their business the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company, and Lanchow Mining Company agreed in 1912 to form an Association to be called the Kailan Mining Administration. The two Companies remain separate, each retaining its share capital, namely, £1,000,-C00 sterling in each case. As regards the division of profits, the shareholders of the British Company were to receive 60 per cent and the shareholders of the Lanchow Company 40 per cent of all net profits up to £300,000. Net profits in excess of that sum are to be equally divided, as are profits which may be derived from any new business or additional coal shafts. "Net profit" is defined as meaning the profit after deducting all working expenses, and paying debenture interest and amortization charges. The only other deduction is to be 15 per cent of the gross profits, or not less than £35.000 per annum, for a joint reserve fund. The Directors of the two Companies are to be elected according to their original regulations, but the new Administration is to establish at Tientsin a Deliberating Board, to which each Company will elect three members, to discuss the affairs of the Administration, and to report from time to time on its working to the Boards of Directors. All accounts of both Companies are to be kept in English and Chinese, and are to be rendered twice a year. The Administration will confine its activities to the mining areas of the Kaiping and Lanchow Mining Companies, within which limits no development may be made by other competitors. After the shareholders have been paid £150,000 from the profits, one-fifteenth part of all remaining profits is to be paid into the Chihli Provincial Treasury for the development of industries. Ten years from the date of signature of the agreement the Lanchow Mining Company is to have the right to purchase the entire property of the Chinese Engineering and Mining (Kaiping) Company at a just price to be agreed upon by both parties.

In accordance with the terms of the Final Agreement confirming the above conditions, the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company was dissolved and replaced by a new Company of the same name. The amalgamation came

into effect upon July 1, 1912.

OUTPUT.—The total output of the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company, Ltd., for the 12 months from July 1, 1911, to June 30, 1912, was 1.461,822 tons. The figures for the Kailan Mining Administration for the Year ended 30 June, 1920, are:—Output 4.201.888 tons. Sales 4.010,980 tons. The Company owns two steamers, s.s. Kaiping, registered tonnage 1605, carrying 3150 tons, and s.s. Kwangping, registered tonnage 1243, carrying 2150 tons, and in addition there are over 20 steamers on time charter. Chief Engineer, Alex. Docquier (Belgian).

Shafts.—There are nine shafts working, and the number of hands em-

ployed by the Administration is over 22,000.

DELIBERATING BOARD.—The Deliberating Board provided for under the

amalgamation agreement is constituted as follows:-

Major W. S. Nathan, R.E., C.M.G., P. H. Kent, Esq., M.C., and P. C. Young, Esq., C.B.E., representing the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company; and Messrs Li Shih-wei, Li Shih-chien and Wong Shoh-lien representing the Lanchow Mining Company.

The C. E. and M. Co. paid 20 per cent dividend for year ending June

30, 1920.

The authorised share capital was in January 1921, increased to £2,000,000, and the issued capital is being increased from £1.000,000 to £1.400,000 by a bonus distribution of 400,000 shares to shareholders in the ratio of 2 new shares for every five shares held.

The debenture issue (6%) now stands at £1,056,000.

PEKIN SYNDICATE, LIMITED.

This Company owns the Jameisen Collieries near Chinghuachien in Honau, Capital £1,242.822—opened 1905. Production began in 1908. The cutput for year ended 30th June, 1920, was 468,777 tons and the present average daily production is 2,500 tons. The number of men employed is about 9,000.

Frequent disputes with the adjoining native mines led in June, 1915, to an agreement with the Chung Yuan Company for the formation of the Fu Chung Corporation, with a nominal capital of \$1.000.000 subscribed equally by the Syndicate and the Company, which are also represented equally on the Board of Management. The Corporation is the sole selling agent of all the coal produced by the two concerns, and is granted exclusive coal mining rights in the Huaichingfu Prefecture outside the areas now operated.

The head office of the Syndicate is at 210 Cannon Street, London.

The head office in China is Jameisen, Honan. Agent-General and Engineer-in-Chief, J. P. Kenrick. Branches: Tientsin, Shanghai, and Hankow.

SOUTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY COMPANY,

(FUSHUN COLLIERIES) JAPANESE.

Owning the Fushun Collieries at Fushun, near Mukden, in Manchuria, connected by railway with Suchiatun on the South Manchuria Railway. Operated from April 1, 1907. Fields are unparalleled in the world for thickness and volume of seams. Calculated to contain 800,000,000 tons. Bitumincus coal with heating power of 6,800 calories. The Japanese found four pits working in 1907, the daily output being about 300 tons. They opened seven fresh mines, Oyama, Togo, (Shaft in the former has a length of 1,234 feet, and that in the latter of 925 feet) Chienchinchai, Yangpaipu, Laohutai, Lungfeng, Hsintun. Besides two open pits are in operation.

The coal belongs to the tertiary period and is surrounded by gneiss of old formation and by basalt rock. Production for the year ending March 31, 1920, 2,928,000 tons, the latest average daily output being about 10,000

tens.

Up to 1914 all the mines were worked by the pillar-and-stall system, but in 1914 sand-flushing system was installed at several of the pits with good results. Electric railways run from Fushun station to the pits and the Hunho river.

The electrification of these railways on the overhead high tension direct-current system is the first of its kind to be adopted in the Far East. Fushun coal contains 1.6 per cent nitrogen. Mond gas plant installed, cap-

able of gasifying 240 tons of coal per diem.

Plant so designed that it can be enlarged to twice the present capacity, 120,000 cubic feet per diem. Daily output of sulphate of ammonia 13 tons, most of the output going to Japan. Daily output expected to be raised to 30 tens. Brick factory has a capacity of turning out 2,000 bricks daily. Coking plant (5 ovens, each capable of heating 10 tons in 36 hours) Average yield of coke 65 per cent.

Output:	April	, 1910-March, 1913	1	899,482	tons.
. ,,	,,	1911-March, 1912	2	1,324,199	2.2
,,	,,	1912-March, 1913	3	1,471,000	,,
,,	11	1913-March, 1914	1	2,179,000	,,
.,	11	1914-March, 1918	5	2,149,000	2.2
,,	11		·	2,162,000	2.9
.,	,,	1916-March, 1917	7	2,044,000	21
.,	,,	1917 - March, 1918	}	2,311,000	12
**	99	,)	2,521,000	,,
,,		1919-March, 1920		2,928,000	21
2.7	2.7			, ,	

Head Office.—South Manchuria Railway Company (Mining Section), Dairen. Depots at Dairen, Port Arthur, Newchwang and Tientsin.

THE SHANTUNG COAL MINES.

The coal-mines previously worked by the Germans were taken over by the Japanese after the fall of Tsingtao. The following details are extracted from the February 1921 (Shantung) issue of the Far Eastern Review.

FANGTZE COAL MINES. Work at the Fangtze coal-mines in the Weihsien District, was started in 1901, the output of coal (bituminous) ranging from 200,000 to 270,000 tons per annum between 1907 and 1913. The Germans disabled the pumps after the outbreak of war with the result that the main shaft was flooded, and has been abandoned by the Japanese. Only the Briquette Factory is still in use.

Several new shafts have been sunk since the Japanese occupation, of

which the following deserve mention:

Fangtze East: This is a new mine opened by the Japanese about 1 mile S.E. of the main shaft. It is 236 feet deep, with a 30° incline to 324 ft. Output from March to December 1920, was about 30,000 tons. Present output about 150 tons per day.

Fangtze West: Two miles West of the original shaft. Now produces about 100,000 tons per annum. Four shafts ranging from 120 to 130 ft. in depth. Constant pumping necessary to keep galleries free from water. Present output about 200 tons per day. Maximum output 380 tons per day.

Fangtze North and Central Shafts. Not yet producing.

OUTPUT OF THE FANGTZE GROUP.

	Lu	mp.	Mi	xed.	Bui	!k.	Total (Tons)
	1918	1919	1918	1919	1918	1919	1918	1919
Fangtze West	3,055		32,166	68,891	1 /		37,381	
Fangtze East			_	521	1 - /	1,352		1,873
Fangtze South					190	1,120	190	1,120
Total	3,055		32,166	69,112	4,123	2,605	39,394	71,817

POSHAN COAL FIELD.

Hungshan Mines. Work was started by the Germans in 1902. First shaft sunk in 1904. Output (anthracite) 414,000 tons in 1913.

The machinery was damaged after the outbreak of war, and it was not until July 1915, that the Japanese were able to resume work, repairs being completed by May 1916. The estimated deposits are 800,000,000 tons. Depth of shafts 268 to 275 metres. Output averages 1,500 tons per day.

Year	Lump	Washed	Mixed	Dust	Other	Total.
1916 1917 1918 1919 Nov. 1920	68,260 74,145 59,440 76,051	83,299 81,210 70,050 66,764	56,457 59,035 48,076 52,513	202,391 203,828 199,620 230,101	47,530 39,326 28,254 21,465	458,437 457,544 405,440 446,894 504,250

Total output under Japanese Management: Tons 2,272,565

CHAPTER XI.

MONEY, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

In theory China uses decimal notation with a few exceptions; in actual practice its system of money, weights and measures is in a chaotic state, the standards varying not only in the different provinces, but also in the same town and in the same shop in regard to different articles.*

MONEY.

A fuller statement of Chinese moneys is given in the chapter on Finance under the heading "Currency."

The theoretical tables are :-

> 10 Cash =1 Cent. 100 Cents=1 Dollar.

Cash (the old monetary unit of the country—a copper coin with a square hele in the middle) are strung on strings, in rolls of 100, of which 10 go to the string or tiao, or chuan (kuan). In actual tender these "strings" are subjected to deductions to cover the cost of stringing, with the result that a tiao may contain from 960 to 990 cash only. The following description of the local currency in one part of Hupeh will illustrate financial conditions in China, for what is there written of the cash illustrates, mutatis mutandis, the condition of the tael, dollar and subsidiary coinage generally:—

"Wusueh, Hupeh, May 1, 1906.

"This particular part of the Hupeh province has long been distinguished for its variety of rates of exchange. A nominal 100 cash has for a long time been worth 97 in actual cash at Wusueh, 98 at Lungping 10 miles away, 97 or 98 in different classes of transactions at Tsingkuo 90 miles away, and 99 at Chichou the same distance away in another direction. To complicate matters, the only cash bills which are popular are issued by a Wusueh bank and are current in all these towns, but not at face value. At Wusueh a bill equals 1000 cash, at Lungping one has to give 10 cash and a bill for a thousand, at Chichou one must add 20 cash to the bill. When the copper 10 cash pieces became current (and the only currency, for cash is not now to be had at the banks), the banks had to settle all these monetary problems afresh. At the mint the copper pieces are sold at 98, i.e. 100 copper pieces equal 1000 cash, reckoned at 98 to the 100, so that when paying 100 cash one pays 10 pieces, but when paying 99 or 98 cash one also pays 10 pieces. At Chichou the banks decided to issue 100 copper pieces for a cash bill, thus saving money on the transaction, as they bought the pieces at Wuchang

^{*}In his Trade and Administration of the Chinese Empire (Kelly and Walsh, Ld., Shanghai), Mr. H. B. Morse discusses fully the vagaries of Chinese money, weights and measures.

[†] North-China Daily News, May 11, 1906.

at 98 and paid them out instead of 1000 copper cash at 99. At Lungping they had to be content without gains. At Wusueh the banks pondered, for if they bought the copper pieces at 98 and then gave 100 for a bill in a place where the rate was 97, they would lose 10 cash on each 100. They therefore decided to take 1 coin out of each packet they got from the mint. Had they stopped here, all would have gone smoothly, for the shopkeepers would have deducted 1 cash from each 10 copper pieces which they paid out, and no one would have lost anything. But old-time custom has allowed the banks to charge 2 cash for the piece of string on which the cash was threaded, and the banks did not like to yield this squeeze, so they proceeded to take a second copper piece out of each packet from the mint and put 8 cash back, thus getting the 2 cash for the string which they no longer provided. Of course the shopkeepers objected, for they could not divide up 2 cash among 100 coins. If they allowed this deduction, the loss of the 2 cash must inevitably fall on the man who broke the parcel of copper pieces. The result was that the matter was referred to the officials, and after plea and counter-plea the shopkeepers have won, and by proclamation the rate in Wusueh from to-morrow will be 98 to the 100, so that the banks will hand over unbroken packets of copper coins."

In North China (Shantung and Chihli), as Mr. Morse points out,* 1 cash counts for 2. The price of an article being there quoted at 100 cash, you hand over 50 coins, at 2 tiao you give what in the south constitutes 1 tiao. The same rule of deduction holds here too, and the tiao nominally of 1000 and nominally-actually of 980 cash contains actually 490 coins. At Peking, too, the rule holds good, and the tiao nominally of 100 cash, i.e. nominally of 100 an nominally-actually of 98 pieces of 10-cash, actually contains 49 pieces of 10-cash=20 cash. In Manchuria the tiao consists of 160 ordinary

(small) cash.

Exchange Values.—The exchange values between the more important kinds of Tael are as follows:—

100 Haikuan (or Customs) 'Taels=101.642395 Kuping or Treasury Taels.

=105.215 Tientsin Taels. =111.40 Shanghai Taels.

100 Kuping Taels

=109.60 Shanghai Taels.

Annual fluctuations in the Haikuan Taels are given elsewhere.

WEIGHTS.

A Weights and Measures Law was promulgated at the end of 1914, establishing a double system, one being the standard metric unit, the other based on the ying tsao ch'ih (builder's foot) for length and the Kuping tael (or liang) for weight. The Law contained provisions for the inspection of weights and measures, imposed fines for the use of untested or fraudulent measures, and sanctioned the establishment of a special plant for the manufacture of instruments of weight and measure in order to secure absolute uniformity.

The following are the units of length, area, capacity, and weight:-

Length: Ch'ih = .32 metre = 1.049867 feet.

Area: Mow (6,000 sq. ch'ih) = .06144 hectare = .15182 acre.

Capacity: Sheng=10.354688 litres=10.9416 liquid quarts or 2.7354 gallons.

Weight: Liang=37.301 grammes=1.31561 avoirdupois ounces.

The term 'li' is used to express $\frac{1}{1000}$ ch'ih (and 1800 ch'ih), $\frac{1}{1000}$ mow, and $\frac{1}{1000}$ liang.

^{*} Op. cit., p. 150.

The following tables are used :-

10 Li =1 Fên (Candareen).

10 Fên =1 Ch'ien (Mace).

10 Ch'ien=1 Liang (Tael).

16 Liang = 1 Chin (Kin) or Catty. 100 Chin =1 Tan or Picul.

For purposes of foreign trade these weights are fixed as follows:

- 1 Liang = 583.3 grs. = $1\frac{1}{3}$ oz. av. = 37.783 grammes.
- 16 Taels (Liang) = 1 Catty (Chin).
- 1 Catty = $1\frac{1}{3}$ lb. or 604·53 grammes. 100 Catties=1 Picul (Tan.)

 - 1 Picul = 133\frac{1}{3} lb or 60.453 kilogrammes = 147.67 Russian pounds.

In native trade the catty ranges from 12 to 42.5 ounces, and the number of catties to the picul will vary from 90 to 280.

LENGTH.

10 Fên =1-Ts'un (inch).

10 Ts'un =1 Ch'ih (foot).

10 Ch'ih =1 Chang (Pu or Kung).

180 Chang=1 Li.

For purposes of the foreign Customs trade the length of the Ch'ih is fixed as follows :-

1 Ch'ih=14.1 inches or 0.358 metres.

A Li, theoretically 2115 feet or two-fifths of a mile, is usually taken as a third of a mile, as being nearer the theoretical distance that the word li conveys to the Chinese mind.

In actual practice a Chinese foot (ch'ih) varies from 8.6 to 27.8 inches.* The Chinese Commercial Guide gives 100 different values of the ch'ih as actually in use. Some of "standard" lengths in various trades. etc., are as follows :-+

Inches.

ch'ih = 11.14.Carpenter's

Mason's ,, = 11.08 (10.9).

,, = 12.569.Artisan's ,, = 13.181.Board of Revenue's

Tailor's ,, = 13.85 - 14.05.

,,=14.098.Customs House

=15.769-15.69. Junk Builder's

AREA.

10 Ssu =1 Hao.

10 Hao =1 Li.

10 Li =1 Fên.

10 Fên =1 Mow.

100 Mow=1 Ch'ing.

25 Square Ch'ih=1 Pu or Kung.

240 Pu =1 Mow.

=1 Ch'ing. 100 Mow

^{*} H. B. Morse, op cit., p. 173.

[†] T. R. Jernigan, China's Business Methods and Policy. T. Fisher Unwin, London.

The mow is regarded at Shanghai by custom as equivalent to one-sixth of an English acre (7260 sq. ft.), but it varies throughout China from 3840 square feet to 9964 square feet, with one standard of 18,148 square feet.

CAPACITY.

10 Ko =1 Sheng. 10 Sheng=1 Tow. 10 Tow =1 Shih.

"Measures of capacity are seldom used except for rice and grain, and these are ordinarily sold wholesale by weight; fluids, such as oil, spirits, molasses, etc., are almost invariably sold by weight. Grain tribute is assessed on the tax note by measures of capacity, but is generally collected by weight at a rate of conversion fixed by the collectors, when it is not collected in money at rates also fixed by the collectors. The tow for tribute contains 629 cubic inches (10.31 litres), but in different parts of the Empire different standards of tow exist, ranging from 176 all the way to 1800 cubic inches" (Morse).**

^{**} Op. cit., p. 192

CHAPTER XII

COMMERCE.

Historical.

For the purposes of this chapter it is only necessary to record briefly the chief incidents leading up to the establishment of international trade in China on the footing that it now occupies.*

To pass over the names of individual travellers who visited China at various times from the third to the fifteenth century, the order in which the Western nations had (or attempted to have) direct trade dealings with the Chinese Empire is as follows:—

Portugal	1 516
Spain	1575
Holland	1604
England	
Russia	1658 Unsuccessful embassies had been sent to Peking at earlier dates.
France The United States	1660

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the ships of other countries—Denmark, Sweden, Austria, Prussia—reached China, but their trade did not attain any considerable dimensions, although the two first named had factories at Canton. From the middle of the seventeenth century Anglo-Chinese relations dominated Chinese foreign affairs, and it was left to Great Britain to fight out the principle of unfettered trade with China for all nations.

PORTUGAL.

Direct trade between Europe and China was inaugurated by Portugal. In 1511 Alfonso Dalboquerque (D'Albuquerque) captured Malacca, near the southernmost point of the Malay Peninsula, and in 1516 Rafael Perestrello sailed from Malacca to China on a prospecting expedition. to that time Chinese trade had used Singapore (Singhapura), Malacca, or some other port as a centre for transhipment, the goods being conveyed thence in Arab sailing-ships to India, Persia, etc. These latter countries had also been reached overland by Chinese trade. Perestrello returned to Malacca, and in 1517 Fernao Perez de Andrade arrived with eight ships at Changchuen (St. John's Island), seventy-five miles southwest of Macao. With two ships Andrade proceeded to Canton, and received permission from the Viceroy to trade. In the following years the attitude of the Portuguese aroused the hostility of the Chinese, and their trading depôt was attacked and destroyed in 1522. The survivors retired to Lampa (Lampaco), in Kwangtung, where a trading post existed for the next fifty years. Another expedition reached the coast of Fukien in 1518 and esablished trade centres in due course at Chuanchoufu, north of Amoy, at

^{**} For an exhaustive account of the growth of China's international relations the reader is referred to *The International Relations of the Chinese Empire*, by H. B. Morse (Kelly and Walsh, 1910)—a masterly work which nas been largely laid under contribution for the accompanying precis of events—and to Mr. A. J. Sargent's *Anglo-Chinese Commerce and Diplomacy* (Clarendon Press, Oxford).

Focchow, and at Ningpo in Chekiang. Between 1545 and 1549 an Imperial order for the general extermination of the Portuguese was put into effect. Macao was established as a trading-post in 1537 or, according to other authorities, in 1557. The Portuguese paid a rental for the peninsula until 1849 (Tls. 500 for the last hundred years, prior to that Tls. 600, and at first Tls. 1000), when they abolished the Chinese Customs House and declared the independence of the port. During the eighteenth century Macao was the chief port for Western trade with China. The cession of Hongkong to Great Britain in 1842, however, and the commercial prosperity of that port led to the downfail of Macao, which is now in a decadent condition

SPAIN.

The Spaniards were the next nation to venture upon direct relations with the Chinese, using Manila as their base. Two priests reached Canton in 1575, were favourably received by the Viceroy at Shiuhsing on the West River, and returned to Manila. The bulk of the trade that then sprang up between China and the Philippines was in the hands of the Chinese themselves, but the port of Amoy was closed from 1730 to 1842 to all foreigners except Spaniards. "The trade with the Chinese Empire, conducted by the Spanish themselves, was insignificant" (Morse).

HOLLAND.

The Dutch made attempts to open up trade with China in 1604 and 1607, but, although their ships reached Canton, the requisite permission was denied them by the Chinese at the instigation of the Macao authorities. In 1622 a Dutch force appeared off Macao, and an unsuccessful attempt was made to capture the place. With the Pescadores (in the For mosa Channel) as their base, the Dutch continued their efforts to seize Macao during the next two years, but subsequently contented themselves with occupying Formosa without opposition. They established centres at Taiwanfu, Tamsui and Kelung. In 1661 they were driven out of Formosa by Koxinga, who was maintaining an ineffectual struggle on behalf of the Ming dynasty against the usurping Manchus. Various efforts were made by the Dutch to obtain recognition in China, mainly by means of embassies to Peking (1655, 1665, 1795), which were characterized by complete acquiesscence in all Chinese demands regarding the kowtow before the Emperor. etc.; but these attempts met with no success. A very small trade was in dulged in spasmodically on the coast of Fukien, and it was not until 1762 that a Dutch factory was established at Canton.

Russia.

A visit of Russian agents is recorded as far back as 1567, but neither this nor a subsequent visit in 1619 bore any fruit in commercial development, and it was not until the latter half of the seventeenth century, when the Russian power had advanced to the Amur, that trade began. At this time it was Russia, a rising power in sore need of money, which desired the development of commerce; China, with her eye on the hegemony of Eastern Asia, wished to extend her influence, and was therefore willing to enter into trade relations, but it was not until after several decades of troubled relations that a treaty was signed—at Nerchinsk—by which trade was legalised. The Russian Government, anxious to derive a maximum of profit from the trade, allowed only official merchants to engage in it. The most pressing need of the Russian Court was for Chinese gold and silver, but a trade soon sprang up in silk, tea, damasks and nankeens rhubarb and aniseed, Russia supplying in exchange all kinds of furs. The

trade which now sprang up was further confirmed in 1727 by the Treaty of Kiachta, which established that place and another as frontier trade marts. The scanty profits made by the Russian Treasury on trade now determined the authorities to permit a certain amount of freedom in commerce; after this Kiachta assumed an importance which was never diminished until the coming of the Trans-Siberian Railway, and the creation of the great trading centre of Harbin.

FRANCE.

Trade relations between France and China date from the formation of a trading company in 1660, and from that year French ships reached Canton at irregular intervals. The company was reorganized in 1698, and thirty years later a factory was established at Canton. In 1776 (L. Richard. H. B. Morse gives the date as 1802) a French Consulate was established at that port.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

The first American ship to reach China arrived at Canton in 1784 with a cargo of ginseng, and from the outset American trade obtained a good footing, the supercargo of the vessel being made commercial agent with diplomatic power. In the first decade of the nineteenth century the imports to China in American bottoms amounted to £1,000,000 and exports to little less. A good deal of cargo for British ports was carried in these ships, which by the middle of the century had half the trade to and from Shanghai from abroad. By 1865 the Americans had also the lion's share of the shipping on the Yangtze—seven up-to-date steamers out of nine, besides others on the coast and Japan lines. Then came the decline, due to the Civil War, the change from wooden to iron ships and other causes. The only extension of trade was that made when the Pacific line was established; otherwise American trade fell off until the occupation of the Philippines, when it began to revive, and during the late war it doubled in value, while a further increase of fifty per cent was made in 1919.

ANGLO-CHINESE RELATIONS.

The first attempt on the part of the English to open up trade with China was made in 1596, when Queen Elizabeth sent a letter to the Emperor of China. The mission started, but the ship and all on board were lost at sea. In 1635 the East India Company, under licence from the Governor of the Portuguese colony of Goa, dispatched a ship to Macao, and in the following year a squadron of four (five) ships left England with a letter from King Charles to the Portuguese Captain-General at Macao. This expedition, under Captain John Weddell, reached Macao on June 25, 1637. Captain Weddell failed to obtain recognition from the Portuguese, and was obliged to force his own way to Canton, where he disposed of his cargo and loaded with sugar and ginger (Morse). In 1664 and 1674 further attempts were made to open up trade with Canton by the East India Company, but without much success, owing in part to Portuguese opposition. In 1670, however, similar efforts met with success at Amoy and in Formosa, a second ship being sent to Amoy in 1677. The year 1681 saw the Company's factory at Amoy closed, and another unsuccessful attempt to open trade at Canton. But in 1685 an Imperial decree was issued opening all the ports of China to foreign trade. This permission was given effect to at once in the case of Amoy, but the first ship to reach Canton under the new conditions did not arrive until 1689. In 1757 other counsels prevailed, and in that year in Imperial edict prohibited all foreign trade at any

other port than Canton, which in the meantime had become the main centre of foreign trade on account of the ruinous exactions enforced at other ports.

In 1702 the first attempt on the part of the Chinese Government to create a foreign trade monopoly was made by the appointment of the Hoppo (or Emperor's Merchant) "to be the sole broker through whom all foreigners must buy their teas and silk, and must sell the few foreign products for which a demand then existed." Two years later the Hoppo had to admit other merchants to a share of his monopoly, and the establishment of the Co hong (as will be seen) brought him into less direct contact with foreign merchants; but his post, that of Administrator of the Canton Customs, was not actually abolished until 1904, when its functions were transferred to the Viceroy. From the beginning of the eighteenth century the East India Company gave more serious attention to its trade with China, and arranged not only for a regular service of ships, but also for the permanent domicile of its representatives at Canton. At first the Company had to content itself with an annual "committee" of its servants on the spot during the trading season (mainly from October to April, when the monsoons favoured arrival and departure respectively); but ultimately more permanent residence was secured for a few merchants (of all nationalities), while the majority would be compelled by the Chinese to withdraw to Macao to await the next season. In 1699 royal assent had been obtained for the head of the Company's committee or council to be styled "Consul." From this time on the East India Company exercised a monopoly of the English trade with China, outside merchants trading under the licence of the Company, and the monopoly was not abolished until 1834.

In 1720 the Cantonese merchants engaged in the foreign trade formed themselves into a guild, or Co-hong, with the object of regulating prices. A protest was at once entered by the supercargoes, and the Co-hong may have been nominally suppressed, but it was quickly in existence again. In 1760 it received a formal charter, and remained in existence until abolished under the Treaty of Nanking in 1842. The system enforced under the Co-hong monopoly was that for every foreign merchant trading at Canton one of the thirteen Hong merchants had to be security, and through him alone, both in regard to what he sold and what he bought, could the foreigner transact business. "The traders during the winter season lived in the factories (the residence and office of the factor, or business agent), which were the property of the Hong merchants and rented, in whole or in part, to the foreigners' (Morse). There were thirteen factories. The exactions levied on the foreign traders throughout this period were continually the subject of protests, and the more glaring attempts to prejudice the trade for the benefit of the Chinese officials could only be remedied by threats to withdraw the ships and their consignments. In exchange for the chief exports, tea, silk and cotton cloth, the English traders brought raw cotton, opium and woollen goods, while specie was an important factor in the early trade relations of England and China.

The unsatisfactory conditions under which trade with China was being carried on and the persistent determination of the Chinese officials at Canton to expose British subjects and Government representatives to every possible indignity caused the Home Government to attempt to induce China to adopt a more reasonable attitude by dispatching embassies to Peking. The first mission, under Lord Macartney, in whose suite were Sir George Staunton and J. Barrow, reached Peking on August 21, 1793, had audience of the Emperor Chien Lung twice at Jehol, and returned without securing any definite undertaking in regard to British trade. In 1816 the embassy of Lord Amherst to the Emperor Chia Ching was even less successful, for the kowtow being insisted upon and refused, Lord Amherst *left Peking without obtaining an interview. A further attempt to improve the

trade relations between the two countries and to conciliate the Chinese was made in 1834, when Lord Napier arrived at Macao as chief superintendent of trade with certain powers of jurisdiction in Canton waters. The Viceroy of Canton refused to receive any communication from Lord Napier, unless it came through the Hong merchants, and after a stoppage of trade by the Chinese, the Chief Superintendent, thwarted of the purpose of his mission, was compelled to withdraw on September 21, 1834, to Macao, where he died three weeks later.

On the top of this contemptuous attitude towards British overtures. the studied determination of the Chinese Government not to promote in any way trade with foreign countries and the equally strong resolve of the Chinese officials on the spot to use that trade to the utmost for their own interests, came the opium question. On this subject it is only necessary to state here that, whereas the poppy has been grown in China and opium known to the Chinese medicinally for a thousand years, the practice of mixing opium with tobacco for smoking purposes was first introduced by the Dutch from Java into Formosa, and thence to Amoy and the mainland of China. Foreign opium was first brought to China by the Portuguese from Goa. In 1780 the East India Company took the English share of the trade out of the hands of private English traders, in which it had been for seven years under licence of the Company, and monopolized it for its own benefit. When, however, the Chinese Government, in 1800, showed itself resolved to suppress the trade, the Company ceased to have anything to do with opium, and the traffic reverted to private traders. In 1839 Commissioner Lin Tse-sü was appointed by the Emperor Tao Kuang to eradicate the opium habit at all costs, and the surrender of all chests of opium in the hands of British merchants was actually agreed to, under pressure by the British representative, Captain Elliot, Chief Superintendent of Trade in China. In consequence of a dispute on this point, British ships had been prohibited from entering Cantonese waters, when in an affray at Hongkong on July 7, 1839, a Chinese was killed by a party of British sailors (American participation was alleged, but was denied by the American Consul). This incident was the immediate cause of the war between Great Britain and China, commonly known under the erroneous title of the Opium War. The actual murderers of the Chinese could not be discovered, and the British Superintendent refused the Chinese demand for the execution of a substitute. The war was marked by the blockade of Canton and the capture of Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai. It terminated with the signing of a Convention at Nanking, August 29, 1842. China paid an indemnity of \$21,000.000. By the Treaty of Nanking Hongkeng was ceded to the British,* the five ports of Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo and Shanghai were opened to foreign trade, the right to appoint consuls at these ports was recognized, the Canton monopoly system was abolished, regular tariffs on imports and exports were to be established, and it was provided that the officials of corresponding rank of the two countries should be regarded as equal and communicate with one another on equal terms.

The Treaty of Nanking was followed by other Treaties still further regulating the commercial relations between China and foreign countries: the Treaty of the Bocca Tigris with the British (October 8, 1843), the Treaty of Wanghsia with the United States (July 3, 1844), the Treaty of Whampoa with France (October 24, 1844), a Convention with

^{*} Kowloon, a strip of territory on the mainland, was added by the Treaty of October 24, 1860, and to this was added, under lease for 99 years, by the Convention of June 9, 1898, the peninsula south of a line drawn between Deep Bay and Mirs Bay, together with the islands of Lantao and Lamma.

Belgium signed at Canton (July 25, 1845), and a treaty of peace, amity and commerce with Sweden and Norway signed at Canton (March 20, 1847). Shanghai was opened to foreign trade on November 17, 1843, Ningpo in December, 1843, Foochow and Amoy in June, 1844, and Canton nominally in October, 1843, but the admission of foreigners was postponed by the Treaties of April 4, 1846, and April 6, 1847.

The following years were marked by a series of outrages on foreigners by Chinese, who could not accept the new régime. A climax was reached on October 8, 1856, when a Hongkong-registered lorcha flying the British flag was boarded at Canton by Chinese officers and soldiers, who hauled down the flag and removed the crew to guard-boats. Alll attempts on the part of the British authorities to obtain redress failed, and the two nations finally found themselves at war. Great Britain in this struggle was joined by France, who had been unable to secure satisfaction at the hands of China for the murder of a missionary, and on December 29, 1857, Canton was captured by the Allies. The next year saw the British and French carrying the war to the north. The Peiho forts were taken on May 20 and China agreed to discuss terms of settlement in Tientsin in June. Negotiations for treaties of peace and commerce were opened siumltaneously by Great Britain, France, Russia and the United States, and the order in which the Treaties were signed was: Russia (June 13), United States (June 18), Great Britain (June 26), France (June 27). Russia had previously concluded a treaty at Aigun (May 16) defining Russo-Chinese boundaries along the River Amur and providing for trade on the banks of the Ussuri, Amur and Sungari. In June, 1859, the British and French plenipotentiaries, when on their way to Peking to exchange ratifications of the treaties, were fired upon by the Taku forts. After an advance by the allied forces had received a check, a bigger joint expedition was fitted out. Peking was entered on October 13, 1860, and the Treaties agreed upon in June, 1858, were ratified (with additional clauses) on October 24 (by Great Britain) and October 25 (by France). By these Treaties the Powers concerned were to appoint Ministers to reside permanently in Peking, nine ports including Tientsin were to be opened to foreign trade, Kowloon (the mainland facing Hongkong) was ceded to the British and an indemnity of Tls. 8,000,000 cach was to be paid to the Allies. The revision of the tariff system fixed by the Treaty of Nanking (5 per cent duty on imports and exports) was provided for, and this was subsequently carried into effect, a scheduled tariff of import and export duties being drawn up on November 8, 1858, at Shanghai. France also secured privileges for the propagation and practice of Christianity ("the teachings of the Lord of Heaven") and compensation for churches, schools, land and buildings that had been confiscated from Christians.

In the course of the next few years Treaties with other Powers were also signed by China: Russia (Nov. 14, 1860), Germany (Sept. 2, 1861), Portugal (Aug. 13, 1862, not ratified), Denmark (July 13, 1863), Netherlands (Oct. 6, 1863), Spain (Oct. 10, 1864), Belgium (Nov. 2, 1865), Italy (Oct. 26, 1866), United States (July 28, 1868), Austria-Hungary (Sept. 2, 1869).

The Chefoo Agreement with Great Britain (September 13, 1876) was brought about by an attack on a British Commission from India by Chinese on the Yunnan frontier. (Murder of R. A. Margary of H. M. Consular Service.) By this Agreement China undertook to allow frontier trade between Burna and Yunnan, four new ports were opened to foreign trade (Ichang, Wuhu. Wenchow, and Pakhoi), a British Mission of Exploration to Tibet was authorized, and provision was made for collection of likin on opium in addition to the tariff duty (Tls. 80 per chest as likin and Tls 30 as duty).

War between China and France over the annexation by the latter of Tongking led to the Treaty of Tientsin (April 25, 1886), by which inter alia two towns, subsequently specified as Lungchow, in Kwangsi, and Mengtze, in Yunnan, were opened to foreign trade. An additional convention between the same parties, signed in Peking, June 20, 1895, secured the open-

ing to trade of two other towns, Hokow and Szemao, in Yunnan.

The Treaty of Shimonoseki (November 8, 1895), that marked the end of the Chira-Japan War, provided for the opening of Chungking in Szechuan, Shasi in Hupeh, Soochow in Kiangsu, and Hangchow in Chekiang. The intervention of Russia, Germany, and France to prevent the cession of the Liaotung peninsula, provided for in the first draft of the treaty (April 17), procured for Russia the right to carry the Siberian Railway through Manchuria to Vladivostok, and for France the right to extend the Tongking Railway to Nanningfu in Kwangsi (June 20, 1895).

The foreign occupation of the mainland of China was brought about by the murder of two German missionaries in Shantung. By an agreement signed on March 6, 1898, China leased to Germany for 99 years the territory of Kiaochao (193 square miles), and sanctioned the construction of two lines of railway in Shantung. A similar agreement (March 27, 1898) leased to Russia for 25 years, subject to extension by mutual agreement, Port Arthur and Talienwan (Dalny or Dairen). Other agreements leased Kwangchouwan in Kwangtung to France (April 22, 1898) and Weihaiwei (285 square miles) to Great Britain (July 1, 1898).

The Boxer rising of 1900 led to the increase of China's indebtedness by £67,500,000 by way of indemnity, and prepared the ground for the three commercial treaties with Great Britain (Sept. 5, 1902), the United States

(Oct. 8, 1903), and Japan (Oct. 9, 1903).

The "Most-Favoured-Nation" clause appears first in China's international undertakings in the treaty with the United States signed at Tientsin, June 18, 1858, which was negotiated as a substitute for the Treaty of Wanghsia, July 3, 1844. The clause was inserted in the British and French treaties of the same time, and has appeared in the commercial treaties subsequently ratified with other countries.

A SKETCH OF MODERN TRADE

In the early years of the nineteenth century, when trade was carried on at the Canton factories, silk and tea were the only articles exported to the West and England took about £80,000 of the former and £1,700,000 of the latter annually, through the East India Company, which in return exported to China, besides large quantities of opium, some £30,000 worth of cotten goods, a much larger amount of woollens (£830,000 in 1814) small quantities of iron, copper, lead, and tin, and some perfumery, dyes, watches, and other sundries besides oriental produce, such as sandal wood, rattans, spices, and valuable woods.—an average annual total of £120,000 exclusive of opium.

After the first treaties had been signed—in 1842 and 1844—the foreign nations were able to conduct trade on their own lines, and there was a rapid increase. In 1833 the whole trade was valued at £10,000,000 and in 1845 at £13,000,000, and with the opening of the northern ports after the

Treaty of Tientsin there was a further increase.

The opening of the Yangtze ports in 1861-2 led to an immediate increase of trade—the import trade of Shanghai doubled from 1860 to 1863—the application of steam to navigation being necessary to render the river available as a highway for transport. The practical advantages of foreign inventions were now brought home to masses of the population in the centre of the country. At the same time an avenue was opened for the rapid

transportation of the rich resources of the central province to the coast and abroad.

The accompanying diagram (Page 209) shows the quinquennial advance in imports and exports from 1869 to 1919—a period of half a century. Previously to the first date the balance of trade had been in China's favour, but the tide had begun to turn and, with the exception of a few years in the 'eighties, imports have largely exceeded exports until the last year reviewed, when, owing to the circumstances of the war, they almost balanced. The most notable point brought out in the diagram is the sudden development which began all round at the close of the eighties. Between 1887 and 1896 the import trade doubled, but development was a little later in the case of exports, which doubled between 1894 and 1904.

The accompanying graphs (pp. 210-11) should be read in connection with the diagram of trade. They show the percentages borne by the leading

items in the import and export trades in 1879, 1899, and 1919.

EXPORTS.

The most salient point as regards exports is the decline in tea, which in 1820 represented three-fourths, in 1867 60 per cent. which proportion shrank to 16 per cent in 1899, and is now, owing in part to the war, only 4 per cent. Silk has been more successful in holding its own. In 1860 China supplied half of the world's raw silk, and for many years after that the trade was prosperous,—the average values of silk exports in the 'seventies amounted to almost £10,000,000 annually. But the coming of disease soon after this and the competition of Japan, where the Government fostered the industry and combated disease, have prevented this valuable product from taking its right place in the trade—it is true, of course, that the trade has increased (the average annual value of silk exports during the last decade has been Tls. 103,000,000 as against Tls. 75.000,000 for the previous decade)—but, in view of the much higher position reached by Japan from so much humbler beginnings, the Chinese trade is disappointing, and there can be no doubt that with scientific methods it could be at least doubled.

Sugar is the only other item of sufficient importance (3 per cent) to have special mention among the 1879 exports. Twenty years later, however, several other articles appear in the list the most prominent being oilseeds and their products, oils and efuse cake. (6 per cent). These include soya beans-sent to Japan with beancake-a little sesamum seed, and wood oil, the trade in which was of long standing. Another item is skins, furs, and hides (4 per cent) valued at nearly eight million taels. This trade, begun with the great famine in 1877, when thousands of cattle were slaughtered for food and their hides exported, expanded between 1890 and 1895, when goatskins began to come forward, the Western markets being in increasing need of leather, and by 1899 had reached a prominent place from which it has not receded. The "other textiles" referred to in the graph are hemp cotton, jute and ramie. Chinese raw cotton is shipped to Japan in considerable quantities (the annual average export of the last decade being 54,000 tons, of which Japan took 80 per cent) while the United States is taking an increasing interest in this trade also.

The item cereals, etc., includes all vegetable foodstuffs, and will be found to gain in importance later. The introduction of variety into the list of Chinese exports dates from the early eighties, when the people of the interior were beginning to become familiar with Western goods through the influence of the Treaty ports and of steamers with their rapid transit. Also each successive war was followed by further openings of ports, those of Yuanan by France in 1886, several after the Japanese war, and the Manchurian cities after the Russo-Japanese struggle. The Upper Yangtze

and the West River were opened in the nineties, and the latter years or that decade were a period of great activity in trade, the establishment of the Imperial Post Office in 1896 having an immediate effect in this direction. while the opening of railways in Chihli and Manchuria had an immediate effect in expanding trade.

The modern development of China dates from the Treaty of Shimonoseki which opened up inland waters, gave foreigners the right to purchase goods in the interior, and to establish factories at the Treaty ports. This was followed by the concession-hunting period, the extension of railways, of telegraphs and of electric light installations, and the openings of mines, with the introduction of modern commercial methods. The advance in the value of exports is shown in the following table;

Percentage advance of Exports from 1900 to 1919. 1900-1901 1901-1902 1902-1907 1907-1909 1909-1913 1913-1919 6 20 35 30 20 56

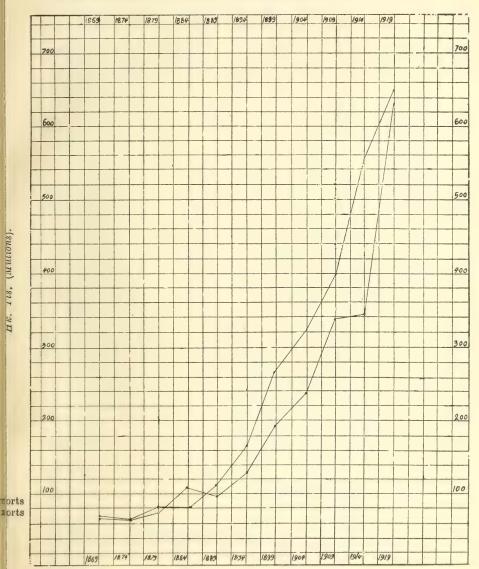
The year 1909 stands out as a landmark in the trade of China, no less than 1899 and 1919. It was marked by a great expansion of exports, and by a revival of the home trade, political conditions being tranquil. anti-foreign spirit was in the air, but, in the words of a British Consular report, "its manifestations were accompanied by unmistakeable stirrings of a national vitality which must in the long run conduce to the betterment of commercial relations between China and the outer world, however disintegrating its early effects may be." And it is true that the development of national resources, resulting from this movement, has reacted on commercial prosperity. A new feature of this time was the opening of industrial exhibitions throughout the country, and these have certainly stimulated industry. Exports have shown a steady advance since 1909, in spite of the political troubles which have hardly ceased since the outbreak of the Revolution in 1912. Two noteworthy features of 1909 were the springing up of the trade in soya beans and the decrease in the quantity of tea exported. The exports of tea remained however at about the same level as regards value until the war. from the restrictive effects of which the trade has not recovered,, its only hope lying in improved methods of production.

IMPORTS.

The year 1879 was marked by great commercial prosperity, and has been called a stage in the forward progress of China, full of significance for the future. Opium, with 44 per cent of the total Import trade, reached the record figure of £10,250,000; cotton goods, especially shirtings and sheetings, jeans and drills, with yarn and thread, were rapidly increasing in quantity, and included a considerable share of American goods; woollens were unusually prominent; metals had varied but little in the past ten years—the iron trade was in a satisfactory condition, lead was imported for tea chests and tin for joss foil. As regards sundries, they comprised chiefly raw cotton, matches, dyestuffs, and fishery products and spices—then considered as luxuries. The importation of kerosene cil only began in 1876, but it was rapidly attaining popularity. Very little rice was imported at this time.

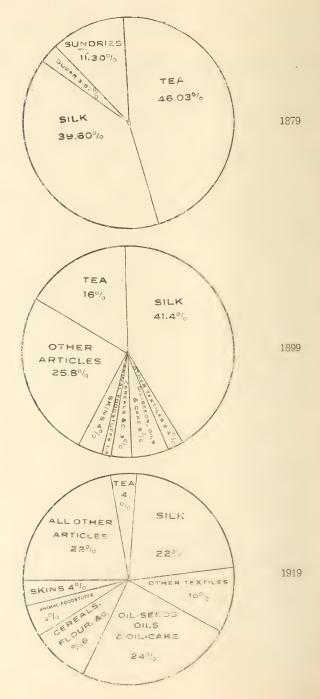
Twenty years later a great change had come over the constituents of the import trade. The remarkable growth of trade began in the late eighties and was especially manifest in the late nineties. The value of the opium imported, though only slightly less than in 1879, was now only 13.5 per cent of the total imports, and the amount imported had decreased from 83,000 to 59.000 piculs. Cottons had increased from 22 to 103 million

QUINQUENNIAL ADVANCE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS 1869-1919.

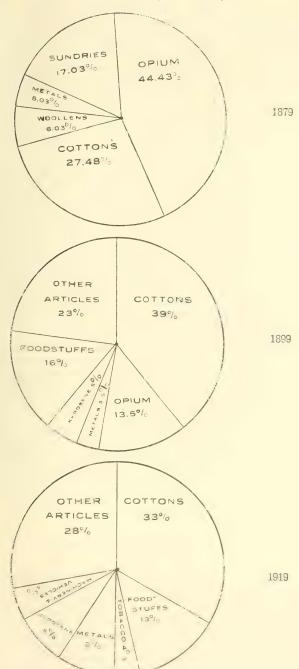


HK. Its. (Mullons).

PERCENTAGES OF EXPORTS, 1879, 1899, 1919.



PERCENTAGES OF IMPORTS, 1879, 1899, 1919.



taels, of which Indian yarn provided over one-third. Cotton goods de luxe, such as chintzes, printed twills, cambrics and handkerchiefs, were now purchased in large quantities. The imports of kerosene oil now amounted to an average of 100,000 gallons annually; metals had however, not advanced proportionately, but the growth of sundries is notable, showing the progress in wealth and a desire for comfort and luxury. China was now able to purchase large quantities of foodstuffs from abroadthe imports of rice in 1899 were valued at Tls. 18,000,000 and of sugar at Tls. 10,000,000. The influence of railways in the north was already beginning to be felt, and predictions were made of the enormous advance in trade which would follow their extension to the central region of China. A special feature of this period was the expansion of Japanese trade with China, especially after the Sino-Japanese war.

The Japanese share of the foreign trade had risen from 3.50 per cent in the quinquennium ending in 1879 to 8.65 in 1899 and her tonnage from 140,000 to nearly 3,000,000. She had become a competitor both with foreign countries and with native industry, supplying large quantities of cotton piece goods, often made with Chinese cotton, woven fabrics, soap, matches, umbrellas, and a constantly increasing variety of sundry goods, besides large quantities of copper. Competing with native goods were camphor, dyes, fans, medicines, paper, coal, timber, etc. But the development of Japanese trade up to 1899 was slight in comparison with that which was to follow in the course of the next, two decades. third Import graph is conspicuous by the elimination of opium. The money formerly laid out on the purchase of the drug is now invested in larger supplies of kerosene oil, in machinery and vehicles, in tobacco and cigarettes, in an increased supply of metals, and in cotton goods; the percentage of the latter has sunk from 39 to 33, but the actual value imported has almost

exactly doubled (Tls. 103,000,000 to Tls. 209,000,000).

A striking feature of the import trade is the increase in the absorption of foodstuffs from abroad. 1919 is a bad year for comparison, owing to the world shortage, but in the quinquennium ending in that year the average annual import of foodstuffs amounted to Tls. 111,000,000, or 20 per cent of the total imports. These figures show that the old order-China importing opium, cottons and a few sundries-has been completely swept away, and, although the country is looked to as a large supplier of foodstuffs to the Western world, it is no less an importer on a large scale. The chief items in the list of foodstuffs imported are sugar, rice and fishery products, the combined total of which amount to Tls. 80,000,000 out of the Tls. 110,000,000 mentioned above. These articles all come from neighbouring countries; with the introduction of scientific methods of agriculture there should be no necessity for China to import rice or sugar, and if this were accomplished, larger funds would be avilable to purchase the manufactures of the West.

COMPARISON WITH INDIA.

In 1899 an authority on trade put forward the dictum that, in order to form an idea of what future prospects were for China it would be fair to make a comparison with India, the area and products of which are very similar to those of China, the latter, however, having a larger population. greater fertility and larger mineral resources, while in the former country trade was assisted by good roads, railways and lightness of taxation with the result that the exports from India were then worth three times those from China. With equal opportunities, which the building of railways and the opening of mines would bring about, it was prophesied that the discrepancy would disappear. Although the figures of Indian trade for 1919

are not available, and in spite of the difficulty of exact analysis caused by the vagaries of exchange, it would certainly appear that China, with a total trade of £405,000,000 in 1919, has at last drawn level with her great rival. As regards exports, India has the advantage in raw cotton, (average export 400,000 tons—mostly to Japan, and thence in manufactured form to China); food-grams (over 20 per cent of the total exports), and in jute, but China has her valuable silk trade, capable of great expansion, to place against these, and in seeds and hides is new able to hold her own, while her trade in animal foodstuffs and minerals is gradually expanding. The parallel course of the export trade of the countries will be extremely interesting to observe during future years. The increase in the foods and raw material produced by these two peoples, which aggregate almost half of the total population of the world, is of paramount importance to the remaining peoples.

(For Statistics of Foreign Trade see next page.)

THE CHINESE MARITIME CUSTOMS.

By the Treaty of Nanking China undertook to establish at the five ports open to foreign trade a fair reasonable tariff of export and import dues. In 1843 Shanghai was declared an open port and a Customs House was duly established. The native city of Shanghai fell into the hands of the Taipings in 1853, and with it the Customs House. After an interval during which no duties were collected, the British and American Consuls in Shanghai decided that their respective nationals had to continue to declare the nature of their imports and exports and to pay or to deposit bonds for the payment of a 5 per cent duty. This system lasted until June 29, 1854, when an agreement was made with the Shanghai Taotai, then a refugee in the foreign concession, that a Customs Office should be established under foreign control, each of the Consuls of Great Britain, the United States and France nominating an inspector. This Customs Office was opened on July 12, 1854.

Of the three Inspectors appointed the British nominee alone, Mr. T. F. Wade, spoke Chinese, and the supreme direction of the Customs House devolved on him. He was summoned to the Peking Legation in the following year and his place was taken by Mr. H. N. Lay. The latter was confirmed in his post and became after the Treaty of Tientsin the first Inspector-General of the Customs Service, which in the course of these few years had been extended to the other open ports in China. In 1859 Mr. Robert Hart was appointed Deputy Commissioner of the Canton Customs, and became Acting Inspector-General when Mr. Lay obtained leave of absence to proceed to England. Mr. Lay had elaborated a scheme for the purchase of revenue cruisers by China for the purpose of suppressing piracy, and in England bought eight vessels, which were dispatched to China under the command of Captain Osborne, R.N. His action was repudiated by the Chinese authorities and owing to the consequent disagreement Mr. Lay was forced to resign his post. Mr. Robert Hart became Inspector-General of the Imperial Martime Customs on November 30, 1863. The head offices were transferred to Peking from Shanghai, and a complete reorganization of the Service was introduced. Mr. Hart, who was knighted in 1882, retained the post of Inspector-General until his death on September 21, 1911. He had left Peking in May, 1908, nominally on leave of absence, but it was understood that he would not return to China to take up active work again. For two years Sir Robert Bredon, Deputy Inspector-General was acting Inspector-General. He was succeeded in that capacity in April, 1910, by Mr. F. A. Aglen, (Now Sir Francis Aglen, K. B. E.) who after the death of Sir Robert Hart received the substantive appointment of Inspector-General by Imperial rescript on October 25, 1911. In addition to collecting duties on imports and exports, the Imperial

Maritime Customs are charged with the collection of (1) duties on the coasting trade in foreign-built bottoms, whether Chinese or foreign owned; (2)

(Continued on Page 215.)

GROSS VALUE OF THE FOREIGN TRADE OF CHINA, 1910 TO 1920.

YEAR.		Gross		0		
		IMPORTS. Chinese Produce.		Foreign Produce.	TOTAL.	GRAND TOTAL.
		Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
1910		476,553,402	380,833,328	13,588,508	394,421,836	870,986,477
1911		482,576,127	377,338,166	11,072,184	388,410,350	
1912		485,726,080	370,520,403	12,629,049	383,149,452	868,875,532
1913		586,290,431	403,305,546	16,127,874	419,433,420	1,005,723,851
1914		584,209,003	336,226,629	14,967,621	371,194,250	955,403,253
1915		477,064,005	418,861,164	22,588,286	441,449,450	918,513,455
1916		535,268,426	481,797,366	18,861,431	500,658,797	1,035,927,223
1917		577,381,339	462,931,630	27,862,565	490,794,195	1,068,175,534
1918		577,643,803		22.750,721	508,633,752	1,086,277,555
1919		679,529,544	630,809,411	32,531,863	663,341,274	1,342,870,818
3920		799,960,206	541,631,300	37,709,976	579,341,276	1,379,301,482

NET VALUE OF THE FOREIGN TRADE OF CHINA, 1910 TO 1920.

YEAR.	NET IMPORTS.*	Exports.	TOTAL.
1910	Hk. Tls. 462,964,894 471,503,943 473,097,031 570,162,557 569,241,382 454,475,719 516,406,995 549,518,774 554,893,082 646,997,681 762,250,230	Hk. Tls. 380,833,328 377,338,166 370,520,403 403,305,545 356,226,629 418,861,164 481,797,366 462,931,630 485,883,031 630,809,411 541,631,300	Hk. T7s. 843.798,222 848,842,109 843,617,434 973,468,103 925,468,011 873,336,883 998,204,361 1,012,450,404 1,040,776,113 1,277,807,092 1,303,881,530

^{*}Net imports, i.e., the value of the Foreign Goods imported direct from Foreign Countries, less the value of the Foreign Goods re-exported to Foreign Countries during the year.

The values given in the above tables do not include the value of goods carried coastwise, nor do they comprise the whole extent of the Foreign Trade, inasmuch as vessels of Chinese type, which are not within the control of the Maritime Customs, ply between Foreign and Chinese (both Treaty and non-Treaty) Ports.

tonnage dues on shipping; (3) transit duties exempting foreign imports from further taxation on removal inland; (4) likin (special levy in addition to the tariff) on foreign opium. They are also responsible for the lighting of the coast and some inland waterways, and at Shanghai they maintain a force of river police. All moneys collected by the Customs are paid to an official Customs Bank, attached to each office, which is under the control of a Chinese Superintendent.

By Imperial Decree of May 9, 1906, the Maritime Customs, which had hitherto been (more nominally than actually) under the Chinese Foreign Office, was placed under the direct control of a new Board specially

created for this purpose-the Shuiwuchu or Revenue Council.

The Imperial Chinese Post Office, which grew up under the Imperial Maritime Customs and was formally recognized by Imperial Edict on March 20, 1896, was ordered on May 29, 1910, to be separated from the Service and to be put under the Ministry of Posts and Communications (Yuchuanpu), and the actual transfer was carried out in May, 1911.

The administration of the Customs Service is now divided into two main section:—(1) the Revenue Department, and (2) the Marine Department.

ment.

The Inspectorate-General.

On February 13, 1898, in reply to a letter from Sir Claude Macdonald, the British Minister to Peking, the Chinese Foreign Office (then Tsungli Yamen) gave assurance that the Inspector-General of the Maritime Customs should be a British subject so long as British trade predominates in China. Native Customs.

Native Customs Houses exist side by side with the Maritime Customs at the treaty ports, as well as at all important stations on the coast and inland. At the treaty ports the trade carried on in Chinese sailing craft (the junk traffic) comes under their jurisdiction. By the Peace Protocol (1901) the native Customs Houses within fifteen miles of a treaty port have been placed under the supervision of the Foreign Commissioner of Customs of that port, with the result that a regular tariff has in these cases been substituted for the irregular levy or bargaining customary at native Customs stations. Under the administration of Yuan Shih-kai an attempt was made to reform the native customs, by adjusting the rates which had remained, at least nominally, the same for over a century, and by introducing improved methods of control and collection. The new rate is $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent ad valorem. The staff of the Native Customs in 1918 comprised 1214 Chinese, together with 576 (62 foreigners) members of the Maritime Customs staff detailed for Native Customs work.

The ports where the transfer of the native stations has been effected are:—Amoy, Canton, Chefoo, Foochow, Ichang, Kiukiang, Kiungchow, Kongmoon, Newchwang, Ningpo, Pakhoi, Santuao, Shanghai, Shasi, Swatow,

Tientsin, Wenchow, Wuchow, Wuhu.

(For Native Customs revenues see next page.)

MARINE DEPARTMENT.

For the purposes of the lighting of the coast of China the coast-line is divided among the following Customs districts:—

DISTRICT.

LIMITS.

1. Pakhoi.

Tonkin frontier to Waichow Island. Hainan coast: Waichow Island to Hailingshan.

Kiungchow (Hoihow).
 Kongmoon.

West River from Samchow to sea: Kumchuk Creek, Wangmoon approach to West River.

4. Samshui.

West River from Cocks Comb to Samchow and Fatshan Branch.

(Continued on page 218).

NATIVE CUSTOMS REVENUE, 1917 TO 1919

PORT	_ 1917.	1918.	1919.
(Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
Newchwang	144,843.253	115,882.436	87,608.930
Tientsin	999,052.508*	1,121,931.377*	1,298,985.989*
Chefoo	81,058.428	88,016.173	90,703.788
Ichang	55,404:416	39,115.609	52,147.887
Shasi	11,831.870	8,127.306	12,098.716
Kiukiang	347,067.818	343,792.512	421,706.186
Wuhu	686,430·400	762,536.814	1,042,426.129
Shanghai	229,952.175	232,399,882	256,992.670
Ningpo	125,159.696	121,016.049	111,191.837
Wenchow	48,583.843	51,577.805	50,015.585
Santuao	84,486.081	83,439.316	91,055.232
Foochow	243,506.982	236,192.726	224,126,094
Amoy	71,551.288	84,728.601	101,921.233
Swatow	122,545.945	121,719.241	122,093.916
Canton	285,103.043	299,645.184	273,449.748
Kongmoon	69,036.563	56,911,135	72,875.001
Wuchow	135,570.881	177,349.769	148,069.764
Kiungchow	25,083.837	19,601.199	23,518.042
Pakhoi	9,463.102	10,052.202	12,721.556
		:	
TotalHk. Tls.	3,775,732.129	3,974,035.336	4,493,708.303

^{*} Not including the Outward Transit Dues collected on behalf of and remitted to the

SUMMARY OF LIGHTS, LIGHT-VESSELS, LIGHT-BOATS, BUOYS, AND BEACONS IN CHINESE WATERS.

Customs District	Lights	Light- vessels	Light- boats	Buoys	Beacons	Total
Pakhoi	•••	***	***	3	251	3
Kiungchow	4	•••	400	3	1	8
Kongmoon	3	•••	•••	***	2	5
Samshui	2	•••	1	•••	1	4
Wuchow	•••	***	•••	16	•••	16
Canton	25	***	•••	15	17	57
Swatow	6	•••	•••	3	1	10
Amoy	4	***	•••	10	16	30
Foochow	5	***	•••	16	14	35
Santuao	2	***	834	1	1	4
Wenchow	2	•••	•••	2	1	5
Ningpo	6	•••		1	5	12
Shanghai	16	3	•••	45	36	100
Chinkiang	7	m	5	3	9	24
Wuhu	6	•••	5	•••	3	14
Kiukiang	18	•••	15	•••	12	45
Hankow	15	•••	24	***	8	47
Yochow	7	•••	• • •	25	6	38
Changsha	4	•••	•••	2	10	16
Ichang	•••	•••	•••	2	• • •	2
Chefoo	9	***	•••	6	6	21
Tientsin	7	1	2	2	9	21
Newchwang	•••	1	***	9	8	18
Harbin,	38	•••	•••	62	719	819
Total	186	5	52	226	885	1,354

5.	Wuchow.	West River from Wuchow to Cocks Comb.
6.	Canton.	Hailingshan to 114° E. longitude.
7.	Swatow.	Mirs Point to the Lamocks.
8.	Amoy.	The Lamocks to Chuanchoufu (Chinchien).
9.	Foochow.	Chinchen to Ragged Point.
10.	Santuao.	Ragged Point to Namkuan.
	Wenchow.	Namkuan to Taichow.
12.	Ningpo.	Taichow to Hangehow Bay.
13.	Shanghai.	Hangchow Bay to the old mouth of the Yellow
	8	River (34° N. lat.) and up the Yangtze to
		the Langshan Crossing.
14.	Chinkiang.	The Yangtze from the Langshan Crossing to
	c	the Icheng Rocks from Vine Point to Nan-
		king. [Rosina Rock.
15.	Nanking.	The Yangtze from the Icheng Rocks to the
16.	Wuhu.	The Yangtze from the Rosina Rock to Anking,
20.	77 63.161	and from Nanking to Tatung.
17.	Kiukiang.	The Yangtze from Anking to the Matsushan,
2.11		and from Tatung to the Matsushan.
18.	Hankow.	The Yangtze from the Matsushan to Singti.
19.	Yochow.	From Singti to Low Point and the waterways
201		between Yochow and Changteh.
20.	Changsha.	The Siang River above Lolintan.
21.	Ichang.	From Yochow to the gorge above Ichang.
22.	Chefoo.	From the old mouth of the Yellow River to
		the Tatsinho.
23.	Tientsin.	From the Tatsinho to Shanhaikuan.
24.	Newchwang.	From Shanhaikuan to Dairen.

TREATY PORTS, MARTS, ETC.

Α.	A. Customs Stations.					
	Port.	Province.	Date of Customs Opening	By Treaty with	Estimated Chinese Popula- tion 1920.	
1.	Aigun	Heilungkiang.	July, 1909	Japan, 1905	15,000	
				Great Britain, 1842.		
				United States, 1903.		
				Great Britain, 1842.		
				Japan, 1903		
				Great Britain, 1858.		
				Great Britain, 1858.		
				Imperial Decree, 1898		
				Great Britain, 1890.		
		(Shengking)			124,000	
11.	Foochow	Fukien	July, 1861	Great Britain, 1812	624,000	
12.	Hangchow	Chekiang	Oct., 1896	Japan, 1895	. 892,100	
13.	Hankow	Hupeh	Jan., 1862	Great Britain, 1858.	. a1,461.500	
14.	Harbin	Kirin	July, 1909	Japan, 1905	150.400	
15.	Hunchun	Kirin	Jan., 1910	Japan, 1905	3.800	
16.	Ichang	Hupeh	April, 1877.	Great Britain, 1876.	55,000	
					(Tsingtao)	
	Kiaochao	Shantung	July, 1899	(2)	67.800	
				Great Britain, 1858.		
19.		Hainan	April, 1876	Great Britain, 1858.	59,000	
	(Hoihow)					
				Great Britain, 1902.		
21.	Kowloon	Kwangtung	April, 1897	Great Britain, 1886.		

Port.	Province.	Date of Customs Opening	By Treaty with	Estimated Chinese Population, 1920.
24. Lungchow 25. Lungkow 26. Manchouli 27. Mengtze 28. Nanking 29. Nanning 30. Newchwang 31. Ningpo 32. Pakhoi 33. Samshui 34. Sansing 35. Santuao 36. Shanghai 37. Shasi 38. Soochow 39. Suifenho 40. Swatow 41. Szemao 42. Tatungkow 43. Tengyueh 44. Tientsin	Kirin Kwangsi Shantung Heilungkiang. Yunnan Kiangsu Kwangsi Shengking Chekiang Kwangtung Kwangtung Kwangtung Kirin Fukien Kiangsu Hupeh Kiangsu Kirin Kwangtung Kirin Kwangtung Kirin Kolangsu Hupeh Kiangsu Kirin Kwangtung Yunnan Shengking Yunnan Chihli	Jan., 1910 June, 1889 Nov., 1915 Feb., 1907 Aug., 1889 May, 1899 Jan., 1907 May, 1864 May, 1861 April, 1877 June, 1897 July, 1909 May, 1899 June, 1854 Oct. 1896 Sept., 1896 Feb., 1908 Jan., 1860 Jan., 1897 Mar, 1907 May, 1902 May, 1902 May, 1861	Japan, 1905 France, 1886 France, 1886 Japan, 1915 Japan, 1905 France, 1886 France, 1886 France, 1858 Great Britain, 1897. Great Britain, 1876. Great Britain, 1876. Great Britain, 1897. Japan, 1905 Imperial Decree, 1898 Great Britain, 1842 Japan, 1895 Japan, 1895 Japan, 1895 Great Britain, 1858. France, 1895 Japan, 1903 Great Britain, 1870. Great Britain, 1897. Great Britain, 1897. Great Britain, 1897.	13,000 5,400 11,000 10,000 392,100 64,500 627,700 20,000 1,400 8,000 1,500,000 4,300 500,000 4,300 85,000 10,200 4,200 10,000 800,000
45. Wenchow	Chekiang Kwangsi	April, 1877 June, 1897	Great Britain, 1858 Great Britain, 1897	200,900 50,000
47. Wuhu	Anhui	April, 1877	Great Britain, 1870 Great Britain, 1893	126,100
49. Yochow	Hunan	Nov., 1899	Imperial Decree, 1898	4,500

(1) By an Agreement dated May 30, 1907, Japan undertook to place the Dairen Customs under the control of the Maritime Customs.

(2) By an Agreement dated Dec. 2, 1905, Germany placed the Kiaochao Customs under the control of the Maritime Customs, though the European staff of the Customs was to be of German nationality. A similar agreement was signed on Aug. 6, 1915, by which Japanese were to be appointed to the posts previously held by Germans, and the Customs duties, less 20 o/o were to be turned over to the Chinese Maritime Customs.

(3) No Customs Revenue is collected at Yatung.

B. Opened to Trade.

In addition to the above "ports" the following places have declared open to international trade:—

T()	international trade:					
In	Mongolia		By	Agreem	ent with	h
	Taonan		_	Japan,	1915	
In	Manchuria					
	Mukden	(Shengking)		U.S.,	1903	
	Fakumen	"		Japan,	1905	
	Fenghuangcheng	,,		,,	,,	
	Hsinmintun	,,		2.2	,,	
	Tiehling	,,		,,	,,	
	Tungkiangtze	.,		,,	,,	
	Yingkow (Port of Newchwang)	,,				
	Liaoyang	,,		Japan,	1915	
	Taonan	(Kirin)		2.2	1905	

	Changchun (Kwangchengtze)	(Kirin)	Japan, 1915
	Kirin	1)	,, ,,
	Ninguta	,,	Japan, 1909
	Chuitzuchien)		
	Toutaokou } Chientao	,,	"
	Paitsaokou)	,,	"
	Tsitsihar	(Heilungkiang)	Japan, 1905
	Hailar	,,	"
In	Chihli		
	Chihfeng		Japan, 1914
	Dolonor		,, ,,
	Kueihuacheng		" "
	Hulutao		"
	Kalgan		,, ,,
In	Sinkiang		
	Kashgar		Russia, 1860
In	Shantung		
	Choutsun	Imperial	Decree, 1904
	Tsinanfu		Decree, 1904
	Weihaiwei		reat Britain)
	Weihsien		Decree, 1904
In	Kiangsu	-	· ·
	Woosung (near. Shanghai)	Imperial	Decree, 1898
In	Kwangtung		· ·
	Kwangchouwan	Leas	ed to France
In	Szechuan		
	Wanhsien (Customs branch	only, 1917)	
In	Tibet		
	Gartok / Great Britain	n. Tibetan Treaty, Septem	nber 7, 1904
	Gyangtze (co	onfirmed by China, April 2	7, 1906)
C.	Ports of Call.		
-	YANGTZE STAGES		
1			
	a. Tatung (Anhui)	For	Ву
	O. Aliking (,,)	TD :	
	a Hulrow (Kionagi)	Passengers	Chefoo
	b. Anking (,,) c. Hukow (Kiangsi)	Passengers and	Agreement
	d. Wusueh (Hupeh)	and	
	d. Wusueh (Hupeh) e. Lukikow (,,)	and	Agreement
	d. Wusueh (Hupeh) e. Lukikow (,,) f. Kiangyin (Kiangsu)	and Cargo So	Agreement
	d. Wusueh (Hupeh) e. Lukikow (,,) f. Kiangyin (Kiangsu) g. Icheng (,,)	$\left\{egin{array}{ll} ext{and} & ext{Cargo} \ ext{For} & ext{} \end{array} ight\}$	Agreement eptember 13, 1876
	d. Wusueh (Hupeh) e. Lukikow (,,) f. Kiangyin (Kiangsu) g. Icheng (,,) h. Huangchihkang (Hupeh)	and Cargo So	Agreement eptember 13, 1876 Yangtze
11	d. Wusueh (Hupeh) e. Lukikow (,,) f. Kiangyin (Kiangsu) g. Icheng (,,) h. Huangchihkang (Hupeh) i. Huangchow (,,)	$\left\{egin{array}{ll} ext{and} & ext{Cargo} \ ext{For} & ext{} \end{array} ight\}$	Agreement eptember 13, 1876 Yangtze Regulations,
11.	d. Wusueh (Hupeh) e. Lukikow (,,) f. Kiangyin (Kiangsu) g. Icheng (,,) h. Huangchihkang (Hupeh) i. Huangchow (,,) WEST RIVER STAGES.	$\left\{egin{array}{l} ext{and} \ ext{Cargo} \ \end{array} ight\} \left\{egin{array}{l} ext{For} \ ext{Passengers} \end{array} ight\}$	Agreement eptember 13, 1876 Yangtze Regulations, August, 1898
11.	d. Wusueh (Hupeh) e. Lukikow (,,) f. Kiangyin (Kiangsu) g. Icheng (,,) h. Huangchihkang (Hupeh) i. Huangchow (,,) WEST RIVER STAGES. a. Kumchuk (Kwangtung)	$\begin{cases} \text{ and } \\ \text{Cargo} \end{cases} $ $\begin{cases} \text{For } \\ \text{Passengers} \end{cases}$ $\begin{cases} \text{Burma Agree} \end{cases}$	Agreement eptember 13, 1876 Yangtze Regulations, August, 1898 ement, Ferb., 1897
11.	d. Wusueh (Hupeh) e. Lukikow (,,) f. Kiangyin (Kiangsu) g. Icheng (,,) h. Huangchihkang (Hupeh) i. Huangchow (,,) WEST RIVER STAGES. a. Kumchuk (Kwangtung) b. Shuihsing ,,	$\begin{cases} \text{ and } \\ \text{Cargo} \end{cases} $ $\begin{cases} \text{For } \\ \text{Passengers} \end{cases}$ $\begin{cases} \text{Burma Agree} \end{cases}$	Agreement eptember 13, 1876 Yangtze Regulations, August, 1898 ement, Ferb., 1897
11.	d. Wusueh (Hupeh) e. Lukikow (,,) f. Kiangyin (Kiangsu) g. Icheng (,,) h. Huangchihkang (Hupeh) i. Huangchow (,,) WEST RIVER STAGES. a. Kumchuk (Kwangtung) b. Shuihsing ,, c. Paktau ,, d. Takhing	and Cargo So For Passengers Burma Agree Agree Mackay Trea	Agreement eptember 13, 1876 Yangtze Regulations, August, 1898 ement, Ferb., 1897 Aty, Sept., 1902
11.	d. Wusueh (Hupeh) e. Lukikow (,,) f. Kiangyin (Kiangsu) g. Icheng (,,) h. Huangchihkang (Hupeh) i. Huangchow (,,) WEST RIVER STAGES. a. Kumchuk (Kwangtung) b. Shuihsing ,, c. Paktau ,, d. Takhing ,, e. Leting	For Passengers Burma Agree Burma Agree	Agreement eptember 13, 1876 Yangtze Regulations, August, 1898 ement, Ferb., 1897 ity, Sept., 1902 ement, Feb., 1897
11.	d. Wusueh (Hupeh) e. Lukikow (,,) f. Kiangyin (Kiangsu) g. Icheng (,,) h. Huangchihkang (Hupeh) i. Huangchow (,,) WEST RIVER STAGES. a. Kumchuk (Kwangtung) b. Shuihsing ,, c. Paktau ,, d. Takhing ,, e. Loting ,,	For Passengers Burma Agree	Agreement eptember 13, 1876 Yangtze Regulations, August, 1898 ement, Ferb., 1897 ity, Sept., 1902 ement, Feb., 1897 ity, Sept., 1902 oty, Sept., 1902
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LIST OF SETTLEMENTS AND CONCESSIONS.*

The following is a list of the Settlements and Concessions in China:-

A. THE ORIGINAL FIVE PORTS-

(1) Shanghai—

The International Setlement (1843)

The French Settlement (1849)

Woosung (thrown open to foreign trade and residence in 1898, not by Treaty with any Power, but by the direct initiative of the Chinese Government).

(2) Amoy-

British Concession (1851-2)

Japanese Concession (1900)

American Concession (a continuation of the British Concession and known by this name until 1899).

Kulangsu International Settlement (proclaimed as an international Settlement by the Chinese authorities on the 1st May, 1902).

(3) Canton--

British Concession acquired in 1861 and known locally as "Shameen".

(4) Foochow (opened in 1842; no defined area).

(5) Ningpo ("Campo" location set apart in 1844; no defined area).

. UPPER YANGTZE PORTS-

(1) Hankow-

British Concession (1861).

British Concession Extension (1898).

Ex-Russian Concession (1886).

French Concession (1886; extended 1902).

Ex-German Concession (1895; extended 1898). Japanese Concession (1898; extended 1906).

(2) Changsha—
General Foreign Settlement (1904).

(3) Chungking—.

Japanese Settlement (1901).

C. LOWER YANGTZE PORTS-

(1) Kiukiang—

British Concession (1861).

(2) Wuhu-

General Foreign Settlement (1904; originally marked out in 1877 for a British Concession but never taken up).

(3) Nanking-

General Foreign Settlement.

(4) Chinkiang-

British Concession (1861).

D. NORTHERN PORTS-

(1) Tsinanfu Choutsun Weihsien General Foreign Settlements (1916).

(2) Tientsin-

British Concession (1861).

British Concession Extension (1897; extramural area added in 1903).

French Concession (1861)

Ex-German Concession (1899).

Ex-Russian Concession (1903).

^{*} British Chamber of Commerce Journal, Oct. 1920.

Japanese Concession Belgian Concession Ex-Austro-Hungarian Concession. Italian Concession.

(3) Newchwang— British Concession (1861). Foreign Quarter (1900).

(4) Hangchow— Japanese Concession (1895). General Foreign Settlement.

(5) Soochow— Japanese Concession (1895). General Foreign Settlement.

LIKIN.

Likin (literally "contribution of a thousandth," i.e. one-tenth of 1 per cent.) is a tax imposed upon goods in inland transit. Originally levied to meet the additional expenditure caused by the Taiping Rebellion, it was first imposed in 1853, but in 1861, when the Taiping and Mohammedan Rebellions were simultaneously in progress, the tax was extended throughout the country. Likin stations (barriers) exist at all large towns and are placed along the main routes of commerce, both by land and water. An official tariff is in existence, but is practically ignored both by officials and traders, by the former in order to allow for "squeeze," by the latter in order to pay the enhanced rate (which would be imposed in any case) on a less amount of goods than is actually being cleared. This incidence of bartering and coming to terms in the matter of likin renders its imposition the more severe on railway lines, where the specified weight of goods is recorded and offers little opportunity of "adjustment" to the mutual convenience of likin official and trader. For this reason goods traffic on certain lines where likin is heavy at the towns en route (e.g. Shanghai-Nanking Railway) is seriously affected. Guilds and regular traders meet likin charges by the payment of lump sums. The tax collected is generally 3 per cent at the departure station and 2 per cent at each inspection station. The amount collected within a province, however, is usually so arranged as not to exceed 10 per cent, but when goods are transported through several provinces it may reach from 15 to 20 per cent.

Foreign imports and exports, on payment to the Maritime Customs of half the import duty, plus the ad ralorem tariff, are exempt from likin taxation in the course of transport. [At all Treaty Ports foreign goods, after payment of the import duty, may be despatched at any time to another Treaty Port without further payment.]

Article VIII of the Mackay Treaty (Shanghai, 1902) states:—"The Chinese Government, recognizing that the system of levying likin and other dues on goods at the place of production, in transit and at destination impedes the free circulation of commodities and injures the interests of trade, hereby undertake to discard completely those means of raising revenue with the limitation mentioned in section 8."

In exchange the British Government agreed to a special surtax not exceeding one and a half times the import duty on foreign imports and a special surtax not exceeding half the export duty plus a consumption tax on articles of Chinese origin not intended for export. The agreement, however, has not yet come into operation. The question is complicated by the fact that the likin revenues of certain provinces are pledged under foreign loans.

Lt.-General Tien Chung-yu, of the Ministry of War, and Chao Chunlien, an accountant of the Bank of China, were appointed in 1916 to undertake a joint investigation of the Likin system, with a view to remedying

certain defects and drawing up a report.

Great indignation was caused in Chinese circles during the winter 1920-21 by the levy of a Likin surtax of ten per cent, ostensibly for Famine Relief. There were only too good grounds for supposing that the actual beneficiaries would be the local officials and Tuchuns.

CHINA'S TREATIES,* ETC.

A. With Great Britain

DATE.

2. 1843, June 26 (Hongkong).

3. 1843, July.

4. 1843, Oct. 8.

5. 1846, April 4 (Bocca Tigris, Convention).

6. 1847, April 6 (Agreement).

7. 1858, June 26 (Tientsin, Treaty).

8. 1858, Nov. 8 (Shanghai, Agreement).

9. 1860, Oct. 24 (Peking, Convention).

10. 1865, Oct. 27 (Peking, Agreement).

11. 1866, March 5 (Peking, Conven-

12. 1869, Oct. 23 (Peking, Conven-

13. 1876, Sept. 13 (Chefoo, Agreement).

14. 1880, Dec. 10 (Peking, Agreement).

SUBJECT MATTER.

1. 1842, Aug. 29 (Nanking, Treaty). Peace. Indemnity. Cession of Hongkong. Ports opened. Institution of Tariff Duties.

> Declaration confirming Transit Duties at existing rate. (Amended 1858.)

> General Regulations for British Trade at Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo and Shanghai. Embodied in No. 4.

> Supplementary Treaty of Commerce. Admission of Foreigners into Canton postponed. Chusan evacuated by British.

> Canton to be opened in two years' time. Trade at Honam. Erection of Churches at Ports of Trade.

> Peace. Appointment of Ambassadors and Consuls. Religious Toleration. Eight ports opened. Administration of Justice. Revision of Tariff. Navigation. Veto on use of expression "Barbarian."

> Rules of Trade. Tariff of Imports and Exports. Transit Dues.

> Peace. Residence in Peking of British Minister. Tientsin opened. Cession of Kowloon.

> Articles relative to Customs. Seizures at Shanghai.

> Regulations for engagement of Chinese emigrants.

> Supplementary regulations for commerce and navigation. Ports opened.

Settlement of Yunnan case. Intercourse and Trade between the two countries. Ports opened.

Personal Relations and Official Intercourse and Trade between Consular Officers and Provincial Authorities.

^{*} The text of these Treaties (where ratified before 1907) will be found in Hertslet's China Treaties (Vol. I), and in the List of Chinese Treaties published by the Imperial Maritime Customs in 1968. A more recent collection is J. V. A. MacMurray's Treaties and Agreements with or Concerning China, 1894-1919, 2 vol., published by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

DATE.

15. 1885, July 18 (London).

16. 1886, July 24 (Peking, Conven- Relative to Burma and Tibet. tion).

17. 1886, Sept. 11 (Hongkong, Agree- Opium Trade at Hongkong. ment).

18. 1890, March 17 (Calcutta).

tional Article). 20. 1893, Dec. 5. (Darjeeling, Regu-

lations). 21. 1894, March 1 (London, Conven-

tion). 22. 1894, Sept. 6 (Tientsin, Conven-

tion).

23. 1897, Feb. 4 (Peking, Agreement).

24. 1898, Feb. 9-11 (Peking, Exchange of Notes).

25. 1898, June 9 (Peking, Convention).

26. 1898, July 1 (Peking, Conven-

27. 1901, Sept. 7 (Peking, Final Protocol).

28. 1902, Aug. 29 (Shanghai, Agreement).

29. 1902, Sept. 5 (Shanghai, Mackay Treaty).

30. 1904, May 13 (London, Conven- Chinese Labour in British Colonies.

31. 1905, May 23 (Peking, Conven-Revision of 22. Chinese and Burmese tion).

32. 1905, Sept. 27 (Peking, Agreement).

33. 1906, April 27 (Peking, Convention).

34. 1911. May 8 (Peking).

B. With Austria-Hungary.

1. 1869, Sept. 2 (Peking, Treaty). Friendship, Commerce, and Navigation.

2. 1919, Sept. 10 (Treaty of St. Peace. Germains).

Austria Hungary was also a signatory to the Peace Protocol, the Custeens Tariff, and the Whangpoo Conservancy (supra 27, 28 and 32), together with Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Russia, Spain and the United States. Under the Treaty of St. Germains she renounces all rights acquired by her Treaties with China.

C. With Belgium.

1. 1845. July 25 (Imperial Letter). Permission to trade.

2. 1865, Nov. 2 (Peking, Treaty). Friendship, Commerce, Navigation. Jurisdiction.

SUBJECT MATTER.

Additional Article to Chefoo Agreement. Traffic in Opium.

Sikkim and Tibet. Boundary. Trade. 19. 1890, March 31 (Peking, Addi- Chungking to be a Treaty Port.

> Supplementing Sikkim-Tibet Convention. Yatung opened to trade.

Burma and China. Boundary Trade.

Junction of Chinese and Burmese Telegraph Lines.

Modification of 21. Opening of Ports on West River.

"China will never alienate any territory in the provinces adjoining the Yangtze to any other Power."

Extension of Hongkong Territory.

Lease of Weihaiwei.

Resumption of Friendly Relations. Indemnity for Boxer Rising. Legation Quarter. Reform of Tsung-li Yamen.

New Chinese Import Tariff.

Commercial Relations.

Telegraph Lines.

Whangpoo Conservancy.

Tibet, Confirming Anglo-Tibetan Treaty of September 7, 1904.

Importation of Opium.

D. With Bolivia.

DATE.

SUBJECT MATTER.

1. 1919.

Friendship, Commerce, Navigation. (Extraterritorial Rights excluded).

E. With Brazil.

1. 1881, Oct. 3 (Tientsin, Treaty).

Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

F. With Congo Free State.

1. 1898, July 10 (Peking, Treaty).

Mutual Most Favoured Nation Treatment.

G. With Denmark.

1. 1863, July 13 (Tientsin, Treaty). Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

H. With France.

1. 1844, Oct. 24 (Whampoa, Treaty). Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

2. 1858, June 27 (Tientsin, Treaty). Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

3. 1858, Nov. 24 (Agreement).

4. 1860, Oct. 25 (Additional Con- Indemnity. French Religious Esvention).

5. 1865, Aug.-Sept. (Exchange of Tonnage Dues. Notes).

6. 1884, May 11 (Tientsin, Pre-Peace (Annam). liminary Convention).

9. 1886, April 25 (Tientsin, Con-Commercial Convention. vention).

10. 1887, June 26 (Peking, Conven- Additional Convention.

11. 1887, June 26 (Peking, Convention).

12. 1888, Dec. 1 (Chefoo, Conven- Telegraph Lines. tion).

13. 1895, (Peking).

14. 1895, June 20 (Peking, Conven-

15. 1895, June 20 (Peking, Conven-

16. 1898, April 9-10 (Peking, Exchange of Notes).

16A. 1898, April 10 (Peking, Assurance).

Tariff, Commercial Regulations.

tablishments.

1885, April 4 (Paris, Protocol).
 1885, June 9 (Tientsin, Treaty).
 Peace, Commerce, Railways.

Commerce. Navigation.

China-Tongking Frontier Delimitation.

Acquisition of Land or House Property by French Missionaries.

China-Tongking Boundary.

Commerce, Mining.

Tongking-Yunnanfu Railway. Lease of Kwangchouwan. French Director of China's Postal Service.

Assurance given by Tsung-li-Yamen respecting the non-alienation Kwangtung, Kwangsi and Yunnan.

17. 1898, (Peking, Draft Convention). Lease of Kwangchouwan.

See also B (Austria-Hungary).

I. With Germany.

1. 1861, Sept. 2 (Tientsin, Treaty). Friendship, Commerce, Navigation

2. 1880, Mar. 31 (Peking, Supple- Commerce, Navigation. mentary Convention).

3. 1880, Mar. 31 (Peking, Ex- Tonnage Dues. change of Notes).

SUBJECT MATTER.

4. 1898, Mar. 6 (Peking, Treaty).

Lease of Kiaochao. Commerce, Amity. Germany renounces

5. 1921, May 20. (Peking, Agree- Consular Jurisdiction.

See also B (Austria-Hungary).

Germany renounces all her Treaty rights in China by the Treaty of Versailles and a new General Treaty is now (1921) under negotiation. A preliminary Commercial Agreement was signed on May 20, 1921.

J. With Italy.

1. 1866, Oct. 26 (Peking). Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

See also B (Austria-Hungary).

K. With Korea

1. 1899, Sept. 11 (Seoul, Treaty). Friendship, Commerce.

L. With Japan.

1. 1885, April 18 (Tientsin, Convention).

2. 1895, April 17 (Shimonoseki, Treaty).

3. 1895, Nov. 8 (Peking, Convention).

4. 1896, July 21 (Peking, Treaty).

5. 1896, Oct. 19 (Peking, Protocol).

5a. 1898, April 26 (Peking Assurance).

6. 1903, Oct. 8 (Shanghai, Treaty).

7. 1905, Dec. 22 (Peking, Treaty).

8. 1907, April 15 (Peking, Agreement).

9. 1907, May 30 (Peking, Agreement).

10. 1908, May 13 (Tokio, Agreement).

11. 1908, Oct. 2 (Tokio, Agreement).

12. 1908, Oct. 12 (Tokio, Convention).

13. 1909, Aug. 19 (Mukden, Memorandum).

14. 1909, Sept. 1 (Peking, Agreement).

15. 1910, Feb. 10 (Peking, Convention).

16. 1915, May 25 (Peking, Convention).

17. 1915, May 25 (Peking, Convention).

18. 1918, May 16. (Peking, Pact.)

19. 1918, May 19. (Peking, Pact.)

Withdrawal of Chinese and Japanese troops from Korea.

Peace. Cession of Formosa, Pescadores and Liaotung Peninsula.

Retrocession of Liaotung. Compensation.

Commerce, Navigation.
Japanese Settlements.

Assurance of Tsung-li Yamen respecting non-alienation of Fukien province.

Supplementary Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.

Manchuria. Confirmation of Russo-Japanese Treaty.

Railways in Manchuria.

Opening of Dairen Customs.

Agree- Yalu Forests.

Agree- South Manchurian Railways.

Port-Arthur-Chefoo Cable. South Manchurian Telegraphs.

Broadening of gauge of Antung-Mukden Railway.

Settlement of Manchurian controversies. Chientao. Railways. Mines.

Manchurian Postal Service.

Province of Shantung.

South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, &c.

Joint Military Measures.

Joint Naval Measures.

SUBJECT MATTER.

20. 1918, Sept. 24. (Tokio, Agree- Shantung Railways.+

 1918. August 2. (Peking, Agreement). Mortgage of Kirin and Heilungkiang Mines and Forests.

See also B (Austria-Hungary).

M. With Mexico.

 1. 1899, Dec. 14 (Washington, Friendship, Commerce, Navigation. Treaty).

N. With the Netherlands.

1. 1863, Oct. 6 (Tientsin, Treaty).

2. 1911, July (Peking, Agreement).

3. 1915, June.

Friendship, Commerce. Protection to Missionaries. Converts.

Chinese Consulates in Dutch Colonies. Arbitration Convention.

See also B (Austria-Hungary).

Emigration.

P. With Persia.

1. 1920, (Treaty).

General, Persian subjects to be subject to Chinese Jurisdiction.

Q. With Peru.

1. 1874, June 26 (Tientsin, Treaty). Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

 1874. June 26 (Special Agree- Chinese Immigrants in Peru. ment).

R. With Portugal.

1. 1862, Aug. 13 (Tientsin).

2. 1897, March 26 (Lisbon, Protocol).

3. 1887, Dec. 1 (Peking, Treaty).

4. 1887, Dec. 1 (Convention).

5. 1887, Dec. 1 (Agreement).

6. 1909, Feb. 12 (London).

Commerce. This Treaty was not ratified owing to the dispute about the sovereignty of Macao.

Perpetual inalienable occupation of Macao.

Friendship. Commerce. Confirmation of No. 2. Opium.

Opium trade of Macao.

Appointment of Commissioners for the delimitation of Macao.

S. With Russia

1. 1689, (Treaty).

2. 1727, Oct. 21 (Treaty).

3. 1768, Oct. 18 O.S. (Treaty).

5. 1708, Oct. 18 O.S. (Treaty). 4. 1851, July 25 (Kuldja, Treaty).

5. 1858, May 16 (Aigun, Treaty).

6. 1858, June 13 (Tientsin, Treaty).

7. 1860, Nov. 14 (Peking, Additional Treaty).

Peace. Boundaries. Right to travel and trade.

Peace. Boundaries. Freedom of Commerce.

Frontier Offences.

Freedom of Commerce. Trade between Ili and Tarbagatai.

Friendship. Boundaries along Amur River. Trade.

Commerce. Navigation. Freedom of Religion. Postal Service.

Frontier Trade. Boundaries. Consular Affairs.

8. 1864, Oct. 7 (Tchuguchak, Pro- Boundaries. tocol of Conference). 9. 1869, April 27 (Peking, Revised

Convention).

10. 1881, Feb. 24 (St. Petersburg,

Treaty, with Protocol and Regulations).

11. 1886, Oct.-Dec. (Peking, Correspondence). 12. 1892, Aug. 25 (Tientsin, Conven-

tion).

12a.* 1896, Sept. 8 (Peking).

13. 1898, March 27 (Peking, Agreement).

14. 1898, May 7 (St. Petersburg, Additional Agreement).

15. 1902, March 26 (Peking, Agreement).

16. 1907, Sept. 26 (Tchuguchak, Agreement between Russian Consul and local Chinese Authorities).

17. 1909, May 11 (Peking, Preliminary Agreement).

18. 1910, Aug. 9 (Peking, Convention).

19. 1913, Nov. 5 (Peking).

20. 1915, June 7 (Kiachta).

SUBJECT MATTER.

Overland Trade.

Re-establishment of Chinese Authority in Ili. Boundary. Consuls. Frontier Trade.

Port Hamilton. Korea.

Telegraph Lines.

Construction and working of Chinese Eastern Railway.

Lease of Port Arthur and Talienwan.

Boundaries of Liaotung Peninsula.

Re-establishment of Chinese Authority in Manchuria.

Tea Transport.

Jurisdiction in Manchurian Railway Settlements.

Navigation on the Sungari River.

Independence of Mongolia.

Tripartite Agreement (Russia, China, Mongolia) regarding the status of Mongolia.

See also B (Austria-Hungary).

T. With Spain.

1. 1864, Oct. (Tientsin, Treaty).

2. 1877, Nov. 17 (Peking, Conven- Chinese Emigration to Cuba. tion).

Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

See also B (Austria-Hungary).

U. With Sweden and Norway.

1. 1847, Mar. 20 (Canton, Treaty).

2. 1847, Mar. 30 (Agreement).

3. 1909, June (Sweden, Treaty).

V. With the United States.

1. 1844, July 3 (Wanghsia, Treaty). 2. 1858, June 18 (Tientsin, Treaty).

3. 1858. Nov. 8 (Shanghai, Conven-

tion).

ditional Articles).

5. 1880, Nov. 17 (Peking, Treaty).

Friendship, Commerce, Navigation. Customs Tariff (see A [Great Britain], No. 28).

Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

Friendship, Commerce, Navigation. Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

Tariff, Regulation of Trade.

4. 1868, July 28 (Washington, Ad- Trade, Liberty of Conscience. eral Relations.

Chinese Immigration into the United States.

^{*} This Agreement was nominally with the Russo-Chinese Bank, which undertook to form a company to be known as the Chinese Eastern Railway Company.

SUBJECT MATTER.

6. 1880, Nov. 17 (Peking, Supple- Commercial Intercourse, Judicial Promentary Treaty).

cedure. 7. 1894. Mar. 17 (Washington, Emigration between the two Countries.

Convention. Expired Dec. 7, 1904).

8. 1903, Oct. 8 (Shanghai, Treaty).

9. 1908, Oct. 9 (Washington, Con- Arbitration. vention).

10. 1914, Sept.

Commercial Relations. Mining Regulations. Copyright.

Peace Commission Treaty.

See also B (Austria-Hungary).

TREATIES BETWEEN OTHER POWERS RELATING TO CHINA.

A. Great Britain and Belgium.

1. 1904, Sept. 15-30 (Brussels, Ex- Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks change of Notes). in China.

B. Great Britain and Denmark.

1. 1905, Nov.-Dec. (Copenhagen, Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks Exchange of Notes). in China.

C. Great Britain and France.

tion).

Exchange of Notes).

don, Exchange of Notes).

1. 1896, Jan. 15 (London, Declara- Privileges in Yunnan and Szechuan.

2. 1898, April and Aug. (London, Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks.

3. 1899-1900, Dec. and Jan. (Lon- British and French Concessions at Hankow.

D. Great Britain and Germany.

of Notes).

2. 1900. Oct. 16 (London, Agree- Mutual Policy in China.

ment).

1. 1908, April 20 (Berlin, Exchange British Occupation of Weihaiwei.

3. 1906, March 24-6 (London, Ex- Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks. change of Notes).

E. Great Britain and Italy.

1. 1903, July and Aug. (London, Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks. Exchange of Notes).

F. Great Britain and Japan.

1. 1902, Jan. 30 (London Agree- Alliance. Independence of China and Korea. ment).

Replaced by the following Agreements:-

2. 1905, Aug. 12 (London, Agree- Alliance. Integrity of China, Korea, India. ment).

3. 1911, May (London, Agree- Alliance. Modification of 1905 Agreement). ment.

G. Great Britain and the Netherlands.

1. 1904, Aug. and Sept. (The Hague, Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks. Exchange of Notes).

SUBJECT MATTER.

H. Great Britain and Portugal.

Exchange of Notes).

2. 1913, June (London).

1. 1904, Aug. 4 and 8 (Lisbon, Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks.

Opium Traffic in Hongkong and Macao.

I Great Britain and Russia.

Exchange of Notes).

2. 1906, Oct. 29-30 (Peking Ex- Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks. change of Notes.

3. 1907, Aug. 31 (St. Petersburg Tibet [also Persia, Afghanistan]. Convention).

4. 1907, Aug. 31 (St. Petersburg, Scientific Expeditions to Tibet. Exchange of Notes).

1. 1899, April 28 (St. Petersburg, Respective Railway Interests in Yangtze Valley and north of Great Wall.

K. France and Russia.

1. 1902, March 16 (Agreement).

Integrity of China.

L. France and Japan.

1. 1907, June 10.

Integrity of China.

M. Japan and Russia.

1. 1905, Sept. 5 (Portsmouth, Trea- Treaty of Peace. ty).

2. 1907, June 13 (St. Petersburg, Provisional Convention).

Convention).

Agreement).

5. 1916, July 3.

Junction of Japanese and Russian Railways in Manchuria.

3. 1907, July 30 (St. Petersburg, Integrity of China.

4. 1910, July 4 (St. Petersburg) Maintenance of status quo in Manchuria.

> Joint pledges to support territorial rights and special interests in Far East.*

N. Russia and Mongolia.

1, 1912, Nov.

2. 1914, Sept.

Recognition of Independence.

Railway Agreement.

O. Japan and Korea.

1. 1910, Aug. 29.

Annexation of Korea (published).

P. Japan and the United States

1. 1908, Nov.

2. 1917, Nov.

R. Treaty of St. Germains, 1919.

Q. Treaty of Versailles, 1919.

Exchange of Notes regarding policy in the Pacific Ocean and in China.

Lansing-Ishii Exchange of Notes.

(Ratified by China).

(China withheld Signature).

^{*}Concurrently with the conclusion of this Treaty Russia ceded to Japan 60 miles of the Chinese Eastern Railway between Changchun and the River Sungari and agreed to recognize Japan's right of navigation on a portion of the Sungari.

CHAPTER XIII.

FINANCE.

The reorganization of the whole financial system of China, admitted by common consent to be a pressing necessity, still meets with insuperable difficulties, of which the unsettled condition of the country is not the least. Ever since the Chang Hsun coup in 1917, and the secession of the Southern and Western Provinces from Peking, the authority of the Central Government has been merely nominal, even in those Provinces which still recognize their allegiance to Peking. Little or no revenue, other than that under foreign control, ever finds its way from the Provinces to Peking. On the contrary, the Government is constantly blackmailed by the Tuchuns and militarists for funds with which to pacify their huge standing Armies, the pay of which is always in arrears. The consent of the Treaty Powers (Russia excepted) to suspend all payments in connection with the Boxer Indemnity over a period of five years following China's declaration of war against the Central Powers, gave China an exceptional opportunity for reorganizing her finances. But the opportunity was thrown away. Instead, the clique of officials in power in Peking borrowed recklessly and continuously from Japanese financiers, who were only too glad to avail themselves of opportunities to secure further concessions in China in return for their loans. The payment of interest and amortization charges on many of these loans is now overdue, and there is no immediate prospect of any improvement in China's financial position. Her plight would in fact, be very much worse than it is to-day, but for the exceptionally high exchange of 1919 and 1920, which enabled her to meet her obligations in foreign currencies for a third to a quarter of the usual payments in silver. On the other hand, sums borrowed from abroad during this period, amount to only a fraction of what China will eventually have to pay if exchange remains against her, as the result of the sensational fall in the value of silver in the latter half of 1920.

The most hopeful feature of the financial situation is the formation during the latter part of 1920 of a Chinese Banking Group, representative of the principal financial interests in the country, which has already concluded two loans (for the purchase of rolling-stock for the Government railways, and the erection and equipment of a Mint at Shanghai, details of which appear elsewhere in this volume)* and made several substantial advances to the General Government. The terms in respect of supervision imposed by this Group have so far been far more drastic than those obtainable by any foreign financiers.

The formation of the International Consortium was a feature of the past year, but so far China has not officially recognized its existence, nor does there appear to be any prospect of her doing so in the near future. The documents relating to the formation of the Consortium will be found in a separate chapter.

The fereign debt of China to-day, allowing for the recent fall in exchange, probably exceeds \$2,000,000,000. There is a deficit of seven to nine million dollars a month in the Peking Treasury, and all efforts at retrenchment break down in face of military opposition to disbandment of superfluous troops.

BUDGETS.

No Budget published since the establishment of the Republic has been other than a pious expression of hope that the revenues and expenditure

^{*}For contract of Railway Car Loan see p. 270. For details of Mint Loan see Chapter XIV (Currency).

would correspond with the estimates. The figures printed below, therefore, have little value except as showing what the revenue and expenditure of the Central Government might be expected to be, if the country were re-

united, and more or less normal conditions restored.

The Budget or the fifth fiscal year (July 1, 1916 to June 30, 1917) was submitted to Parliament on February 21, 1917, and its examination was completed on April 23. The Government was alive to the futility of such a belated Budget, but considered that it might form a model for future Budgets. No Budget was prepared for the sixth fiscal year (July 1, 1917 to June 30, 1918), and it was announced that the 1916-17 Budget would do duty again. In the following tables this Budget is referred to as the New Fifth Year Budget to distinguish it from the Fifth Year Budget introduced under the Yuan Shih-kai régime, when the financial year was altered to make it coincide with the Calendar Year.

REVENUE.

I.	. Ordinary.—	New 5th Year. July, 1916- June, 1917. \$	Old 5th Year. JanDec.; 1916 \$	3rd Year. July, 1914- June, 1915 \$	2nd Year July, 1913 June, 1914
1.	Manufacture of the control of the co	90,105,784	95,972.818	76.859.060	79,180.723
2. 3.	Customs Revenue	73,056,663 96,767,010	71,310,970 84,771,365	78,773,341 84,879,873	66,970,003 77,401.265
4.	Tax on Commodities,	30,101,010	04,111,000	04,010,010	11,401,200
_	including Likin	42,719,194	40,271,368	34,175,656	36,876,823
5.	Regular and Miscellaneous Taxes	34,768,432	32,341,704	28,000,424	33,725,227
6.	Regular and Miscel-	04,100,102			
~	laneous Duties	5,448,686	14,067,574	4,947,281	3,173,530
7.	Income from Govern- ment Investment	2,083,401	2,621,261	4,063,483	7,849,648
8.	Miscellaneous Income				
0	of Provinces Income of Central Ad-	5,101,531	6,927,694	5,133,579	12,723,427
9.	ministration	1,374,648	1,635,464	4,620,775	_
10.	Income Directly Re-		, - ,	, ,	
	ceived by Central Government	76 504 711	76.306,927	29,611,340	
					-
	Government	36,584,311	10,300,921	29,011,040	
	Government	388,009,660	426,237,145	351,064,812	317.900.646
11	I. Extraordinary.—				317,900,646
II 1.		388,009,660 \$ 5,751,464	426,237,145 \$ 1,580,695	351,064,812 \$ 2,368,749	\$ 3,222,889
1. 2.	I. Extraordinary.— Land Tax Customs Revenue	\$ 5,751,464 706,885	\$ 1,580,695 847,359	\$ 2,368,749 629,716	\$ 3,222,889 1,254,280
1. 2. 3.	I. Extraordinary.— Land Tax Customs Revenue Tax on Commodities	\$ 5,751,464 706,885 21,025	426,237,145 \$ 1,580,695	351,064,812 \$ 2,368,749	\$ 3,222,889
1. 2.	I. Extraordinary.— Land Tax Customs Revenue	\$ 5,751,464 706,885 21,025	\$ 1,580,695 847,359	\$ 2,368,749 629,716	\$ 3,222,889 1,254,280
1. 2. 3.	Land Tax	388.009.660 \$ 5,751,464 706.885 21,025 3,911,410	426,237,145 \$ 1,580,695 847,359 18,716 4,496,333	351,064,812 \$ 2,368,749 629,716 10,391	\$ 3,222,889 1,254,280 6,054 132,829
1. 2. 3. 4.	Land Tax	388.009.660 \$ 5,751,464 706.885 21,025 3,911,410 8,351	\$ 1,580,695 847,359 18,716	\$ 2,368,749 629,716	\$ 3,222,889 1,254,280 6,054
1. 2. 3. 4.	Land Tax	388,009,660 \$ 5,751,464 706,885 21,025 3,911,410 8,351	426,237,145 \$ 1,580,695 847,359 18,716 4,496,333	351,064,812 \$ 2,368,749 629,716 10,391	\$ 3,222,889 1,254,280 6,054 132,829
1. 2. 3. 4.	Land Tax	388,009,660 \$ 5,751,464 706,885 21,025 3,911,410 8,351 91,610	426,237,145 \$ 1,580,695 847,359 18,716 4,496,333 16,703 338,253	351,064,812 \$ 2,368,749 629,716 10,391 — 364,021 1,575,024	\$ 3,222,889 1,254,280 6,054 132,829 634,093 10,115,868
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	Land Tax	388,009,660 \$ 5,751,464 706,885 21,025 3,911,410 8,351 91,610	426,237,145 \$ 1,580,695 847,359 18,716 4,496,333 16,703	\$ 2,368,749 629,716 10,391 - 364,021 1,575,024 1,406.077	\$ 3,222,889 1,254,280 6,054 132,829 634,093
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Land Tax	388,009,660 \$ 5,751,464 706,885 21,025 3,911,410 8,351 91,610 2,248,438	426,237,145 \$ 1,580,695 847,359 18,716 4,496,333 16,703 338,253	\$ 2,368,749 629,716 10,391 - 364,021 1,575,024 1,406.077	\$ 3,222,889 1,254,280 6,054 132,829 634,093 10,115,868 230,308

9. Miscellaneous Income of Central Govern-			(Sa	alt Revenue)
of Central Govern- Government	8,100,000 24,291,468 16,187,305	20,000,000	25,082,398 —	223,370,000 —
	84,828,924	45,709,565	31,436,376	239,130,590
Total Revenue	472,838,584	471,946,710	382,501,188	557,031,236
Expenditures.	NT 5.6 N	OUEAL V	7 1 V	2 - 1 V
I. Ordinary.—	New 5th Year. July, 1916- June, 1917.	Old 5th Year. Jan. Dec., 1916 \$	3rd Year. July, 1914- June, 1915	2nd Year. July, 1913- June, 1914
1. Foreign Affairs	4,446,548	3,276,677	4,229,529	3,293,115
2. Interior	42,570,109	49,653,982	42,672,290	39,618,149
3. Finance	61,792,970	53,531,625	23,383,989	210,345,180
4. War	156,606,047	135,813,986	134,061,795	136,894,494
5. Marine	7,304,135	17,101,779	4,802,560	7,665,881
6. Justice	4,433,893	7,665,772 12,611,583	7,258,459 3,276,904	14,671,825 5,207,215
8. Agriculture and Com-	+,+00,000	12,011,000	0,210,004	0,201,210
merce	2,734,790	3,762,244	2,276,537	5,083,386
9. Communications 10. Mongolian and	1,533,606	1,577,408	1,935,560	934,877
Tibetan Affairs	1,044,216	947,230	1,065,344	_
	291,803,470	285,942,280	254,922,955	423,684,126
II. Extraordinary.—	\$	\$	\$	\$
1. Foreign Affairs	1,846,786	826,141	_	1,013,223
2 Interior	3,117,770	2,105,864		4,263,860
3. Finance	162,397,633	175,302,789	98,564,793 3,526,282	181,568,614
4. War	10,711,333 847,434	6,438,727 102,758	10,000	26,910,518 1,307,014
6. Justice	28,610	45,572		370,312
7. Education	:	225,724	***************************************	1,701,635
8. Agriculture and Com-				
merce	1,279,496	376,792		959,735
9. Communications 10. Mongolian and	116,833	112,783		457,843
10. Mongolian and . Tibetan Affairs	94,276	40,000	-	_
	181,035,114	185,577,150	i02,101,075	218,552,754
Total Expenditures	472,838,584	471,519,436	351,024,030	.642,236,876
Under the heading "In are included the following	ncome Direct			
Stamp Duty			5,864	,400
Tobacco and Wine	Licence Du	ty	2,012	
Tobacco and Wine	Tax		14,350	,
Income from Toba Mining Duty				
aiming Duty				,021
			36,584	,311

Provincial contributions are reckoned as being distributed among various items of the Revenue statement.

EXPENDITURE IN 1919.

The monthly expenditure of the Central Government in 1919, according to figures given by Mr. Hollington K. Tong in Millard's Review, was as follows:

follows:				
Ministry of Foreign Affairs:				
	y 0, 1 0.0.g. 12, a. 10 t	\$	\$	
1.	Ministry Proper		#	
2.	Legations Abroad			
			234,915.00	
Miniata	y of Interior:		,	
m inistr	g of Interior:	\$	\$	
1.	Ministry Proper	64,495.26	Ψ	
2.	Military Police			
3.	Police Department within the City	180.019.83		
4.	Manchu Palace Police	7,396.00		
5.	Police Department in Suburbs	15,000.00		
6.	Pao-An Gendarmeric	12,000.00		
7.	Peking Hospitals	5,870.00		
8.	Police Officers Training School	3,238.00		
9.	Work House for the Poor	3,000.00		
10.	Museum	1,000.00		
11	Bureau for the Preparation of Parliamentary			
	Affairs	11,135.00		
12	Central Plague Prevention Bureau including			
	Branch at Suiyuan	10,239.33	400 707 47	
			407,393.43	
Ministr	y of Finance:			
	•	\$ -	\$	
Pr	esidential Office:—(1 to 9).			
1.	Salary and Allowance of President	104,000.00		
2.	Salaries and Allowances of Advisers and			
_	Councillors	96,800.00		
3.	Salaries of Foreign Advisers			
4.	Salaries of Officials	24,000.00		
5.	Bureau of Military Affairs	10,000.00		
6.	Bureau of Presidential Guard	32,832.00		
7. 8.	Bureau of Couriers	13,036.00		
9.	Police Cabinet	1,161.00 53,256.00		
10.	Bureau of Statistics	11,078.00		
11.	Bureau of Legislation	17,986.00		
12.	Bureau of Appointments	9,477.00		
13.	Bureau of Publications	9,000.00		
14.	Foreign Advisers	11,550.00		
15.	Post-Bellum Economic Investigation Com-			
	mission	80,000.00		
16.	Commission on Foreign Affairs	2,000.00		
17.	Commission on Finance	2,000.00		
18.	Commission on Reorganization	2,000.00		
19.	Ministry Proper	59,328.00		
20.	Stamp Tax Bureau	2,927.00		
21.	Public Assay Office	600.00		
22.	Government Property Bureau	7,536.00		
23.	Public Loan Bureau	4,100.00		

25. 26.	Bureau for the issue of Copper Notes Bureau for the Establishment of Agricultural	3,333.33	
	and Industrial Banks	1,619.00	
27.	Subscription to Charitable institutions	416.66	
28.	Advertisement	2,500.00	
29.	Subsidy to School of Finance	600.00	
30.	Contributions	400.00	
31.	Parliament	373,650.00	
32.	Board of Audit	42,069.00	
33.	Administrative Court	18,607.00	
34	Board of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs	21,985.31	
35.	Mongolian and Tibetan School	2,956.50	
36.	Reception Bureau	500.00	
37.	Salaries to Princes	54,633.64	
38.	Lama's Pensions	10,860.09	
39.	Tsing Historiographical Bureau	13,984.00	
40.	Bureau for the Punishment of Administra-	20,00 1100	
10.	tive Officials	2,083.50	
41.	Bureau for the Punishment of Judicial	. =,000.00	
11.	Officials	1,923.30	
42.	Bureau of Immigration	4,520.00	
43.	Bureau of Flood Relief	3,900.00	
44.	Bureau of Currency	13,000.00	
45	Wine and Tobacco Monopoly Sales Bureau		
46.	Pension for Tsing Household		
47.			
48.	Pension for Bannermen, Mei-yuen Pension for Bannermen, Peking	3,894.08	
49.	Pension for Bannermen, East and West	410,215.40	
uð.	Tombs	0.007.57	
	Tomos	9,203.53	
			1 950 967 46
	-		1,850,863.46
Ministry	of Justice:		1,850,863.46
Ministry	of Justice:	\$	1,850,863.46 _*
Ministry 1.	of Justice : Ministry Proper		
	·	\$	
1.	Ministry Proper	\$ 27,000.00	
1. 2.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60	
1. 2. 3.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00	
1. 2. 3. 4.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codifica-	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00 12,000.00 5,000.00	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00 12,000.00 5,000.00 2,000.00	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00 12,000.00 5,000.00	\$
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00 12,000.00 5,000.00 2,000.00	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 12,000.00 5,000.00 2,000.00 2,800.00	\$ 125,989.60
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts of Education:	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00 12,000.00 5,000.00 2,800.00	\$
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Ministry	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts of Education: Ministry Proper	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00 12,000.00 2,000.00 2,800.00 40,000.00	\$ 125,989.60
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Ministry 1. 2.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts of Education: Ministry Proper Peking Government University	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00 12,000.00 2,000.00 2,800.00 2,800.00 53,400.00 53,400.00	\$ 125,989.60
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Ministry 1. 2. 3.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts of Education: Ministry Proper Peking Government University College of Law and Politics	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 12,000.00 2,000.00 2,800.00 2,800.00 53,400.00 9,450.00	\$ 125,989.60
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Ministry 1. 2. 3. 4.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts of Education: Ministry Proper Peking Government University College of Law and Politics College of Agriculture	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 12,000.00 2,000.00 2,800.00 \$ 40,000.00 53,400.00 9,450.00 7,840.00	\$ 125,989.60
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. Ministry 1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts of Education: Ministry Proper Peking Government University College of Law and Politics College of Agriculture College of Medicine	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 12,000.00 5,000.00 2,800.00 \$ 40,000.00 53,400.00 9,450.00 7,840.00 9,483.00	\$ 125,989.60
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 10. Ministry 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts of Education: Ministry Proper Peking Government University College of Law and Politics College of Agriculture College of Medicine Industrial College	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00 12,000.00 5,000.00 2,800.00 2,800.00 \$ 40,000.00 53,400.00 9,450.00 7,840.00 9,483.00 10,747.00	\$ 125,989.60
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 9. 10. Ministry 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts of Education: Ministry Proper Peking Government University College of Law and Politics College of Agriculture College of Medicine Industrial College Higher Normal School	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00 12,000.00 5,000.00 2,000.00 2,800.00 \$ 40,000.00 53,400.00 9,450.00 9,450.00 10,747.00 30,816.00	\$ 125,989.60
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts of Education: Ministry Proper Peking Government University College of Law and Politics College of Agriculture College of Medicine Industrial College Higher Normal School Peking Normal School	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00 12,000.00 5,000.00 2,800.00 2,800.00 53,400.00 9,450.00 7,840.00 9,483.00 10,747.00 30,816.00 5,100.00	\$ 125,989.60
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 9. 10. Ministry 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts of Education: Ministry Proper Peking Government University College of Law and Politics College of Agriculture College of Medicine Industrial College Higher Normal School Peking Normal School Girls' Normal School	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 12,000.00 2,000.00 2,800.00 2,800.00 53,400.00 9,450.00 7,840.00 9,483.00 10,747.00 30,816.00 5,100.00 8,400.00	\$ 125,989.60
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Ministry Proper Supreme Ccurt Procurator General Higher Courts District Courts Prisons Commission for the Compilation and Codification of Laws Law School Committee of Translation Subsidy to Police Courts of Education: Ministry Proper Peking Government University College of Law and Politics College of Agriculture College of Medicine Industrial College Higher Normal School Peking Normal School	\$ 27,000.00 18,492.60 6,000.00 9,200.00 25,000.00 18,497.00 12,000.00 5,000.00 2,800.00 2,800.00 53,400.00 9,450.00 7,840.00 9,483.00 10,747.00 30,816.00 5,100.00	\$ 125,989.60

12. 13. 14.	Subsidies to Various Institutions Students Abroad Subsidy to Local Schools National Historiographical Bureau	14,933.00 14,933.00 31,350.00 3,000.00	241,792.00
Ministry	of Agriculture and Commerce:		
1. 2. 3.	Ministry Proper	\$ 50,000.00 7,200.00	\$
4. 5.	Bureaux Weights and Measure Factory Experimental Stations	2,000.00 8,000.00 15,144.00	
6. 7. 8.	Agricultural School Weather Bureau Bureau for the Examination of weights and	1,000.00 700.00	
9. 10.	measures Government Exhibition Bazaar Geological Survey Bureau	838.00 500.00 1,416.00	
11.	Bureau of Mines for Kwangtung and Kwangsi	2,000.00	88,798.00
Ministry	y of Communications :		00,100.00
1. 2.	Ministry Proper	\$ 76,713.00 38,697.30	\$
	-		115,410.30
The	Total following are details concerning the monthly		3,065,161.79
	y of War:		
1. 2. 3. 4. 5.		\$ 78,061.91 50,000.00	\$
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	Ministry Proper General Staff Subsidiary Organizations 3, Military College Surveying School Aviation School Bureau of Mapping Bureau of Surveying	\$ 78,061.91 50,000.00 895,488.60 9,400.20	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	Ministry Proper General Staff Subsidiary Organizations	\$ 78,061.91 50,000.00 895,488.60 9,400.20 6,414.00 7,999.00 6,030.00	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8.	Ministry Proper General Staff Subsidiary Organizations	\$ 78,061.91 50,000.00 895,488.60 9,400.20 6,414.00 7,999.00 6,030.00 10,041.00 5,843.33	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Ministry Proper General Staff Subsidiary Organizations	\$ 78,061.91 50,000.00 895,488.60 9,400.20 6,414.00 7,999.00 6,030.00 10,041.00 5,843.33 1,713.00 21,000.00 20,880.00 50,805.25 185,057.36 229,472.25 227,670.40	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12 13. 14.	Ministry Proper General Staff Subsidiary Organizations	\$ 78,061.91 50,000.00 895,488.60 9,400.20 6,414.00 7,999.00 6,030.00 10,041.00 5,843.33 1,713.00 21,000.00 20,880.00 50,805.25 185,057.36 229,472.25	
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12 13. 14. 15. 16. 17.	Ministry Proper General Staff Subsidiary Organizations	\$ 78,061.91 50,000.00 895,488.60 9,400.20 6,414.00 7,999.00 6,030.00 10,041.00 5,843.33 1,713.00 21,000.00 20,880.00 50,805.25 185,057.36 229,472.25 227,670.40 30,000.00 30,000.00	

Ministry of	Navy:
-------------	-------

	Ministry Proper	\$
۵.		512,762.00
	Total	\$ 5,705,136.12

The grand total of the Monthly administrative expenditure of the Peking Government therefore amounts to \$8,770,297.91.

REVENUE IN 1919.

The Receipts of the Central Government in 1919, including loan proceeds, were

	\$
Salt surplus release	75,213,400
Customs surplus	33,906,190
Deferred indemnity	9,200,000
Cancelled German indemnity	2,880,000
Native Customs revenue	6,700,000
Tobacco and Wine receipts	20,000,000
Stamp Tax	4,000,000
Domestic loan	6,000,000
Short term domestic loans	33,000,000
Advances from the Bank of China and the Bank of Com-	
munications	20,000,000
Proceeds from the wine and tobacco loan of \$30,000,000 Gold	10,500,000
Treasury notes	10,000,000
Total	\$231,399,590

AMOUNT OF DEBTS RETURNED.

At the end of 1918, the Chinese national debts, exclusive of pay to officials in arrears, stood as follows:

	\$
Long term foreign loans	,145,550,000
Short term foreign debts	67.920.000
Long term domestic loans	221,523,095
Short term domestic loans	14,584,514
Total debts\$1	,449,577,609
Long term foreign loans repaid with the customs revenue	45,712,567
Long term foreign loans repaid with salt revenue	6,659,40u
Long term domestic loans repaid with treasury funds from	, ,
foreign sources (funds other than those from the salt and	
customs)	17,965,046
Long term domestic loans repaid with treasury funds	16,558,520
Short term domestic loans repaid with treasury funds	14,584,514
Payment of interest coupons of long term domestic loans	13,200,000
Total	\$114,680,047

The total repayment on debts therefore amounted to \$114,680,047.

THE 1919-20 BUDGET.

The Budget for the Eighth Fiscal Year of the Republic (Jnly 1, 1919-June, 30, 1921 was as follows:*

RECEIPTS.

Ordinary Revenue.

Art. 1. Land Revenue:		
	\$	S
a. Land Tax	65,812,362	
b. Government Grain or its Commutation	17,418,170	
c. Lease Tax	1,971,357	
d. Miscellaneous Taxes on Land	1,643,499	
d. Miscenaneous Taxes on Lond	1,040,499	86,845,388
Art. 2. Customs Revenue:		00,040,000
a. Maritime Customs	73,454,179	
	10,404,119	
b. Native Customs Receipts collected through	C 150 000	
Customs Commissioners	6,150,288	
c. Other Receipts by the Maritime Customs	1,413,182	
d. Native Customs	12,093,228	
e. Receipts by the Chinese Superintendent of		
Customs	158,030	
-		93,268,907
Art. 3. Salt Revenue:		
a. Salt Tax	92,318,135	
b. Profit of Government Transportation	5,465,661	
c. Miscellaneous Receipts	1,031,275	
_		98,815,071
Art. 4. Taxes on Commodities:		, ,
a. Tax on Commodities	21,876,081	
b. Likin	11,589,705	
c. Tax on Goods of All Descriptions	5,759,051	
- Lux oil Goods of Lift Descriptions	0,700,001	39,224,837
Art. 5. Direct and Miscellaneous Taxes:		00,5551,001
a. Registration of Title-Deeds	15,176,724	
b. License (Wholesale Agencies)	2,651,441	
c. Pawnshops	693,738	
d. Live Stock	1,121,527	
e. Butchery f. Mining Enterprises (Supplementary State-	3,431,186	
(Tr		
ment) g. Tea	1,941,462	
g. Tea h. Sugar	725,834	
0		
3	197,193	
j. Timber	222,164	
k. Parcel Tax	19,000	
l. Miscellaneous	3,002,424	00 100 607
4 (5 D) (135) 33 (131)		29,182,693
Art. 6. Direct and Miscellaneous Additional Taxes:	00-0-0	
a. Merchandise	285,279	
b. Tea	432,987	
c. Boats	46,069	
d. Miscellaneous	3,568,206	
_		4,332,541

^{*}Millard's Review, March 27, 1920.

Art. 7 Revenues from Government Propertie Enterprises:	s and
a. Profits of Government Shares b. Profits of Government Bureaux and W	841,235 Yorks. 1,552,136
c. Receipts from the Lease of Govern	nment
Land and Houses	
	2,411,368
Art 8. Miscellaneous Receipts from the Provi a. Income from Civil Administration	
b. Income from Financial Administration	
c. Income from Judicial Administration .	
d. Income from Education Administration	,
e. Income from Administration of Indu Undertakings	
f. Proceeds realized from Government I	
g. Miscellaneous Receipts	•
	5,579,263
Art. 9. Receipts by the Different Offices of Go Government:	eneral
a. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs	70,915
b. The Ministry of Interior	
c. The Ministry of Finance	
d. The Ministry of Navy	
f. The Ministry of Education	
g. The Ministry of Agriculture and Com-	merce 399,136
h. The Ministry of Communications	
i. The Bureau of Engraving and Printing	
j. Labour Emigration Bureau	150,000 3,105,869
Art. 10. Direct Receipts by the Central Goment:	
a. Stamp Tax	8,158,400
b. Income from Tobacco and Wine Monop	
c. Additional Tax on Tobacco and Wine.	
d. License for Sale of Tobacco and Win	
e. Additional License (Wholesale Agencies (Supplementary Statement)	5)
f. Additional Tax on Title-Deeds	
(Supplementary Statement)	
g. Mining Enterprises Tax	
h. Tax on Butchery	
(Supplementary Statement) i. Tax on Live Stock (Supplementary S	State-
ment)	
,	Annual Control of the
Total of Ordinary Rev	venue \$409,838,001
Extraordinary Reven	ue.
	\$
Art. 1. Land Revenue:	
a. Miscellaneous Taxes	
b. Surtax	
	3,703,399

Art. 2. Customs Revenue:		
a. Maritime Customsb. Native Customs Receipts collected through	587,559	
Customs Commissioners	59,295	
c. Native Customs	22,927	
d. Receipts by the Chinese Superintendent	25,968	605 740
Art. 3. Taxes on Commodities:		695,749
a. Fines	26,685	
		26,685
Art. 4 Direct and Miscellaneous Additional Taxes: a. Tax for Military Expenditure	7 011 410	
a. Tax for Military Expenditure	3,911,410	3,911,410
Art. 5. Revenue from Government Properties and Enterprises:		5,022, 020
a. Profits of Government Bureaux and works	31,522	-1 -00
Art. 6. Miscellaneous Receipts from the Provinces:		31,522
a. Income from Financial Administration	4,105	
b. Income from Educational Administration		
c. Income from Administration of Industrial	77.004	
Undertakingsd. Proceeds realized from Government Funds	37,204 12,631	
e. Fines	185,237	
f. Miscellaneous Receipts	51,360	007 875
Art. 7. Receipts by the Different Offices of the		293,037
Central Government:		
a. The Ministry of Education	4,600	
b. The Ministry of Communications	3,938 80,100	
c. The Bureau of Engraving and Printing d. The Ministry of Finance	3,431,200	
_		3,519,838
Art. 8. Direct Receipts by the Central Government:		
a. Proceeds realized from the Government Pro- perties in the Provinces and Special		
Territories	11,324,410	
b. Income on Newly Reclaimed Land	6,000,000	
c. Miscellaneous Receipts	127,500	17,451,910
Art. 9. Loans:		11,701,010
a. Boxer Indemnity refunded by America	948,235	
b. Internal Loans	50,000,000	50,948,235
Art. 10. Annual Deficit: (Abolished)		00,040,600
a. Annual Deficit to be made up by Loans		
from Banks (abolished)		
Art. 11. Increase of Police Collections: (Not entered)		
a. Police Collections in the Different Provinces (Not entered)		
Total of Extraordinary Revenue	_	80,581,785
Grand Total (Ordinary and Extraordinary Revenues)	\$	490,419,786

EXPENDITURE.

Ordinary Expenditure.

Art. 1 Expenditure for Government Organs:		•
a. Expenditure for the Different Offices of the	\$	*
Central Government	22,441,330	00 444 770
Art. 2. Expenditure for Diplomatic Services:		22,441,350
a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-		
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-	4,048,428	
vinces	758,908	
Art. 3. Expenditure for Home Affairs:		4,807,336
a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-		
ernment	3,446,932	
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-	39,832,607	
		43,279,539
Art. 4. Expenditure for Financial Administration: a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-		
ernment	29,532,565	
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-	9,621,881	
VIIICOS	3,021,001	39,154,446
Art. 5. Military Expenditure:		
a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Government	52,814,744	
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-		
vinces	76,774,083	129,588,827
Art. 6. Naval Expenditure:		120,000,021
a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-	0.647.006	
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-	8,643,296	
vinces	551,186	0.404.400
Art. 7. Judicial Expenditure:		9,194,482
a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-		
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-	1,817,191	
vinces	8,505,933	
Aut 9 Educational Europeditums		10,323,124
Art. 8. Educational Expenditure: a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-		
ernment	3,255,270	
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-	2,803,453	
_		6,058,723
Art. 9. Industrial Expenditure: a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-		
ernment	1,541,800	
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-	1,715,250	
VIIICES	1,110,200	3,257,050

Art. 10. Expenditure for Communications: a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Government b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Provinces Art. 11. Expenditure for Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs: a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Government b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-	1,323,747 541,859 1,109,915	1,865,586
Total of Ordinary Expenditure	208,827	1,318,742 \$271,289,205
Art. 1. Expenditure for Government Organs: a. Expenditure for the Different Offices of the Central Government	\$ 2,748,192	
Art. 2. Expenditure for Diplomatic Services: a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Government b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Provinces	1,130,106 38,449	
Art. 3. Expenditure for Home Affairs: a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Government b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Provinces	2,282,466	
Art. 4. Expenditure for Financial Administration: a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Government b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Provinces	6,878,455 1,271,154	
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro- vinces	53,624,387 24,619,266	78,243,653
Art. 6. Naval Expenditure: a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Government b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Provinces	120,000	185,024

103.677.805

A & T. Middle Proceeditions .		
Art Judicial Expenditure: a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-		
ernment (Abolished)		
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-	C 0.50	
vinces	6.852	6,852
Art. 8 Educational Expenditure:		0.032
a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-	701 740	
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-	301.740	
vinces	160.172	
		461.912
Art. 9. Industrial Expenditure:		
a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-	410.447	
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Different Pro-		
vinces	31.920	
Art. 10. Expenditure for Communications:		442.367
a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-		
ernment	149.218	
b. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Pro-	14.290	
vinces	14.200	163.508
Art. 11. Expenditure for Mongolian and Tibetan		
Affairs: a. Expenditure Incurred by the Central Gov-		
ernment	50.000	
		50.000
Art. 12. Refund of Loans: a. Refund of Loans.	197 069 896	
u. Actual of Louis.		127.962.826
		2004 477 604
Total of Extraordinary Expenditure		\$224,473,681
Grand Total (Ordinary and Extraordinary		0.405 300 000
Expenditure)		\$495.762.886
Special Buildet for Railway, Telegraph, Post and		
TIONS FOR THE EIGHTH FISCAL YEAR OF THE R	EPUBLIC OF (CHINA.
RECEIPTS.		
	3	e,
Art. 1. Receipts direct under the Ministry: a Refunds from Loans	931.143	
b. Interest from Loans	1,061,936	
c. Proceeds from Navigation Registration	6.000	
d. Proceeds from North-west Motor services	144.000	
Art. 2. Business Receipts:		2.143.079
a. Railway Administration	78.820.195	
b. Telegraph Administration	9.454,562	
c. Post Administration d. Navigation Administration	11.014.660 4.388.388	
d. 214 igation Mullimistration	4,000,000	

Art. 3. Capital: a. Receipts from Railways b. Receipts from Telegraphs c. Receipts from Posts	1,671,592 19,400 99,200	1,790,192
Art. 4. Interest on Railway Capital subscribed by Government	4,671,788	4,671,788
Art. 5. Loans for this year	29,179,743	29,179,743
Total of Receipts		\$141,462,607
EXPENDITURE.		
Art. 1. Expenditure direct under the Ministry:	\$	\$
a. Repayment on loansb. Interest and Commission on loans by the	5,087,501	
Ministry	1,660,969	
c. Capitals, Loans, and expenses of the na- tionalized railways	5,753,401	
d. Extraordinary administrative expenditure of the Ministry	5,861,068	
terest on advances for the railways under constructionf. Miscellaneous Expenditure	288,265 300,000	
-		18,951,204
Art. 2. Business Expenditures: a. Railway Administration b. Telegraph Administration c. Post Administration d. Navigation	51,938,507 8,240,754 8,578,605 1,746,204	70.504.070
_		70,504,070
Art. 3. Capital: a. Railway Administration b. Telegraph Administration c. Post Administration	37,251,385 6,990,037 1,120,003	45,361,425
Art 4. Profit Transference:		,,
 a. Peking Hankow Railway Reserve Funds b. Peking-Hankow Railway Forest Funds c. Peking-Hankow Railway Printing Office d. Post Administration for repayment of Cus- 	1,800,000 38,696 12,200	
toms Loans	624,000	2,474.890
Art. 5. Interest and rebate on loans made this year	4,171,012	4,171,012
Total of Expenditures		\$141,462,607

STAMP DUTIES.

A Bill enacting new stamp duties was promulgated on October 21, 1912. It provided a scale of stamp duties for all transactions involving the transfer of money or goods, or documents, deeds or certificates, and stamp duty was also to be paid upon all mercantile pass and account books.

The stamp duties are divided into two classes.

Class (a) includes bills, amounting to \$10 and upwards, receipts or documents for the deposit of goods of the value of \$10 or upwards, and the following (to which the proviso of \$10 or upwards applies in every case): receipts for goods hired; receipts for goods deposited as security; undertakings to cultivate land; pawn-tickets; contracts, and agreements for hiring employees. On all the above a stamp duty of 1 cent is payable.

Upon invoices; leases of property; orders in advance; contracts for the lease of land or houses; guarantee bonds; receipts for money paid; pass books (annually); and all other business books of account (annually), a stamp duty of 2 cents is payable.

Class (b) consists of: bills of lading; all kinds of contracts for sale or purchase; insurance policies; bonds of all kinds; receipts for the deposit of moneys; share scrip; drafts; promissory notes; documents in connection with the division of the property of deceased persons; acknowledgments of indebtedness (IOU's), partnership contracts. For all the documents enumerated in Class (b) the following scale of stamp duty is to be en-

Where the documents are of a face value of \$10 to ... \$100 ... 2 cents

,, ...\$500 ... 4 \$100 2.3 ,, ...\$1000 ... 10 \$500 22 ,, ,, ,, ...\$5000 ... 20 \$1000 2.2 ,, ,, ...\$10,000... 50 \$5000 ,, 2.2 \$10,000 ,, ...\$50,000...\$1 ٠, ,, ,, \$50,000 upwards...\$1.50 ,,

Stamps are to be attached to the above documents, and either signed or "chopped" (sealed). Where two copies of any document are required stamp duty must be paid upon each. In the case of pass and account books the stamp is to be affixed to the first page, and the date is to be written in such a manner that half appears on the stamp and half on the page. The signature or chop of the person using it is also to be written across the stamp. Every book so stamped may be used for the whole of that year. If the book be used for the ensuing year stamps must again be affixed in the same manner to the page at which that year's entries begin. Unless documents and books are stamped in accordance with the above regulations they will not be accepted as proofs by any Court of law. Documents and books which should bear stamps in accordance with the above rules, and which have not been stamped, or which have been stamped but not "chopped" or signed, will expose the party responsible for the omission to a fine of one hundred times the legal stamp duty. If insufficiently stamped the responsible person will be fined thirty times the deficiency. Stamps will be issued in the following values and colours: 1 cent (pink), 2 c. (green), 10 c. (red), 50 c. (purple), \$1 (black).

Stamps once used may not be used again, and anyone convicted of breaking this rule will be fined three hundred times the value of the stamp or stamps so treated. Forgers of duty stamps will be treated according to the criminal code in the same manner as forgers of bank-notes. Documents executed before the enforcement of the stamp duty need not bear stamps, but in the event of their being required as evidence or proof in legal proceedings stamps in acordance with the above scale must be

affixed.

INCOME TAX.

An Income Tax, rauging from $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on incomes between \$500 and \$2,000 to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on incomes of \$1,000,000 and over, is supposed to be in force as from January 1, 1921, the proceeds of which are to be devoted entirely to public education. So much opposition, however, has developed towards this tax, and the authority of the Central Government is so weak, that it may be considered doubtful whether any revenue will be derived from this tax during the current year.

REVENUES UNDER FOREIGN SUPERVISION.

CUSTOMS REVENUE FOR 1920.

The Maritime Customs Revenue for 1920 amounted in round numbers to Hk. Tls. 49,500,000 (at average exchange $6s/9\frac{1}{2}d$. equal to £16,809,375) and showed an increase of $\frac{\pi}{2}$ million taels on the previous record collection for 1919. The gold equivalent of the 1920 collection at average exchange is £2,242,709 higher than the collection for 1919.

The following are in round numbers the collections at the principal ports:

Harbin	933,200 1,130,500 4,902,700	a decrease of	Hk. Tls. 36.500 ,, 214,700 ,, 345,800
Chinwangtao ,,	5,496,100	a decrease of	,, 69,700
Kiaochow ,,	1,607,500		,, 59,200
Kiaochao,	3,671,000	an increase of	,, 548,500
Shanghai,	18,833,000		,, 4,543,300
Swatow, ,,,	1,109,900 2,542,300	»	,, 60,200 ,, 70,400

The 1920 revenue of the Native Customs under the Inspector General's control amounted in round numbers to Hk. Tls. 4,380,000 (at average exchange value of 6s/9½d. equal to £1,487,375) showing a decrease of Hk. Tls. 111,000 on the 1919 collection but still surpassing the 1918 collection by Hk. Tls. 406,000.

All Foreign Loan and Indemnity obligations secured on the Customs Revenues including the Service of the Reorganisation Loan have been fully met and a sum of Sh. Tls. 23,150,000 has been released to the Central Government.

SOUTHERN GOVERNMENT'S SHARE OF CUSTOMS REVENUE SURPLUS.

The abnormally high silver exchange which ruled in 1919 and 1920, coinciding with an tucreased Customs Revenue Collection, very soon had an important effect on China's foreign debt service.

The obligations secured on the Maritime Customs Revenue are for the most part Gold obligations and the cost of the loan service was diminished by nearly 50 per cent, as compared, say, with 1914. In these circumstances, the balance accumulated very rapidly and the procedure grew up of releasing them to the Chinese Government at frequent intervals, after providing full cover for the standing charges on the revenue based on conservative estimates. The handing over of sums running into several million taels to the Central Government led to agitation on the part of the Canton Government, which, at the time, was at the head of a Confederacy of the South Western Provinces, for a share in these windfalls, on the ground that a considerable portion of them was revenue collected in treaty ports in those provinces. After some discussion, the claim was recognised by the Central Government as reasonable, and it only remained to determine on what basis the Southern Government's share should be calculated. The Canton Authorities demanded a pro rata share according to geographical distribution of provinces, but this was manifestly inadmissible. Eventually, on the suggestion of the Inspector General, it was decided to adopt a percentage based on the Revenue collection for the year 1918, at those treaty ports in the Southern and Western provinces which temporarily had thrown off allegiance to the Central Government. The percentage worked out at 13.7 of the total revenue collection.

Future revenue releases were accordingly treated in this manner. The total sum available was divided between the Central Government and the Canton Government in following proportions:— 86.3 was handed to the

Central Government, and 13.7 to the Canton Government.

This procedure remained in force until in the Spring of 1920 a political crisis in Canton drove the Military Government's Minister of Finance—Dr. Wu Ting Fang—to Shanghai. Various claimants to the Canton Government's share of Revenue releases thereupon put in their appearance, including Dr. Wu, who had taken with him his Minister's Seal and who claimed custody of any future sums released. It being impossible to decide between the various claimants, the Canton share of all subsequent releases was earmarked and held, and by the end of 1920 it amounted to the sum of Sh. Tls. 2,513,950.00.

In the meanwhile changes in the political situation had led to a reconsideration of the whole question. The issue was to some extent simplified by the fact that at the end of 1920 a very heavy fall in exchange removed the question of any future revenue surplus from the sphere of practical finance, and it became merely an academical one. There remained, however, the Canton share of previous surpluses which had been withheld, and, as stated above, amounted to the considerable sum of Sh. Tls. 2,513,950.00. The Canton Authorities, with some show of reason, demanded that this sum should be handed over to them. Other views prevailed, however, and the Diplomatic Body, who had been a party to the withholding of the amount, acquiesced in a proposal submitted by the Central Government in virtue of which it was finally allocated as follows:—

Sh. Tls. 420,000 for Canton Conservancy.

Sh. Tls. 700,000 for Chinese Legations Abroad A/c.

Sh. Tls. 200,000 for Plague Emergency Measures, and the balance for National Loan Service.

THE SALT GABELLE.

1920 SALT REVENUE.

The net Salt Revenue for 1920, after meeting administrative expenses, paid into the Group Banks during the year 1920, amounted to \$79,064.103. which is a decrease of \$1,572,400 on the net Revenue realised in 1919 (\$80,636,503) but an increase of \$7,498,583 over the net Revenue realised in 1918.

All obligations secured on the Salt Revenue were fully met and the surplus funds released during 1920 to the Chinese Government amounted to \$64,019,879.45 (including \$6.036,494 received from the Maritime Customs). Of this amount, however, some 24 million dollars represent sums either retained locally or appropriated by Provincial Authorities or Military Commanders.

RECENT HISTORY.

Prior to 1909 the Salt Revenue Administration was conducted by the Provincial Governments. The rates of duty, and the lines on which the Administration was to be run were fixed by the Imperial Government at Peking, by which the Salt Commissioners were appointed. The Administration was under the control of the Ministry of Finance, and the Vicerovs and Governors of the Provinces by virtue of their offices, were Chief Controllers General of the Provincial Salt Administration. The Provinces deducted the cost of the Administration, and remitted a portion of the nett revenue annually to Peking. The total revenue received by Peking never appears to have exceeded Tls. 13,000,000 in any one year. An attempt to reform the Salt Administration was made in the year 1910, when a Central Salt Bureau, with Duke Tsai Tze at its head, was formed. The Revolution broke out before the change had produced any effect, and at the end of 1911 the Central Salt Bureau was abolished, and the Salt Administration was placed under the control of a special department of the Ministry of Finance, which was also responsible for the collection of the duties on tea and opium. Early in 1912 a special Department for the administration of the Salt Revenues was created in the Ministry of Finance.

In the Budget for 1912 the gross collections of salt revenue were estimated at Kuping Taels 47,575,486; the ordinary expenditure at Kuping Taels 7,360,041; and the extraordinary expenditure at Kuping Taels 140,856.

These estimates were not, of course, realized, as the whole Administration was disorganized as a result of the Revolution. Up to October 27, 1913, the entire receipts by the Central Government from salt, from the time of the establishment of the Republic, were \$2,600,000.

1913.

In January 1913, when negotiations were proceeding for a loan from the Group Banks, directions were given that all salt revenues were to be held as a special account. The formation of District Inspectorates was ordered to administer the Salt Revenues in all Provinces except Szechuan and Yunnan.

The Reorganization Loan Agreement, which has been reproduced in full in previous editions of the YEAR BOOK, was signed on April 26, 1913, and came into effect on May 21, 1913. Admiral Tsai Ting-kan had been appointed Chinese Chief Inspector of the Salt Revenue Department on January 16, 1913, and in April the appointment of Foreign Adviser was offered to and accepted by, Sir Richard Dane, K.C.I.E. formerly Inspector General of Excise and Salt in India. On the signature of the Loan Agreement he was appointed Foreign Chief Inspector, with the approval of the Foreign Governments concerned, and he arrived in Peking in June, 1913, to take up his new post. He was to be subordinate to, and take instructions from, the Minister of Finance.

At the outset considerable difficulty was experienced in obtaining the powers, and the staff, necessary to undertake the reorganization of the Salt Administration, and the Legations concerned had to make repeated protests against what they considered breaches of the Loan Agreement. On September 17, 1913, the first payment on salt revenue account, of \$726,016.34 was made into the Group Banks. In the same month Mr. Chang Hu was appointed Vice-Minister of Finance, Chief of the Chinese Salt Revenue Administration, and Chinese Chief Inspector. Mr. Chang Hu had had considerable experience in the Salt Administration, and from the date of his appointment the work of reorganization was seriously begun. The second Revolution, in 1913, resulting in the seizure of salt revenues by the revolutionaries, caused serious difficulties. In October 1913 Herr von Strauch.

was appointed Foreign Deputy Chief Inspector, and during that year two Japanese, one Dane, one German, one British, two Russian, and two French

District Inspectors were appointed.

In 1913 the rates of salt taxation varied all over the country. Monopolies of transportation were also granted to favoured individuals, who made enormous profits therefrom. It was not until December 1913, that the Chinese Government definitely adopted the principle of uniform taxation at the source, or in other words, the imposition of a single direct duty in the producing districts. The standard rate was to be \$2.50 per picul, but only \$2 was to be collected in North China until January 1, 1915.

In 1913 \$11,471,242.76 was paid into the Salt Revenue Accounts in the Group Banks. Administrative expenses amounted to \$2,515,486.72 or 17.4

per cent of the total collections.

1914.

During 1914 Mr. Lauru, a Deputy Commissioner of the Maritime Customs was appointed Financial Secretary and Chief Accountant, and Dr. Gatrell, since dead, was appointed Secretary in the English Department. Rules governing the manufacture of salt, laws for the punishment of smugglers, and regulations for the Preventive Service were promulgated.

In 1914 a nett revenue of \$60,409,675.75 was paid into the Group Banks. Administrative expenses amounted to \$4,897,054 or 9.7 per cent. of the revenue. During the year \$31,304,818.22 was released to the Chinese Gov-

ernment.

1915.

In January 1915 Mr. Chang Hu received the 4th Order of Merit, and was commended by the President for his work, and on January 13, the Provincial contributions which were to meet the service of the Reorganization Loan until the Salt Revenues sufficed for the purpose, were suspended. It was arranged, in March 1915, that a reserve of Tls. 11,650,000 should always be maintained for the service of obligations secured on the Salt Revenues. In June 1915, Mr. Chang Hu was impeached on various accounts by the new Minister of Finance, and removed from office.

During this year the scale of pay of the Foreign and Chinese District and Assistant District Inspectors, was finally decided upon. Chinese District Inspectors were to start at \$380 per month, and to rise to a maximum of \$750 per month. Foreign District Inspectors started with salary and house allowance of \$700, increasing after four years' service to a maximum of \$1,000 per month. Chinese Assistant District Inspectors and Foreign Assistant District Inspectors were to receive \$200 to \$500 and \$500 to

\$800 respectively.

In July, 1915 the reserve to be maintained was reduced to Tls. 9,119,000. The nett revenue paid into the Group Banks in 1915 was \$69,277,536.42. Administrative expenses amounted to \$4,989,770.11, or 8.4 per cent of the revenue. The surplus released to the Chinese Government during the year was \$27,523,066.47.

1916.

President Yuan Shih-kai's Monarchical project, and the revolt against him, seriously interfered with reorganization in 1916. The Yunnan Authorities, for instance, commandeered all the salt revenues of that province from March onwards. Nevertheless, the total nett revenues paid into the Group Banks during the year amounted to \$72,440,559.89, administrative expenses being \$6.074,073.89 or 9.7 of the revenues.

1917.

Herr von Strauch was dismissed on the outbreak of war between China and the Central Powers. In August 1917, the Group Banks agreed to the reduction of the reserve to \$10,000,000, subject to reconsideration if exchange fell below 2/6 per Shanghai Tael.

1918.

Sir Richard Dane resigned, and was succeeded by Sir Reginald Gamble

AUTHORITY OF THE FOREIGN CHIEF INSPECTOR.

In Article II (1) of the Regulations for the appointment of a Foreign Adviser in the Central Salt Administration at Peking the duties and au-

thority of the Adviser are thus defined:

"Before any reorganization is effected of the existing system of salt administration and before any contract is concluded or any orders of importance are issued to different localities for consumption (the official transportation, merchants' transportation and transportation by the public at large being included) the said Adviser shall be consulted by the head of the Central Salt Administration, and the nature of the decision to be arrived at and the orders to be issued shall be determined by the Head of the Central Salt Administration, in personal discussion with, or in correspondence with the said Adviser. A copy of every order issued by the Head of the Central Salt Administration in regard to questions of administration which do not fall within the duties of the Chief Inspectors, shall be communicated to the said Adviser for information. In particular, the Adviser shall be consulted in regard to:

(a). The arrangements for the supply of salt for consumption in the different provinces and localities, and reforms which may be necessary in those arrangements.

(b). The methods of collection and deposit in the Chinese Government Salt Revenue Account of duties, dues and payments of every description

connected with salt, and the expenditure connected therewith.

(c). The arrangements for the purchase, storage, transportation and sale of salt on behalf of the Chinese Government and the relations which are to exist between the Officers in charge of these arrangements and the District Inspectors and Chief Inspectors appointed under the Loan Agreement."

In addition to the authority above conferred, the Adviser is entitled to participate in discussions of meetings of the Central Salt Administration (Art. II, 3); to receive copies of and discuss all important administrative orders and documents (Art. IV); and to peruse all archives, documents, and reports of the Central Salt Administration (Art. V.). He may be required by the Minister of Finance to visit different places to inspect the conditions of the Salt Administration, and to submit reports thereon in duplicate to the Minister of Finance and to the Central Salt Administration (Art. II, 4); and from time to time the Minister of Finance may instruct, or the Head of the Central Salt Administration may request, the Adviser to devise measures for the improvement of the Salt Administration (Art. II, 2).

RECENT STATISTICS.

The official returns of the Salt Revenue Administration for the years 1915 to 1919 inclusive are set forth the following tables:

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF DISTRICT INSPECTORATES' RELEASES OF SALT, AND REVENUE RECEIVABLE, ETC., FOR THE YEARS 1915, 1916 AND 1917.

in Production Districts.		Piculs.		Kev	Kevenue Keceivable.	ble.	Re	Revenue Received	ea.
	1915	1916.	1917.	1915.	1916.	1917.	1915.	1916.	1917.
				6	•	6	6	6	6
FENGTIEN	2,494,037	2,527,966	3,290,698	5.015.771.49	5.066,693.73	6.584.566.37	5,304,265.08	5.359,481.50	6.584,566.37
CHANGLU (a)	5,152,560	4,551,384	4.092,964			11,224,846.16	12,765,254.96	12,668,920.28	11,225,434.81
SHANTUNG	1,219,803	1,069,614	1,261.207	3,008,922.03	2,612,514.02	3,262,333.68	3,008,922.03	2,612,514.02	3,207,333.68
HOTUNG	1,854,000	831,000	1,469,400	3,963,563.84	2,101,511.14	3.683,024.54	3,963,563.84	2,101,311.14	3,683,024.54
YANGCHOW	4,377,198	4,630,798	3,603,331	7,033,109.50	6,932,065.34	5,165,816.74	7.250,196.36	6,938,133,34	5,165,816.74
Наісном	1,462,406	2,952,759	1.770,069	3,312,771.61	6,523,149.16	4,520,752.65	3.161,118.61	6.440.927.16	4,391,947.65
SUNGKIANG	627,469	618,253	739,407	1,265,956.24	1,302,899.22	1,826,930.24	1.257,956.24	1,298,239.20	1,825,060.30
LIANGCHEH	1,445,424	1.590,536	1,839,808	3,126,650.23	3.231,429.19	3,512,230.73	3,126,960.20	3.231.429.19	3,498,712.59
FURIEN (b)	1,774,302	861,799	1.292,807	2,463,487.31	2,185,045.13	2,429,339.35	2,447,452.06	2.162.535.61	2,515,906.03
KWANGTUNG .	2,179,872	2.018,502	2.858.931	7.822,741.62	6,965,754.77	6,976,554.76	7,571,582.73	6,948,191.66	7,088,643.90
PINGNANKUET (c)		. 1	922,577		1	795,658.05	1	1	795,658.05
CHANCHIAN (d)	1	****	735,301	Brazza	1	1,245,382.91	-	1	1.245,382.91
VINNAN	806.417	834.998	761,137	3.021.541.34	2,978,393.84	2,781,376.25	3,021,541.34	2,978,393.84	2,781,376.25
STECHTAN	3.614.855	1	1	3,772,848,68		1	3,903,052.82	!	Ì
CHI ANNAN	1,320,338	4.808,322	4.570,034	2,544,319.92	8,384,671.97	8,022,231.18	2,519,798.49	8,398,123.93	8,162,038,18
CHUANPEI	425,938	1,580,563	1.531,882	516.215.36	1,878,266.50	1,817,885.20	516,215.56	1,878,266.50	1,817,885.20
	Manada								
Total (e) (f)	28,754,619	28,976,494	30,739,553	59,543,154.13	62,893,899.73	63,848,928.81	30,739,553 59,543,154.13 62,893,899.73 63,848,928.81 59,727,870.17 63,016,467.37 63,988,787.20	63,016,467.37	63,988,787.20

Continued on next page.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF DISTRICT INSPECTORATES' RELEASES OF SALT AND REVENUE RECEIVABLE. ETC., FOR THE YEARS 1915, 1916 AND 1917.—(Continued.)

1916. 1917. \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$
\$ \$ 49,819.24 4,621,498.56
4,549
6 427,211.95
1 199 303 01
1 009 499 87
1 62 106 79
1X2 44
_

NOTE:-(a) The figures under Administration Expenses entered against Changlu District include those relating to the Central Salt Administration and Chief Inspectorate.

(b) In the Fukien Province salt is purchased, transported and sold on behalf of the Government and the direct duty on salt transported is credited to the Salt Revenue Account by the Salt Commissioner.

(c) (d) Pingnankuei and Chaochiao are Subdistricts in charge of Assistant District Inspectors, stationed respectively at Pakhoi and Swatow, under the general control of the Kwangtung District Inspectors. To facilitate reference and comparison their accounts are shown separately.

(e) The above figures do not include revenue and expenditure in the four provinces, South Anhui, Kiangsi, Hunan and Hupeh.

The 1915 figures are for the entire year except in the case of the following districts. January -September. October - December. District District Chuannan

October —December.

District

Chuanpei

\$5,620,392.54

\$9,004,869.40

CHIEF INSPECTORATE OF THE CENTRAL SALT ADMINISTRATION

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF SALT REVENUE DEPOSITED IN AND WITHDRAWN FROM THE GROUP BANKS DURING THE TWO YEARS. 1916 AND 1917.

DEPOSITS.	1916	1917	WITHDRAWALS.	1916	1917
Balance at 1st January:	₩	€	Charges and Obligations Secured on Salt Revenue:	€	€9-
In Group BanksIn Transit between Group Banks	24,326,066.59	18,593,717.82	(2) Chinese Indemnity of 1901 10,071,371.07 (5) Hupeh Provincial Bonds of 1909 156,509.78 (4) Chihli Provincial Bonds of 1910 725,973.90	10,071,371.07 150,509.78 725,973.90	50,048.01 725,973.89
Proceeds of Salt Revenue	(a) 72,440,559.89	72,440,559.89 (0),	Crisp Loan of 1912	2,383,368.74	2,383,368.74 1,740,887.61
Interest Credited by Group Banks	279,042.37	258,903.42		11,580,681.91	(c) 5,620,392.54
Chinese Indemnity of 1901:—part of 1916 contributions refunded by Maritime Customs		5,474,502.50	5,474,502.50 Transfer Charges and Loss by Ex-	24,911,905.40 52,226,185.48	24,911,905.40 376,094.13 52,226,185.48 8,513,396.18 68,613,370.22
Miscellaneous Withdrawals refunded		24,544.88	24,544.88 Miscellaneous Withdrawals Balance at 31st December:—	375,170.27 47,727.66	436,635.47
			Banks	18,593,717.82	593,717.82 950,086.85 17,983,391.93 382,211.29
Total Dollars.	97,104,793.48	97,104,793.48 95,929,005.09	Total Dollars.	97,104,793.48 95,929,005.09	95,929,005.09

to the Salt Revenue Account in the usual way and \$1,867,528,74 were credited by special arrangements, either by refund from Surplus Saft Revenue released to the Chinese Government or by direct payments from other Government funds or by ransfers through the reserve maintained with the Group Banks-\$10,511,896,05 having been spent ocally under uthority, and \$1,366,632.69 having Out of \$72,440,559 89 credited by the Group Banks in 19:6, \$60,573,031,15 were paid peen appropriated without authority by Provincial Authorities or Military Commanders in Yunnan, Kwangtung and Fukien. (v)

1917, refunded by Maritime 3,384,476.86 The actual payment was ... \$9 Less instalments for July/November, Customs choup Banks in 1917, \$63,130,306.96 were paid to the Saft Revenue Account in the usual way and ments, either by refund from Surplus Salt Revenue payments from other Government funds or by transfers through the reserve maintained with the Group Banks-\$4,448,447.27 having been spent \$7,496,942.66 were credited by special arrange. locally under authority and \$3,048,495 39 having vincial Authorities or Military Commanders in Fukien, Szechuan, Hunan, Kwangtung and Yunnan. released to the Chinese Government or by direct been appropriated without authority by the Pro-

THE CHIFE INSPECTORATE OF THE CHINESEGOVERNMENT CENTRAL SALT ADMINISTRATION

STATEMENT OF SALT REVENUE DEPOSITED IN AND WITHDRAWN FROM THE GROUP BANKS DURING THE YEAR 1918.

0.0	13,325.21 150,305.17 15,697.02 15,697.02 71,761,154.30 671,973.15 69,971.55 16,272,180.77	100,824,684.46
₩	1,4 (C) (C) (C) (C) (C) (C) (C) (C) (C) (C)	
WITHDRAWALS.	Charges and Obligations Secured on Salt Revenue: 1,565,520.04 217,747.09 217,747.09 2,737,251.25 (1) Hupeh Provincial Bonds of 1909, contra (2) Chinese Government 5% Gold (3) Hupeh Provincial Bonds of 1910, chinese Government 5% Gold (4) Chinese Government 5% Gold (5) Chinese Government 5% Gold (6) Chinese Government 5% Gold (7) Hukuang Railways Loan of 1913, (8) Japanese Group Advances of 1917 and 1918 (8) Japanese Group Bailways Loss (9) Japanese Group Bailways Loss (1) Hukuang Railways Loss (1) Hukuang Railways Loss (2) Chinese Group Bailways (3) Japanese Group Bailways (4) Hukuang Bailways (5) Chinese Government 5% Gold (6) Chinese Government 5% Gold (7) Hukuang Railways Loan of 1915, (8) Japanese Group Bailways (9) Japanese Group Bailways (10) Japanese Group Bailways (11) Hukuang Bailways (12) Hukuang Bailways (13) Japanese Group Bailways (14) Japanese Group Bailways (15) Japanese Group Bailways (16) Japanese Group Bailways (17) Japanese Group Bailways (18) Japanese Group Bailways (19) Japanese Group Bailways (10) Japanese Group Bailways (10) Japanese Group Bailways (11) Japanese Group Bailways (12) Japanese Group Bailways (13) Japanese Group Bailways (14) Japanese Group Bailways (15) Japanese Group Bailways (16) Japanese Group Bailways (17) Japanese Group Bailways (18) Japanese Group Bailways	Total Dollars.
⊕	(A) 77 (B)	100,824,684.46
€	112,	
DEPOSITS.	BALANCE at 1.1.18:— In Group Banks, Group Banks, In Transit Between Group Banks, INTEREST CREDITED BY GROUP BANKS, Chinese Indemnity of 1901—Part of 1916 Contributions refunded by Maritime Customs Coupon Instalments for December, 1917 and the year, 1918, refunded by Maritime Customs	Total Dollars.

(A) Out of the \$71,565,520.04 credited by the Group Banks in 1918, \$56,019,545.10 were paid to the Salt Revenue Account in the usual way and \$15,545,974.94 were credited by special arrangements, either by refund from Surplus Salt Revenue released to the Chinese Government or by direct payments from other Government funds or by transfers through the reserve maintained with the Group Banks—\$11,445,786.67 having been spent locally under authority, and \$4,102,188.27 having been appropriated without authority by the Provincial Authorities or Military Commanders in Hunan, Kwangtung and Hunch.

(B) & (C) Chinese Government 5% Gold Reorganisation Coupon Instalments for December 1917 and year 1918 Refunded by

Maritime Customs 7,938,562.86

Less paid from Salt Revenue during 1918 7,930,505.17

8,259.69

*

Net

STATEMENT OF SALT REVENUE DEPOSITED IN AND WITHDRAWN FROM THE GROUP BANKS DURING THE YEAR 1919. THE CHIEF INSPECTORATE OF THE CHINESE GOVERNMENT CENTRAL SALT ADMINISTRATION

		DAILI II	L v LI (O LO.			
4			11,621,761.89 75,213,449.43	328,577.17	9,925,990.38	97,089,778.87
9 ₽	1 309 345 94		9,865,751.49		9,732,925.84	
WITHDRAWALS.	Charge Sal (1) A (2) C (3) H (4) C (5) C	(6) Chinese Government 5% Gold Reorganisation Loan of 1913,	Load Adv	BY ENCHANGE, . 552,521.45. Less: Gain 5,944.31	FALANCE at 51.12.18:— In Group Banks, In Transit between Group Banks,	Total Dollars.
∞	16,272,180.77	181,094.77				97,089,778.87
99	16,202,209.24					
DEPOSITS.	BALANCE at 1.1.19:— In Group Banks,	INTEREST CREDITED BY GROUP BANKS,				Total Dollars.

Account in the usual way and \$26,341,208.28 were credited by special arrangements, either by refund from Survey and salar Revenue released to the Chinese Government or by direct payments from other Government funds or by transfers through the reserve maintained with the Group Banks—\$15,525,732.27 having been spent locally under authority and \$10,817,476.01 having been appropriated without authority by the Provincial Authorities or Out of the \$80,636,503.33 credited by the Group Banks in 1919, \$54.295.295.05 were paid to the Salt Revenue Military Commanders in Szechuan, Kwangtung, Hunan and Hupeh. Note:

CHINA'S INDEBTEDNESS.

China's present foreign indebtedness may be divided generally under four heads :-

(a) General Loans.

(c) Internal Loans.

(b) Railway Loans.

(d) Telegraph Loans.

22,450.10

A. GENERAL LOANS.

War Loans.—These loans were all contracted during, or immediately after, the Chino-Japanese War, and amount to Fcs. 400,000,000 and £32,000,-000 of which about Fcs. 200,000,000 and £20,000,000 is outstanding (December 31, 1919), involving a charge for 1920 of Fcs. 21,154,752 and £1,802,184.

Indemnities.-The Japanese war indemnity of Tls. 230,000,000 is in-

cluded in the figures just quoted.

The indemnity exacted by the Powers after the Boxer outbreak of 1900 amounted to £67,500,000 (Hk. Tls. 450,000,000) divided into five sums, bearing interest at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum, and payment is spread over thirty-nine years. The service of the debt is effected in accordance with a table attached to the Peace Protocol of 1901. The total principal cutstanding at December 31, 1918, amounted to £60,355,218, and the fixed charge for 1919 is £3,312,570. Proportion Haikuan | Foreign

	per cent.	Taels.		Currency.	
Germany	20.015 67	90,070,515	Mks.	278,166,423.93	
Austria-Hungary .	0.889 76	4,003,92	Kr.	10.394.092.40	
Belgium					
Spain	0.030 07	135,315	Ps.	507,431.25	
					(of which \$10,785,-
					286.12 was remit-
					ted in 1908).
France	15.750 72	70,878,240	Fr.	265,793,400.00	
Great Britain	11.249 01	50,620,545	£	7,593,080.19	
Portugal	0.020 50	92,250	£	13,837.17	
Italy				99,803,768.75	
Japan				48.950,891.70	
Holland				1,404,651.60	

Sundry 0.033 26 On China's declaration of war against the Central Powers all repayments of German or Austrian loans was suspended. At the same time the Allied Powers agreed to defer for five years the payments of the Boxer Indemnity. In the case of Russia, however, only one third of the annual payment was officially remitted. China, however, now declines to make

62,820 £

149.870 £

further payments to Russia.

Norway & Sweden 0.013 96

From the time of the Wuchang outbreak the Chinese Government was unable to meet its indemnity and war obligations, to the prejudice of foreign bondholders. In order to prevent the revenue of the Customs from being deflected for revolutionary purposes, arrangements were at once made that all duties, as each port fell into revolutionary hands, should be deposited with a foreign bank in the name of the Inspector-General of Customs. By the end of November, 1911, the Peking Government had agreed to place under the control of the Inspector-General the whole revenue of the Maritime Customs, at whatever port collected.

B. RAILWAY LOANS.

With the exception of the loan for the Northern Railways, all existing railway loans have been contracted since 1900, and in the case of only a few has redemption actually begun. Details of the loans will be found in the tables below, and full information regarding the railways for which they were raised will be found in the chapter on Communications.

THE BANK OF CHINA
GOVERNMENT BANK

**Specially authorised by Presidential Mandate of Nov. 22nd, 1917.]

Authorised Capital \$60,000,000

Paid-up Capital \$12,279,800

Governor: FONG KUN KWANG
Vice-Governor: CHANG KIA NGAU

Every description of Banking and Exchange business transacted. Interest allowed on Current Accounts and Fixed Deposits according to arrangement.

Credits grante 1 on approved Securities.
Special Facilities for Transfers to all parts of China.

Head Office: PEKING.

BRANCHES AND SUB-BRANCHES.

Chihli Province.—Peking, Tientsin. Paotingfu, Tangshan. Taming, Chikiachuang Tungchow (north)

Kiangsu Province. Shanghai, Nanking, Soochow, Chinkiang, Yang-chow, Tsinkiangpoo, Wusth, Shuchow, Tungchow (south) Hislang-hu.

Hupeh Province.—Hankow, Ichang.

Shantung Province.—Tsinanfu, Tsingtau, Chefoo, Tunghsien, Tsining, Linchin

Honan Province.—Kaifengfu, Chow kow, Hsuhsien.

Three Eastern Provinces. Changchun, Mukden, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Harbin, Heiho, Suihwa, Hailung, Yenchi, Yingkow, Dalny, Antung, Tichling, Kaiyuan, Taonan, Kungchuling,

Fukien Province.—Foochow, Amoy, Hangkiang, Chuanchow.

Kwangtung Province.—Hongkong, Canton, Swatow, Chunchow.

Chekiang Province.—Hongkong, Canton, Swatow, Chunchow.

Chekiang Province.—Hongkong, Changtu, Wanhsien, Tseluching, Tung-chuan, Wutungchao

Kwelchow Province.—Nanchang, Kiukiang, Kanchow, Chianfu, Kingtechin

Anhui Province.—Nanchang, Kiukiang, Ranchow, Chianfu, Kingtechin

Anhui Province.—Changkha.

Special District.—Kalgan Urga, Paote, Suilowa.

HONGKONG AND SHANGHAI BANKING CORPORATION.

Paid-up Capital Reserve Funds:	•••	* * *		 \$15,000,000
Sterling				 £ 2,500,000
Silver				 \$21,500,000
Reserve Liability	of Pro	prietor	'S	 \$15,000,000

Head Office: Hongkong. Court of Directors:

G. T. M. Edkins, Esq., Chairman.

G. M. Dodwell, Esq., Deputy Chairman.

D. G. M. Bernard, Esq. Hon. Mr. E. V. D. Parr. A. S. Gubbay, Esq. W. L. Pattenden, Esq. Hon. Mr. P. H. Holyoak, J. A. Plummer, Esq. H. P. White, Esq. A. O. Lang, Esq.

Branches and Agencies:

Amoy	Ipoh	Penang
Bangkok	Johore	Rangoon
Batavia	Kuala-Lumpur	Saigon
Bombay	Kobe	S. Francisco
Calcutta	London	Shanghai
Canton	Lyons	Singapore
Colombo	Manila	Sourabaya
Foochow	Malacca	Tientsin
Hankow	New York	Tsingtao
Harbin	Nagasaki	Vladivostok
Hongkew	Peking	Yokohama
Hoilo		

Chief Manager: HON, Mr. A. G. STEPHEN.

London Bankers:

London County Westminster and Parr's Bank, Ltd. Shanghai Branch: 12 The Bund.

Sub-Agency: 9 Broadway.

Interest allowed on Current Accounts and on Fixed Deposit according to arrangement.

Local Bills Discounted.

Credits granted on approved sec rities, and every description of banking and exchange business transacted.

Drafts granted on London and the chief commercial places in Europe, India, Australia, Africa, China, Japan and America.

Savings Bank Office:

12 The Bund and 9 Broadway.

Deposits of not less than \$1, or over \$100, will be received at one time.

Interest 35 per cent, per annum.

Deposits may be withdrawn on demand. Accounts either in Dollars or Taels.

Office Hours-10 a.m. to 3 p.m.; Saturday, 10 a.m. to 12 noon.

G. H. STITT. Acting Manager.

Shanghai

C. INTERNAL LOANS.

The Official figures of China's Domestic Loans, other than those concluded with the Chinese Bankers' Group, are to be found in the tables at the end of this section.

An important scheme for the readjustment of Internal Loans was sanctioned by the Central Government in March 1920. It should be stated that on June 6, 1917, the Inspector General of Customs notified all Subscribers to the Third Year and Fourth Year Domestic Loans of \$24,000,000 each that he had assumed charge of the service of these Loans, the interest on which would in future be adequately secured. It was impossible at the time to say when redemption would be possible, and until January 1921, Redemption had been irregular and behind scheduled dates. In that month arrangements were made to enable annual drawings of each loan to be undertaken until their extinction in 1924 and 1925 respectively.

In March, 1921, a Presidential Mandate was issued approving of the proposals of the Ministry of Finance for the readjustment of China's Do-

mestic Loans on the following basis:

The Government determined to put all the internal loans, except the Third, Fourth Year Loans and the Seventh Year Short Term Loans, under one loan service. The First and Eighth Year Bonds will be revalued to 40%* of their original value, and the redemption of these loans will be completed in ten years. The redemption of the Fifth Year Loan will begin with the year when the Third and Fourth Year Loans finish redemption. The 8% Military Loans will be redeemed in four years by four instalments. The redemption of all the other loans will be carried out according to the original regulations. All these plans will begin this year. With regard to the detailed arrangements, the following measures have been adopted.

1. To set aside a sum of \$12,000,000 every year from the Salt Revenue

for readjustment purposes.

2. To set aside a sum of \$9,600,000 every year from the Wine and

Tobacco Administration for the same purpose.

3. Before the reorganisation of the Wine and Tobacco Administration, the Ministry of Communications should provide a monthly fund of \$500,000 every mouth from the revenue it realises from various sources. These menthly funds are to be secured by the receipts to be realised by the Wine and Tobacco Administration after its reorganisation. (However, if all the receipts of the Ministry of Communications are already specified for their use and disposal, such loans shall be negotiated by the Ministry of Communications, the Bankers, and the Wine and Tobacco Administration).

4. All the surplus funds from the Customs Administration, and Native Customs Administration after the securities for the Seventh Year Short Term Loans and for the Third and Fourth Year Loans are deducted and after the Third and Fourth Year Loans are all redeemed and all the funds that are obtained because of the non-payment of German, Austrian and Russian Indemnities shall be used for the readjustment of Internal Loans.

5. When all the above funds are secured, their custody should be handed over to the Customs Inspector-General, who in turn deposits them with the Chinese Banks following the precedent of arrangement in connection with the redemption plans of the Third, Fourth and Seventh Year Loans. The Bankers should appoint representatives to work together with the Customs Inspector-General so that the public will be fully informed as to the certainty and security of the readjustment funds. With regard to the principal redemption and interest payment of various loans, the Customs Inspector-General and the Bankers should always work hand in hand so that the best results may be obtained.

^{*} It was afterwards decided to make the acceptance of these revalued Bonds optional.

A. GENERAL LOANS.

Security	21,154,752.00 Customs Revenues	966,952.0.0. Custom: Revenues	835,232.0.0. Customs Revenues and		Peking Octroi	Title Deeds Tax	Title Deeds Tax	Title Deeds Tax	Title Deeds Tax	Title Deeds Tax	250,000.0.0. Salt Revenues	1,250,000.0.0. Salt Revenues	22,500.0.0 Surplus Revenues of Peking-Mukden Rly.	5,000,000.00 Receipts from Industrial	Ţ.	Stamp Tax and Treasury	Wine and Tobacco Tax	Salt Revenues and Treasury Bills
Total charge (Int. & Princ.) for 1920.										-					r. 5,755,208.32		1	
Frincipal outstanding in January 1920.	rs 198,538,904.00 Fr.	8,655,797.16.8. £	11,848,199.19.8. £	.0.000.0.0	360,000.0.c.	200,000.0.0.	800,000.0.0.	1,333,500.0.0.	333,500.0.0.	1,233,000.0.0.	5,000,000.0.0.	25,000,000.0.0.	2 375,000.0.0. £	Frs 100,000,000.00 Fr.	Frs 10,416,666.66 Fr.	(en 4,500,000.00	G.\$ 5,500,000.00	en 8,300,000.00
Principal paid off to January 1920	rs 201,461,096.00 Frs	7,344,202.3.4.	4,151,800.0.4.	240,000.0.0. E	30,000.00.0 E	100,000.0.0.	2 400,000.0.0. E	£ 666,500.0.0.E	£ 166,500.0.0. E	3	GR CR	3	<u> </u>		Frs. 21,698,833.34 F	Y. 500,000.00 Yen		r. 21,700,000.00 Yen
Term of Term Of Term Of Date	7/1931 Frs	3/1932 €	2/1945 £	12/1916 £	12/1921	12/1917	12/1917	12/1917	12/1917	12/1920	1952	7/1960	2,1934	9/1964	5/1921	9/1919	11/1919 G.\$	1919 Y.
Tears Red T	36	36	45	2	10	ū	5	S	4	5	0 40	47	20	20	5	63	2	-
Issue Price Amount Received by Chinese Cov.											only £5,000,000			only Frs. 100,000,000.	only Frs. 32,115,500.			
Interest per cent	4	5	42	9	9	9	9	9	9	80	5	2	9	2	7	9	9	7
Principal Amount.	400,000,000.00	16,000,000.0.0.	16,000,000.0.0.	300,000.0.0.	450,000.0.0.	300,000.0.0.	1,200,000.0.0.	2,000,000.0.0.	500,000.0.0.	1,233,000.0.0.	10,000,000.0.0.	25,000,000.0.0.	375,000.0.0.	150,006.000.00	100,000,000.00	5,000,000.00	5,500,000.00	30,000,000.00
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rce, etc.	1ch Loan	an Loan	oan Corbord	oan	oan Marberg	Co. Loan	n Loan	n Loan	n Loan	estrian Loan		ion Loan	se Co. Loan	Industria	dvances	Loan	ink Loan	roup Bank
Title, Source, etc.	1895 Russian-French Loa	1896 Anglo-German Loan	German Loan	& Co. Loan	& Co. Loan		1913 1st Austrian Loan	1913 2nd Austrian Loan	1914 3rd Austrian Loan	1915 Renewed Austrian Loan	1912 Crisp Loan	1913 Reorganisation Loan	1914 Anglo-Chinese Co. Loan	1914 Sino-French Industrial	1914 Chin Yu Advances	1916 Koah Co. Loan	1916 Chicago Bank Loan	1917 Japanese Group Bank Y.
Date.	1895	1896	10101	1916	28 2 CIEL	1914	1913	1913	1914	1915	1912	1913	1914	1914	1914	1916	1916	1917

Security.	1,200,000,000 elegraphic Revenues and	2,250,000.00 Tressury Bills 2,250,000.00 Ki-Hui Mines and Foresis, and the receipts	20,000,000,000 Treasury Bills	reasury Bills	Ireasury Bills	Customs Revenues and	Salt Revenues	9.6	11	33	33	"		33	33	66
Total charge (Int. & Princ.) for 1920.				Yen 41,600,000.00 Treasury	I					693,299.8.0.				27 608.54	76,424.90	512.13.9.
Principal outstanding in January 1920.	Yen 15,000,000.00 Yen	Yen 10,000,000.00 Yen Yen 30,000,000.00 Yen	Yen 20,000,000.00 Yen	Yen 20,000,000.00	Yen 20,000,000.00	11,186,547.0.0.	G.\$ 12,455,507.00	rs 391,581,529.00	Frs 147,051,159,00	30,759,683.0.0.	7,531,985.0.0.	Frs 46,873,522.00	20,387.0.0	Frs. 690,068.00 Fr.	. 1,910,191.00 FT.	12,815.0.0.
Principal paid off to January 1920.	5,000,000.00	ĀĀ	I V	Y	X	5,387,263.0.0	40,892.638.00	s 188,579,406.00 Frs	70,817,488.00	11,926,480.0.0	3,859,718.0.0.	22,573,539.00	9,816.0.0.	417,528.00	. 1,155,814.00 Fl.	7,753.0.0.
Term of Redemption Date	5 1923 Y.	½ (renew)	1	½ (renew)	(renew)	45 1945 £	" G.\$	" Frs	" Frs	3 "	" 3	Frs.	٠; د	40 1940 Frs.	" " FI.	: 2
Amount Received by Chinese Gov.																
Interest per cent Issue Price		72-	2	00	00						33	22				
Principal Amount.	7. 20,000,000.00	10,000,000.00	. 20,000,000.00	20,000,000.00	20,000,000.00	16,573,810.0.0.	G.\$ 53,348,145.00	. 580,160,035.00	. 217,868,647.000	42,685,163.0.0.	11,391,703.0.0.	Frs. 69,447,061.00	30,203.0.0.	Frs. 1,107,596.00	F1. 3,066,005.00	20,568.0.0.
Title, Source, etc.	1918 Japanese Telegraph Y.	1918 Ki Hui Railway Loan Y. Mine and Forest Loan Y.	Participation Loan Y.	Advance Manchu-Mongol Ry.	, i	land Trademiter Am						m Indomnity,	al	To dominity,	d Indemnity,	2
Date.	1918	1918			1001	1301								-		

Security.	
Total charge (Interest and Principal) for 1920	
Principal outstanding in January 1920.	G.\$ 5,500,000.00 E 95,000.00.0. E 600,000.0.0. E 100,000.00.0 E 33,791.8.3. G.\$ 350,000.00 G.\$ 350,000.00 G.\$ 250,000.00 G.\$ 250,000.00 G.\$ 250,000.00 G.\$ 250,000.00 G.\$ 250,000.00 G.\$ 250,000.00
Principal paid off to January 1920	E 105,883.19.8 E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E
Pate Redem of Years Years	2 1921 8/1919 £ 9/1921 8/1929 8/1929 4/1920 5/1920 7/1920 6/1920 6/1920
Issue Price Amount Received by Chinese Gov.	
Interest per cent	
Principal Amount	5,500,000,00 198,883,19.8 100,000.0.0. 100,000.0.0. 13. 213,000.00 93,791.8.3. 300,000.00 250,000.00 30,000.00 260,000.00 260,000.00 260,000.00
	2, d
Title, Source, etc	1919 Pacific Develop. Corp. Loan Loan Cost Bills. Bank, Bills arantee Bank Bills arantee Bank Bills Commercial Guarantee Bank Bills Marconi Wireless Co. Wireless Co. Wireless Co. Bilectric Work Ad- vance Samuel Co., Hankow Inprovement Loan Capp., Education Ministry Loan Ministry Loan Ministry Loan Ministry Loan Ministry Loan Ministry Loan Loan Corp., Copp., Conservancy Advance Toropation Loan Corp. Loan Advance Corp. Loan Corp. Loan Corp. Loan Corp. Loan Ministry Loan Corp. Loan Corp. Loan Corp. Loan Ministry Loan Corp. Loan Ministry
Date	1919 1918 1918 1919 1919 1919 1919 1919

	Security													
Total charge	Principal) for			4										
Principal ouc-	uary 1920.	Fr. 7,237,771.68	T. Tls. 374,044.30	T. Tls. 468,315.75	\$ 120,000.00	£ 12,103.6.4.	Fr. 693,769.50	Fr. 11,250,000.00	Fr. 4,300,000.00	Yen 302,609.19	\$ 1,188,416.75	Yen 1,505,250.00	T. Tls. 269,540.24	Yen 2,233,758.89
Principal paid	off to January 1920									Yen 1,519,150.81 Yen	\$ 746,914.25	Yen 494,750.00 Yen	T. Tls	
Term of Redemption.	Years Date	6/1920	6/1926	7/1920	3/1920	4/1920	12/1919	5/1923	5/1925	9/1919 Yen	11/1920	4/1920 Yen	8/1920	8/1920 Yen
I by	Amount Received Chinese												,	
	Issue Pr													
	Interest per cent	2	0	2	0 72	80	0 5,7,8	2 0	0 2	2 10	2 0	2 0	_8_	_ &
Princinal	Amount	7,237,771.68	. 374,044.30	. 468,315.75	120,000.00	12,103.6.4	693,769.50 5,7,8	11.250,000.00	4,300,000.00	1,821,760.00	1,935,331.00	2,000,000.00	. 269,540.24	2,233,758.89 8
ď	A	Frs.	T. TIS.	T. Tls.	co.	G ₂	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Yen	66	Yen	T. Tls.	Yen
	Title, Source, etc.	Industrielle de Chinyu Ad- Promissory	Chine, Commercial Guarantee B a n k Bills 1919 Banque Industrielle de	Chine. Commercial Guarantee Bank Bills 1916 Banque Industrielle de	Chine, Agriculture Ministry Loan 1918 Banque Industrielle de	000	Chine Pukow Loan Interest	Chine, Capital Bills	Capital Bills	Bills Friebs	Ammunitions Bills Mitsui Bussan Kaisha,	Government	1918 ikura Co., Commercial Guarantee Bank Bills	
	Title,	Banque Chine, vance Notes	Chine, C Guarantee Bills Banque Indu	Chine, Co Guarantee Bills Banque Indu	Chine Minist Banque	Chine, Abroa Banque	Chine				Ammun Ammun Mitsui	Nanking Loan	kura Co., Guarantee	3.0
	Date.	1919	1919	1916	1918	1919	1917	1919	101	1010	1912		1010	ETET

Security			
Total charge (Interest and Principal) for			
Principal out- standing in Jan- aary 1920.	Yen 100,000.00 Yen 100,000.00 Yen 2,000,000.00 Yen 5,000,000.00	Yen 500,000.00 Yen 13,365,126.83 Yen 741,623.82 Yen 124,732.77 Fr. 23,144,736.82 Fr. 4,062,405.00 Fr. 410,895.00	Tls. 100,000 00 Tls. 379,323.75
Principal paid I off to January sta		Yer	T1s. 200,000.00 K. T1s.
Term of Redemption. Property of Date	10/1920 11/1919 11/1920 1920 1/1921	7/1920 9/1920 9/1920 12/1919 12/1919 8/1924 7/1920	2/1920 K. Tls. 9/1921 T. Tls.
Amount Received by Chinese Gov.			
Issue Price			
Interest per cent	8 2 2 8	c 6 6	% 85 75 80
Principal Amount	100,000.00 100,000.00 2,000,000.00 5,000,000.00 2,000,000.00	500,000.00 13,365,126.83 741,623.82 124,732.77 25,144,736.82 4,062,405.00 410,805.00	303,000.00
P ₁	Yen Yen Yen Yen		K. Tls. T. Tls.
Title, Source, etc.	Yokohama Specie Bank, Students A b r o a d Loan Yokohama Specie Bank, Szechuan Students abroad Loan Sino-Japanese Trial QCo., Hankow Paper Mill Loan Japanese Bank Group, Flood Relief Loan Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, Printing Bureau Loan	Chosen Bank, Students Abroad Loan Tai-hei Co., 1st Ammuniton Loan Tai-hei Co., Ammuniton Treasury Bills Toi-hei Co., Ammuniton Treasury Bills Toi-hei Co., Ammuniton Treasury Bills Banque Industrielle de Chine, Pukow Loan Interest Messageries Maritimes Co., Treasury Bills Schneider Co., Treasury Bills Co., Treasury Bills Co. Treasury Bills Chueider Co., Treasury Bills Chueider Co., Treasury Bills Chueider Co., Treasury Bills Co., Treasury Bill	Loan Russo - Asiatic Bank, Commercial Guaran- tee Bank Bills
Date.	1916 1917 1916 1917 1918	1918 1918 1919 1915 1915 1919	1918

	Security															
Total charge	Principal) for 1920															
Principal out-	standing in Jan- uary 1920.	\$ 300,000.00	K. Tls. 150,000.00	K. Tls. 100,000.00	K. Tls. 125,000.00	\$ 400,000.00	\$ 200,000.00	£ 79,500.0.0.	\$ 300,000.00	\$ 80,000.00	£ 1,803,200.0.0.	Sh. Tls. 242,545.13	Yen 100,000.00	T. Tls. 459.204.50	9	
Principal paid	off to January 1920	3/1920 T. Tls. 130,218.75						8,500.00.00							\$ 30,629.2.5.	
Term of Redemption.	Years Date	3/1920	3/1920	3/1920	4/1920	4/1920	1936				2/1920	10/1929	12/1920	12/1920	12/1919	
	Аточть Весеічес Спіпеѕе															
əəi.	Issue Pr															
	Interest per cent		6		00	10	6			9				10	∞	
Principal	Amount	\$ 300,000.00	K. Tls. 150,000.00	K. Tls. 100,000.00	K. Tls. 125,000,00	\$ 400,000.00	\$ 200,000.00	£ 88,000.0.0.	\$ 300,000.00	\$ 80,000.00	£ 1.803,200.00 00.	Ighai Bills Sh. Tls. 242 545.13	Yen 100,000.00	T. Tls. 459,204.50	37,097.1.3.	
Title Control of	The, source, etc.	Russo - Asiatic Bank, Advance	Loan Russo - Asiatic	Education Ministry	Education Ministry 1010 Russo - Asiatic Rank	Loan, Loan, D'Ex.	treme-Orient, E	Ships Cost Bills	1919 Kuhara Co., Advance	l'Etranger, Treasury Bills	1919 Vickers Co., Aeroplane	1919 Hongkong & Shanghai Bank, Treasury Bills	Tai-Wan Bank, Loan	SIS	1916 Banque Belge pour l'Etranger, Students Abroad Loan	
O to C	Date	1919		1919	0101	9161	O LO L	orei	1919		1919	1919	1919	1919	1916	

B. RAILWAY LOANS.

			RAI	LWAY	LOANS.					
	Security	Government guar- antse and Re- venue of and Mortgage upon	the railway.	Government guar- antee, Revenue and Property of Cheng Tai Rail- way.	Government guar- antee, Revenue and Property of Kaifeng Honan	Railway. Profits of and Mortgage roon	the Railway.	Government guar- antee, Revenue	and Property of Taokow Chinghua Railway	
arge and (Total Ch (Interest Principal for 1920	129,375		3,167,4372	3,259,000	145,000			63,352½	
gni talt,	Principal outstand on Dec. 1919	1,437,500		30,150,000	41,000,000	2,900,000			695,700	
0.1	Principa Paid off SIG .599 1919	862,500		9,850,000	stalment 1920	alment	due, 1929		104,300	n paid off.
([8	Charge qionir() (Princip	57,500	in 1908	1,620,000	First instalment due, 1920	First Instalment	due,		. 28,000	Principal has all been paid off.
	Charge serestal)	74,750	Redeemed in 1908	1,548,000	2,050,000	145,000			35,485	Principal
Term of Redemp- tion	Date	1944	1928	1932	1939	1953			1935	1915
Term Reden tion	Years	45	30	30	30	20			30	10
pλ	Amour received Ohinese	06	80	30	06	06	95.4	06	06	100
99i	Issue Pr	26				97.	100			
) t	Interest 190 Teq	Ŋ	2	ro.	r.p	S	2	5	2	42-2
Principal	Amount	2,300,000	4,500,000	40,000,000	41,000.000	2,250,000	650,000	700,000	100,000	1,100,000
A.	Currenc	ся	c45	Fr.	Fr.	¢3	બ	어	બર	Ç.Ş
oto course of the		British and Chinese Corporation Loan for Imperial Railways of North China.	1898 Franco-Belgian Loan for Peking Hankow Railway.	Russo-Chinese Loan for Shans	Franco-Belgian Loan for Kaifeng Honan Railway. """ (Supplementary Loan)	1903 British and Chinese Corporation Loan for Shanghai Nan-	king ky. "	Pekin Syndicate Loan for Taokow Chinghua Railway	(Supplementary "Loan)	1905 Hongkong Government Loan for redemption of Canton Hankow Railway Contract.
+	Care	8681	1898		1903	1903	1907	1905	1905	1905

Security		Profits of and Mortgage upon the lailway	First Charge upon likin and internal Revenues of TIS3 800,000 a year in the Provinces of	Chihli, Shantung and Kiangsu. 144,375 Surplus of Peking Mukden Riy	Sundry taxes of Tls. 4.250,000 a year in the pro- vinces of Che	kiang, Kiangsu. Hupeh and Chihli		First charge upon likin and certain internal taxes of Tis. 3,600,000 a	year in the pro	Shantong, Kianz- su and Anhui. 96,300 Surplus of Peking Hankow Rly.
orest and large strong large strong large strong large	stoT dnI) q	121,500	481,250	144,375	487,500	Loan	24,666.66	150,000	peo	96,300
no guibnet e161 ,4215		1,500,000	4,625,000	1,387,500	4,750,100	to the 1917	142,222.24	3,000,000	been advan	000'66
teqiat of fo bet alst	Diad [01	talment 1920	375,000	112,500	250,000	The unpaid portion was added to the 1917 Loan	177,777.76	First Instalment due, 1921	but £900,424.6.4 & £300,000 have been advanced	360,000
(Incipal)	(Pri tot	First Instalment due, 1920	250,000	75,000	250,000	aid portion	37,777.78	 First Instaln due, 1921	424.6.4 & £3	000,00
erest)	ofnI)	75,000	243,750	73,125	250,000	The unp	7,777.77	150,000		12,600
of po-	Date	1937	1938	1938	1938	1934	1927	1940	issued	1920
11 5 6	Keal	30	30	30	30	25	18	30	Not yet	10
nount ived by nese Govt.	9991	94	93 }	93	94	93	93	92	Z	972
e Price	ussI	100	983	66	88			105		108
rest Cent	Inte	D.	5	S	5 2 2	ıΩ	υ	2		7
Principal Amount		1,500,000	3,000,000	1,500,000	5,000,000	2,150,000	320,000	3,000,000	1,800,000	450,000
rency	Cur	લ	વર વર	c _t 2	બ	Yen	Yen	લર	앆	બ
Title, Source, etc.		British and Chinese Corporation Loan for Canton Kowloon Ry.	Anglo-German Loan for Tientsin Pukow Railway,	British and Chinese Corporation Loan for Shanghai Hangchow Ningpo Railway	Anglo-French Loan for Redemption of Pek ing Hankow Rly.	Japanesa Loan for Kirin Changchun R;	Japanese Loan for Hsinmintun Mukden Railway	Anglo German Supplementary Loan for Tientsin Pukow Rly.	27 27 29	London, City, and Midland Bank (Pek- ing Hankow Railway redemption Loan)
Date		1907	1909	1908	1908	1908	1909	1910	1910	1910

		201111		JAINS.					
Security	470,803 Surplus of Peking Hankow Rly.	Surplus of Peking Hankew Rly.	Ü	S00,960 Hupeh Hunan salt and likin revenues and Hu.	neh rice tax to the amount of TIS. 5,200,000 a year.	Revenues of the RIV, and the	railway property	Government guar- antee and Mort- gage upon the railway	Ordinary Loan bonds Fr. 30,-
Paran charge bna tentini) (laqionirq 0261 not	470,800	41,601.12s.	500,000	300,000	325,000	32,500	130,000	200,000	0,700,000,01
Principal outstanding to Dec. 31st, 1919	440,000	28,880	10,000,000	6,000,000	5,000,000	200,000	2,000,000	4,000,000	10,000,000
Principal paid Off to 1 ec 51st, 1919	1,760,000	155,520	st Instalment due, 1922	instalin ant dur 1921	instalment due, 1922	instalment due, 1924	instalment due, 1932	instalment due,	ned in 1920
Charge (Principal) (1919.	440,000	38,880	First Instalment due, 1922	First instal	First instal	First instal	First instal	First insta 1923	To be redeemed in 1920
Charge (Interest) for 1919	61,600	5,443.48.	500,000	300,000	325,000	32,500	130,000	200,000	700,000
Term of redemption Date	1920	1920	1936	1921	1927	1929	1937	1952	1920
	10	4	52	40	15	15	23	40	9
Amount re- ceived by Chinese Govt.	972	91	95	98	62	92	92	85	96
Issue Price								91	
Interest per Cent	7	-	20	2	79	622	64	2	7
Principal Amount	2,200,000	194,400	10,000,000	6,000,000	5,000,000	500,000	2,000 000	4,000,000	10,000,000
Currency	Yen	બ	Yeш	ਲ	Yen	Yen	Yen	a 등 :	Fr.
Title, Source, etc.	Yokohama Specie Bank (Peking Hankow R.I.y. redemption loan)	1913 London, City, and Midland Bank (Pek- ing Hankow Railway redomption loan)	Yuchuanpu Loan (Yo- kohama Specie Bank)	1911 Hukuang Railway Loan (Four Nations Group)		Nan-Hsun Kailway Loan (East Asia Industrial Co.) (2nd Loan)	Nan-Hsun Kailway Loan (East Asia Industria) Co.) (3rd Loan)	Lung-Tsing-U-Itai Railway Loan	1916 Lung-Hai Short Term Loan
Date	1910	1913	1911	1911	1912	1010	121	1912	1916

			KAIL	WALL	DANS.				201
:	Security	Ordinary Loan bonds Fr. 50,-	Revenues of and mortgage upon the railway	covernment guarantee and mort-gage upon the railway	Profit of and mortgage upon the railway	4	Revenues of and mortgage on the railway	Government guarantee and mert- gage upon the	Profit of and mortgage upon the railway.
arge and () ()	də latoT desətədri) laqiənir9 lat rot	1,406,000		ın ced	37,200	250,000			
gui	Princip outstand Dec. 3lsi	20,000,000	_	ve been £dva	120,000	5,000,000	- Po		anced
	Principal	ned in 1924	nced	issued but £770,217,6.6 & Fr. 5,798,518.95 have been edvanced	30,000	instalment due,	Not yet issued but Tls. 2,486,000 have been advanced		Not yet issued but Fr. 32,115,500. have been advanced
	Charge (Princips for 191	To be redeemed in 1924		6.6 & Fr. 5,	30,009	First instal	86,000 have		32,115,500. ha
	Charge (Interest for 191	1,400,000	 7,256.3.5 hav	ut £770,217.	00006	250,000	but Tls. 2,4	ned	ed but Fr.
Term of redemption	Date	1924	ut £20	sued h	1923	1956	t issued	Not yet issued	ret issu
	Years	۵	led b	yet is	07	40	ot ye	Not	Not 1
Λq	nomA bevieser SenidO	63	yet issu	Not	85	81			
	Issue Pr		Not			86≟			
	Interest per Cer	2	വ	2	9	2	2	D	2
Principal	Amount	20,000,000	3,000,000	10,000,000	150,000	5,000,000	8,000,000	10,000,000	000,000,000
K	Currenc	Fr.	બ	બ	ч	Yen	બ	유	Fr.
40		Ferm	Rly.	lway	Rly.	Loan	Rlv and ation)	Loan Com-	Loar
nirce.	(a)	Short 1	nyang inese Cer mited)	ng Rai	Vanking oan)	Rly. na S _l	- C	Railway Pauling nited)	Railway
Title Source efe		1919 Lung-Hai Short Tern Loan	1913 Pukow Sinyang Rly. Loan (Chinese Central Rlys. Limited)	1913 Tung Cheng Railway Loan	1913 Shanghai Nanking Rly. (Land Loan)	1913 Ssu Tsen Rly. Loan (Yokohama Specie Bank)	1914 Nanking Hunan Rlv Loan (British and Chinese Corporation)	1914 Sha Hsing Railway Loan (Messrs Pauling Company Limited)	1914 Ching Yu Railway Loar
Date		1919	1913	1913	1913	1913	1914	1914	1914

				20113	. 14 11 11	1 110	11110.				
	Secunty	Surplus of Peking Mukden Railway	Surplus of Peking Mukden Railway	Mortgage upon tle railway	Profit of and mort- gage upon the railway	Revenues of and mortgage upon the railway	Government guar- sintee, Revs. of and mortgage on	the railway Yen 568,000	Government guarantee and revenues of the railway	Government guarantee and revenues of the railway	Surplus of Peking Mukden Railway
narge f and l) for 20.	do latoT (referes sqionira (referes	22,500	1			325 (100	1,600,000	438,000	76,800		
legic Saib ,telč	Prind natstuo on Dec 1919	375,000		anced	advanced	6,500,000	1,712,000	400,000	240,000		
biag [. 990 9191	Principa Cff to D	instalment due, 1925	2,100,000	e been adv	have been	ment due,	0 the rest en paid	1,000,000	60,000		
(is	Charge (Princip for 191	First instal	700,000	yet issued but G\$1,000,000 have been advanced	Not yet issued but Roubles 1,000,000 have been advanced	First instalment due 1928	Paid 1,000,000 the rest has not been paid	400,000 Not yet paid	000,009		
	Charge sereanl) for 191	22,500	36,750	ed but G\$1	but Rouble	325,000	182,000	38,000	21,600		
of iption	Chinese Years Date	1934	1919	t issu	issued	1947	1919	1919	1923	1930	
Term	Years	80	4	Not ye	lot yet	30	Н	H	ശ		
251	Amount ceived Chinese	- 31			2-	91½					
90ir	Issue P										
3t	freterest per Cer	9	7	ro.	ro	ro	7	93	∞	74	∞
Principal	Amount	375,000	2,100,000	10,000,000	50,000,000	6,500,000	2,600,000	400,000	300,000	467,066.04	2,000,000
4	Currenc	сh	Tls.	\$5	Rouble	Yen	Yen	9 ₽	% 5	88	TIS.
Date Title Source of		Shanghai Fengching Railway Loan	Advance from British and Chinese Cor.	Chuchow Chinchow Railway Loan	Loan	Kirin Changchun Rail-	0/2	ŝ	1918 Taokow Chinghua Rly. Loan (Incremse of Rolling-Stock)	Taokow Chinghua Rly. Loan (Increase of Rolling-Stock)	Henan Hupeh Section Short Term Loan
Date		1914	1915	1916	1916	1917	1918	1918	1978	0101	1918

C. INTERNAL LOANS.

Security.	Temporarily secured on landtax. After abolition of likin, the increased customs revenues will	Titue Deeds Tax and Stamp Tax of the	whole country. 4th charge on unpleaged revenue of reking Hankow	Railway. Unpledged portion of native customs, revenues i halgan and Suiyuan native	customs and likin of the whole province of Shansi. Tobacce and Wine Public Sales Tax	1,723.000.00 Deferred indemnity	Second charge on the reverses of ex 50-li	rative customs Treasury Funds Goods Tax	
Total charge (Int. & Prin-	269,692.00	4,889,434.20	1,165,940.10	1,316,812.50	466,230.00	1,728,000.00	2,700,000.00	19,607.40	
laqionir gaibaadduo gaibaadd ai yranaadd ai 0261	3,371,150.00	81,490,570.00	19,472,335.00 \$	21,946,875.00 \$	7,770,515.00	23,300,000,00	45,000,000.00 \$	226,790.00 \$	
Principal paid off to January	4,000,000.00	9)	5,493,675.00	3,883,090.00 \$	G.	19,200,000.00	\ \ \	1,520,000.00	,
Date C.	1918 \$	1943 \$	1925 \$	1923 8	1920 \$	1922 8	1937 \$	1920 8	
Term of	9	36	12	∞	4	ů	20	9 20	
Actual Issue.	7,371,150.00	81,490,570.00	24,926,110.00	25,829,965.00	7,770,515.00	48,000,000.00	45,000,000.00	1,646,790.00	
	GD	03:	60-	on	66·	on-	()Ps	05 00-	
Psite price	100	76	94	76	92	00т	100	100	
Inferest free reat	ω	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	
Principal Amount.	100,000,000.00	200,000.000.00	24,000,000.00	24,000,000.00	20,000,000.00	48,000,000.00	45,000,000,00	30,600 600.50	
	_ %:	90:	Ns.	w	00:	99:	- 4	~ ·	
Title, Source, etc.	8°/o Military Loan	1st Year 6 °/o Loan	3rd Year National Loan	4th Year National Loan	5th Year Internal Loan	Issue	7th Year 6 % Internal Loan	Patriotic Loan 8th Year 7 % Internal Loan	
Date	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916		1918	1912 1919	

D. TELEGRAPH LOANS.

1.			a [*]	д			
		13,588 Shanghai - Chefoo- Taku Cable.	Chefoo-Taku Cable.	42,036 Certain Telegraph Receipts			
	security.	hanghai - Ch Taku Cable.	aku	Tele			
0	Secu	angha aku	I-ooje	ertain T Receipts			
		SS Sha		Cer F		 	
pur :	do fatoT deserestat) deserestation deseresta	13,56	3,152	42,03			
gnib	Princips on tstand on Dec.	113,907	26,430	352,397			
070	1 10070	96,093	21,570	3.4 s			
bisq I	Trincipa off to D	96	21.	159,393.4 s			
6	101 TOT	7,606	1,765	23,532.14 s			
(Is	Charge (Princip for 1919			23,53			
6	101 101	5,982	1,387	18,503.6 s			
(Ť	Charge (Interes	ιΩ	P-1	18,5(
of iption	Date	1930	1930	1930			
Term of redemption	Years	92	23	19			
JAOE.	Amount ceived k Chinese						
	lssue pr						
9	Interest per cen	ro	ıo	ro.			
ipal	unt	210,000	48,000	s 511,790.4			
Princ	Amount	[2]	7	511			
. A	Ситтепсу	43	બ	ca			
	·	raph	raph	Telegraph Loan (Eastern Extension and Great Northern Telegraph Companies)			
4	, ec.	Telegi	Teleg	sion sion lern T			
9	Dinog	nish.	nish	h Lc Exten North Comp			
Otto Course of	, and	glo-Da	glo-De	Telegraph Loan tern Extension Great Northern graph Compan			
		1900 Anglo-Danish Telegraph Loan	1901 Anglo-Danish Telegraph Loan		-	 	
o to C	Dan	1900	190	1911			

THE RAILWAY CAR LOAN AGREEMENT.*

On January 15, 1921, a loan agreement was signed between the Ministry of Communications and a Chinese Banking Group.

(Translation from the Peking Daily News.)

Whereas the Ministry of Communications of the Government of China (hereafter to be known as the party of the first part) wishes to arrange for the issue of short-term, eight per cent (8%) railway car bonds (hereafter to be known as the Bonds) to the par value amount of six million dollars (\$6,000,000.00), Chinese currency, the following contract has been entered into between the party of the first part and the Railway Car Loan Chinese Banking Group (hereafter to be known as the parties of the second part) for the underwriting of these bonds:

- 1. The bonds are to be issued in accordance with the Presidential Mandate promulgating the regulations governing the eight per cent. Railway Car Bonds to be issued by the Ministry of Communications in January 1921 (the tenth year of the Republic of China) to the par value amount of six million dollars (\$6,000,000.00), Chinese currency, and are to be underwritten by the parties of the second part in compliance with the regulations of this Mandate.
- 2. The money derived from these bonds is to be used by the party of the first part exclusively for the purchase of railway cars and locomotives for the following four railway lines.

Peking-Suiyuan, Peking-Hankow, Tientsin-Pukow, and Shanghai-Hang-chow-Ningpo.

The money is to be paid to the firm or firms furnishing the said cars and locomotives, according to the terms of such contract of contracts for such cars and locomotives as may be made. In no circumstances is the money to be used for any purpose other than that specified above.

Within three months of the signature of this contract the party of the first part shall hand to the parties of the second part complete specifications with regard to the kind and quantity of said cars and locomotives to be purchased, together with estimates of the cost. The party of the first part at the same time shall formally appoint the parties of the second part as its authorised agents for the purchase of said cars and locomotives covered by these specifications and estimates. The cars shall be purchased in the open market on the basis of bids giving the best terms as to price and quality. The party of the first part shall appoint one or more experts to assist the parties of the second part in making the contract or contracts for the purchase of said cars and locomotives. The parties of the second part shall secure the approval of the party of the first part before the signature of any contracts for the purchase of said cars and locomotives. the signature of such contracts, the party of the first part shall take such steps as may be necessary to insure the satisfactory fulfilment of the terms of such contract or contracts. Party of the first part shall notify parties of the second part should there be any payment to be made over for the said cars and locomotives but no payment shall be effected until parties of the second part be satisfied with the absolute fulfilment of the condi-

^{*} See p. 231.

tions of this contract. The party of the first part shall pay the parties of the second part as fees one quarter of one per cent. (0.25%) of the total purchase price of said cars and locomotives.

The distribution of said cars and locomotives among the four lines mentioned shall be determined by the party of the first part, but notification shall be given to the parties of the second part of the arrangements made for such distribution. Parities of the second part shall appoint an expert or experts to inspect the different roads and ascertain the conditions of the said cars and locomotives. In every six months the party of the first part shall submit to the parties of the second part a statement of current condition of said cars and locomotives and of the measures being taken to insure their proper maintenance in good condition. If the parties of the second part upon expert advice have reason to believe that the measures being taken are not adequate to protect the securities for the money which has been advanced, they shall specify what additional measures shall be taken.

- 3. The bonds shall be underwritten by the parties of the second part according to the Mandate of December 1920. Each bond shall have a par value of one hundred dollars (\$100), Chinese currency. The parties of the second part shall pay a net sum of ninety-five dollars (\$95.00), Chinese currency, on each bond.
- 4. On the day of the signing of this contract, the parties of the second part shall advance to the credit of the party of the first part the net amount totalling \$5,700,000 due for the bonds which they have underwritten. This fund shall bear interest according to the face value of the bonds. The money thus advanced shall be redeemed by the sale of bonds.
- 5. The advance mentioned above or proceeds from the sale of bonds shall be transferred to the accounts of the party of the first part as deposit bearing four per cent interest per annum.
- 6. The bonds shall be printed by the party of the first part and delivered for sale to the parties of the second part. All the expenses involved in the sale of the bonds, including the cost of telegrams, advertising, postage, etc., shall be borne by the parties of the second part. The party of the first part shall pay to the parties of the second part not more than one per cent (1%) of the total par value of the bonds as a commission for selling.
- 7. The party of the first part shall be responsible for the payment of the principal and interest of the bonds and the fund advanced on them. During the first year, fifteen days before each interest payment becomes due, the party of the first part shall pay the amount due for interest on the bonds to such banks as the parties of the second part may specify as the agents for the payment of the interest to the bondholders. At the beginning of the second year, the party of the first part shall instruct each of the four railway lines to which said cars have been assigned to reserve from its monthly income and to deposit with such bank or banks at Peking. Tientsin, Shanghai and Hankow as the parties of the second part may specify certain sums as a reserve fund for the payment of the principal and interest of the bonds. The directorate of each of the four railways shall notify the parties of the second part as to the proportion of the principal and interest of the bonds for which it assumes liability. sums deposited towards the reserve fund provided above shall bear interest at the rate of five per cent (5%) per annum.

In case the party of the first part fails to pay the interest as due at the end of the first interest payment period, the parties of the second part shall have the right to deduct the amount due from the credit accounts provided for in section 4 of this contract. In case the payment of interest has not been made in full at the beginning of the seventh month of the first year, the party of the first part shall instruct each of the four railways to pay within six months the amount due in accordance with the regulations provided for the reserve fund. In case after all payments have been made for said cars and locomotives, any funds remain in the credit accounts provided for in Section 4 of this contract the balance shall be transferred to the reserve fund for the principal and payment of the interest of the bends.

In case any or all of the railways fail to make the payments towards the reserve fund, as provided above, the parties of the second part after due notice may send their agents to collect the amounts due each month from the defaulting railway or railways. In case the amount due cannot be secured in this way, the parties of the second part may collect from the surplus of the Peking-Hankow Railway whatever balance may be due.

- 8. The party of the first part shall allow the parties of the second part to audit the accounts of the Peking-Hankow Railway at least once each year and to publish the results of this audit.
- 9. The party of the first part hereby appoints the parties of the second part, individually and collectively, its agents for the payment of the principal and interest on the bonds, and the bonds shall bear the countersignatures of the parties of the second part as such agents for the issue of the bonds. The party of the first part shall pay the parties of the second part as fees one eighth of one per cent (0.125%) of the payments which may be made to the bond-holders on the principal and interest of the bonds.
- 10. In case of political or industrial crisis whereby a part or the whole of the bonds in question cannot be sold, the parties of the second part shall have a right to determine whether they shall buy them up in part, or whole or to dispose them in any other way.
- 11. In case the party of the first part wishes to issue bonds for the purchase of locomotives or cars, in addition to the bonds covered by this contract, the parties of the second part shall have the first option in underwriting the additional bonds.
- 12. Points not covered by this contract shall be decided in accordance with the Mandate of December 1920.
- 13 Twenty-three copies of this contract shall be signed by the parties to it. Not less than one copy shall be retained by the party of the first part and by each of the parties of the second part.

Signed this 15th day of January, 1921

BANKS WHICH ARE MEMBERS OF THE CHINESE BANKING GROUP.

Information.	
Economic	
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Bureau	
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	Directors.	Feng Keng-kwang, Governor) Chang Kia-ngau, (Vice-Wang Ko-Min, Chang Kia-ngau, Hsiung Hsiling, Chon Hsueh-Hsi, etc.	Tsao Ju-lin, (Presi-Liang Shih-yi, Chudent) Jen Feng-pao, (Vice-chi, Lu Tsung-yu, Tsao Ju-lin, Jen Feng-pao, etc.	Wang Ko-min, etc.
ıtion.	Managers.	Feng Keng - kwang, (Governor) Chang Kia-ngau, (Vice- Governor)	Tsao Ju-lin, (President) Jen Feng-pao, (Vice-President)	Chou Hsueh-hsi, (Managing-Director) Li Shi-wei, (Sub-Managing-Director) Hsiung Hsi-ling (President) Chien Neng-Shun (V-Fresd'th) Cho Ting-mou (Manager, Peking B.)
: Informe	Date of Estab- lishment.	1911	1906	1919
Computed by the Bureau of Economic Information.	Branches & Sub-branches	106	57 branches, 5 being in f or e ig n Countries, viz., Sing- a p o r e', Tokyo, and Hongkong.	Tientsin, Peking, Shanghai, Shantung
e Bureau	Location of Head Office.	Peking		46,678 Tientsin Tientsin, Peking, Shanghai
mpiled by th	Surplus.	\$ 4,946,600 Peking	\$5,223,828 Peking	46,678
COL	Paid-up Capital	\$ 12,279,800	(\$7,500,000)	2,223,600
	Authorised Capital.	000,000,000	ls.10,000,000 (\$15,000,000)	20,000,000
	Name.	The Bank of China 中國銀行	The Bank of 18.10,000,000 Tls. 5,000,000 C o m munica- (\$15,000,000) (\$7,500,000) tions 交通銀行	The National Industrial Bank of China 中國實業 銀行

							minimum of the continued of the continue	
Name.	Authorised Capital.	Paid-up Capital	Surplus.	Locution of Head Office.	Branches & Sub-branches	Date of Estab- lishment.	Managers.	Directors.
The Kincheng Commercial Bank 金城銀行	5,000,000	4,500,000	360,000	\$60,000 Tientsin	Shanghai, Peking, Tientsin, Hankow,— Pengpu, Nanking.	1917	Chow Cho-min, (President) Sung Soong-yuen, (Manager, Peking Branch) Wu Yen-ching, (Sub-Manager, Peking B.)	Liang Shih-yi, etc.
The Sing Hwa Savings Bank 新華儲蓄	5,000,000	1,250,000	453,000	Peking	Tientsin, Shanghai.	1914	Fang Jen-yuan, (President)	Liang Shih-yi, Yeh Kung-cho, Wu Ting- chang, Fang Jen-yuan, Tan Li-sun, Chou Tzu- chi, etc.
The Tsung Fu Union Bank 中字銀行	2,000,000	1,500,000	124,000	124,000 Tientsin Peking, Shangha Tientsin	Peking, Shanghai, Tientsin.	1915	Sun To-yu. (President) Tsur Ye-tsung. (Man-Shou-sun, etc. ager, Peking B.)	Sun To-yu, Pien Shou-sun, etc.
The National Commercial Bank 浙江與	2,500,000	2,500,000	430,000	430,000 Shanghai	Shanghai, Hankow, Peking, Tientsin— Mukden, Harbin.	1905	Chiang Heng-lin & Shen Ming-cheng Managing-Directors)	Yeh Ching-kwei, etc.
The Peking Commercial Bank 北京商業	1,000,000	298,000		Peking	Tientsin, Peking.	1918	Chang Chao-ta, (President) Chen Yü-fen, (Manager, Peking, Branch)	Li Mou-chai, etc.

	Directors.	Chou Tzu-chi Wang Ko-min, Hsu Shih- chang, etc.	Lu Tiao-yuan, etc.	Tan Li-sun, Chang Tiao-cheng, etc.	Young Wen-kwang, Young Hsi-ching, Young Yu-chu, Young Tsu-feng, etc.
,	Managers.	Wang Ling-koh, (Manager, Peking Branch)	Lu Chi-cheng	$\begin{array}{ccc} {\rm Tan} & {\rm Li.sun} \\ ({\rm President}) \end{array}$	Young Pei-yen (President)
	Date of Estab- lishment.	1910	1916		1914
	Branches & Bstab- Sub-branches lishment.	Tientsin, Peking,		Peking. Shanghai, Tsinan, Nanking, Tientsin.	Tientsin, Shihchiach- wang, Sing- yangchow, Hankow, Nanking, Yangchow, Hangchow, Hangchow, Hongkong,
	Location of Head Office.	Tientsin	Peking	97,857 Tientsin	200,000 Chungking
	Surplus.	66:	11,500	97,857	200,000
	Paid-up Capital	66:	200,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
	Authorised Capital.	6,000,000	400,000	2,000,000	1,000,000
	Name.	The Commercial Guarantee Bank of Chihli 米祥保商	The Dai Wen Agricultural and Commercial Bank 大苑農工	The Continental Bank 大陸銀行	The Young Bro- thers Banking Corporation 聚興成銀行

Directors.	Liang Shih-yi, etc.	Shih Shao-tseng, etc.	Chang Hù, etc.	Chuang Lü, Lin Erb- t si a ng, Ku n g Hsiang-hsi, Chang Chien, Chen Hui- teh, etc.
Managers.	Su Kuo-hua (President)	Wang Hou (President)	Ho Heh-lin (President)	Chen Hui-teh (President) Yang Tuon-fu (Vice-President)
Date of Estab- lishment.	1919	1919	1919	1915
Branches & Sub-branches	Peking, Shanghai.	Chengchow (Honan)	Shanghai, Tientsin, Peking.	96,000 Shanghai Soochow, Wusieh, Shanghai, Changchow, Nanking, Pengpu, Nantung, I. hsing, Lin- huikuan, Hankow, Tsinan.
Location of Head Office.	26,265 Tientsin Peking, Shanghe	Peking	200,000 Peking	Shanghai
Surplus.	\$ 26,265		200,000	000'96
Paid-up Capital	000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000	1,000,000
Authorised Capital.	2,000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000	1,000,000
Name.	The Ta Sun Bank 大生銀行	Fhe Sing Hung Commercial Bank 新卓銀行	The Tung Lu Commercial & Savings Bank 東陸銀行	The Shanghai Commercial & Savings Bank 上海商業 儲蓄銀行

Directors.		Yen Yu-shan, Li Lung-chan, Chang Sheng-chuan, etc.		Shen Chung-li, etc.	Koo Sung-chin, Wang Un-su, etc.
Managers.	Chang Yung-Nie, (President) Wu Hsi-ao, (Vice-President) Pang Chi-hsiang, (Manager, Peking Branch)	Sung Hun-fu (President)		Fu Siao-an, (Manager, Peking	Li Fu-sun, (President)
Date of Estab- lishment.	1920	1915	1919	1876	1918
Branches & Sub-branches		Ningpo, Wenchow, Hankow,			
Location of Head Office.	Peking	77,587 Shanghai	Peking	Shanghai	\$70,000 Hangchow
Surplus.	49-	77,387		Tls.1,245,000	\$70,000
Paid-up Capital	•	649,825	2,500,000	Tls.5,000.000 Tls.5,000,000 Tls.1,245,000 Shanghai	\$710,300
Authorised Capital.	5,000,000	1,500,000	10,000,000	Tls.5,000.000	\$1,000,000
Name.	The Industrial Development Bank of China 勸業銀行	The Ningpo Commercial Bank.	The Frontier Bank 邊業銀行	Commercial Bank of China 中國通商 銀行	Chekiang Industrial Bank 浙江地方 寶業銀行

	OHIL	ESE DIII				
. Directors.	Pang Hui-ting, Chow-Shou-chen, Chien Yin-fu, Chen Chi- ming Wu Tseng-lu, Mo Tsien-kiang, etc.			Yeh Hung-yin, Koo Hsiung-yi, Yung Chung-chin, Wang I-ting, Chow Yi- hun, Chang Yao- liang, etc.		
Managers.	Chien Tung-pu (President) Li Tsu-feng (Vice-President)	Chen Lai-po (President)		Wang Pao-lun, (President) (Chu Kia-jei, (Vice-President)	Shih Shao-tseng (President)	
Date of Estab- lishment.	1918	1918		1920	1918	
Branches & Sub-branches	\$500,000 Hongkong Shanghai.	Tsinan, Dairen, Tientsin, Shanghai.				
Location of Head Office.	Hongkong	89,000 Tsingtao		Shanghai	50,000 Shanghai	
Surplus.	200,000	000'68			50,000	
Paid-up Capital	2,000,000	200,000	7		250,000	
Authorised Capital.	2,000,000	200,000		100,000	500,000	
Name.	The Bank of East Asia 東亞銀行	Tung Lai Bank 東萊銀行	Hua Ta Bank 華大銀行	The Tsung Lee Bank 正利銀行	Yung Hung Banking Cor- poration 永卓銀行	Hui Hai Industrial Bank 雅術實業 銀行

THE BANK OF CHINA.*

This bank, known as the Bank of China, was organized by the Provisional Government at Nanking in January of the first year of the Republic (1911) on the foundation of the Ta Ching Bank in Shanghai. Functioning as a State Bank, the Bank undertakes the collection and payment of the Government Treasury Funds, as well as the raising of National Loans and the issue of Military Bonds. Simultaneously, a branch office of the Bank was opened in Nanking, whilst supervisors were appointed by the Provisional Government to control the affairs of the Bank. In April of the same year, when the North and South were united, arrangements were made to establish a Head Office in Peking for the reason that, being a State Bank, its Head Office should be located in the same place where the Central Government functions. Then, at the request of the Ministry of Finance, supervisors of the Bank were appointed by the Central Government. Some time in August, the Bank commenced its business in Peking and the office established in Shanghai was changed into a branch. Thenceforth the Bank of China has undertaken the work previously carried on by the Ta Ching Bank. In order to define the status of this Bank, which had been formed as a State Bank, a Bureau was established for the purpose of carrying out the liquidation of the late Ta Ching Bank. Permission was obtained at the same time through the Ministry of Finance to establish an office for preparing regulations of the Bank as a State Bank. In March of the following year all the necessary arrangements were completed, and the Memorandum of Association of the Bank was promulgated by a Presidential Mandate in April of the same year.

The capital of the Bank was fixed at \$60,000,000, half of which was to be subscribed by the Government. The Bank would commence its business as soon as one-third of the Government's shares was paid up. At the same time, steps were to be taken to establish branches of the Bank in all the important commercial cities and ports in order that they might take up the management of the Government Treasuries in the different provinces. But up to March of the fifth year of the Republic, the Government had only paid up a sum of \$4,281,000 out of the ten million dollars it promised to subscribe. In April of the fourth year of the Republic a call for shares from the merchants was made, whilst a revision was effected by the Senate in the Memorandum of Association of the Bank by which it was agreed that as soon as ten million dollars were subscribed by the merchants the election of Directors and Supervisors should be carried out forthwith. But. owing to the political unrest existing in the country, a sum of only \$3.643. 300 was paid up at the end of September of the sixth year of the Republic. In November of the same year, permission was obtained from the President through the Ministry of Finance to have the Memorandum of Association of the Bank again revised so that as soon as ten million dollars had been paid up by both the Government and the merchants as shares of the Bank, a shareholders' meeting would be held. Immediately afterwards, the Government completed its subscription by handing over to the Bank a sum of \$719,000 in cash, thus making up its holdings to five million dollars. On the other hand, as a great desire was shown on the part of the merchants to subscribe to the shares of the Bank, a sum of \$3,636,500 was paid by them, thus making up the sum of \$7,279,800 which includes the sum of \$3,643,300 previously paid by them as subscriptions to the Bank's shares. As a sum of \$12,279,800 representing the shares of the Government and the merchants, had been actually received, a General Meeting of Shareholders of the Bank of China was held in February of the 6th year of the Republic, when an election of Directors and Supervisors was carried out

^{*}From the Peking Bankers' Magazine.

and the Governors of the Bank were appointed by the President according to the Memorandum of Association of the Bank. Thus, the Bank of China has become a limited liability corporation. The total reserve funds of the Bank amount to \$4,943,580 and there are ninety-nine Branches and Subbranches of the Bank, whose notes are circulated throughout the whole country.

The responsible members of the staff of the Bank are as follows:

General Feng Keng-kwang Mr. Chang Kia-ngau

Governor Vice-Governor

Directors.

General Feng Keng-kwang Mr. Shih Shao-tseng

- ,, Wang Ko-tseng " Lin Pao-heng
- " Li Shih-wei .. Chow Hsueh-hsi

Mr. Chang Kia-ngau

- ,, Pan Li-yuan " Hsiung Hsi-ling
- "Yu Ho-teh ., Hwang Chun

Supervisors.

Mr. Lu Hsueh-pu

,, Li Chai-yuang ., Chen Hwei-teh Mr. Hsuan-wei

., Chang Tiao-cheng

Peking Branch.

Mr. Chang Yao-kwei ., Hsu Ti-shui

Manager Sub-Manager.

Balance Sheet, 1917-19.

Liabilities.	1917.	1918.	1919.
Capital Subscribed Reserve Fund Reserve against Doubtful	\$60,000,000.00 2,714,948.80	\$60,000,000.00 3,197,486.28	\$60,000,000.00 4.116,772.21
Debts, and Losses by Exchange Fixed Deposits Current Deposits Remittances Notes in Circulation Net Profit for the year	20,320,360.48 125,579,906.09 2,814,699.02 72,983,307.42 2,073,032.72	118,857,123.26 3,683,276.20 52,170,299.25	3,679,251.00 35,663,714.28 145,796,145.27 3,038,868.07 61,680,088.39 3,456,333.21
Total	286,487,254.53	272,223,367.44	317,431,172.43

Balance Sheet-Bank of China.-(Continued).

Assets.	1917.	1918.	1919.
Capital Uncalled	\$47,720,200.00	\$47,720,200.00	\$47,720,200.00
Fixed Loans	28,860,023.84	29,588,308.70	
Short Term Loans	110,642,719.95	113,840,752.13	142,909,420.65
Government Securities and			
Sundry Investments	4,093,433.36	10,487,658.34	10,632,517.01
Bank Premises, Furniture,			
etc	2,410,892.78	2,343,359.03	2,886,753.33
Preliminary Expenses	191,341.72	137,318.28	
Expenses for Printing			
Notes	1,237,260.15	1,377,492.05	1,359,073.42
Reserve against Notes in	1,201,200.10	1,011,402.00	1,000,010.44
Circulation	72,984,307.42	52,170,299.25	61 600 000 70
Cash on Hand	18,347,075.31	14,557,979.66	8,980,876.44
m . 3	006 405 054 55	000 000 700 44	471 150 47
Total	286,487,254.53	272,223,367.44	317,431,172.43

THE BANK OF COMMUNICATIONS. *

The Bank of Communications was established by Imperial sanction obtained through the Yu Chuan Pu the Board of Posts, Railways and Telegraphs) in the 11th moon of the 33rd year of Kwang Hsu and in the 2nd meen of the following year the Bank was declared open. The reasons given in the Memorial submitted by the Board, applying for permission to organise this Bank, were that in order to carry on the administration of the Railways, Telegraphs, Posts, and Navigation with efficiency, a central financial organ should be established to control the finances of these different enterprises, and also that a central Bureau should be organised for the management of an issue of National Loan Bonds with which the Peking-Hankow Railway was to be redeemed in accordance with a proposal made at the time. A Capital of ten million Ku-ping Taels was ordered to be raised, half of which, namely, five million taels, should be paid in advance. Four-tenths of the capital should be taken up by the Board and the other six-tenths be subscribed by the merchants.

The Head Office of the Bank was to be established in Peking, with branches in Tientsin, Shanghai, Hankow, Canton and Amoy where railway communication had been established. All funds from the Administrations of Steamships, Railways, Telegraphs and Posts intended for deposit should be controlled by this Bank. Special privileges were also obtained from the Government for note-issue. A President and a Vice-President were appointed by the Board to take charge of all the affairs of the Head Office, with other officials appointed from the Railway Administrations, to be their assistants.

At the time the Bank came into existence, banking business was still in its infancy, and since its establishment the Bank has made it a special business to help the promotion of all kinds of industrial enterprises, and to extend the exchange business of the Bank, in this manner, commanding great confidence with the public. During the political crisis caused by the

^{*}From the Peking Bankers' Magazine.

first Revolution, the shareholders of the Bank formed a Joint Shareholders Commission for the purpose of maintaining the position of the Bank, and Mr. Liang Shih yi was elected President of the Commission (according to the precedent thus established, the President and Vice-President of the Bank will be henceforth elected by the Shareholders of the Bank). Since the assumption of his post as President, Mr. Liang Shih-vi set himself to introducing reforms into the Bank wherever deemed necessary. He also tried, on the one hand, to pay off the debts of the Bank with funds recovered and, on the other hand, made a strenuous effort to extend the bank's business. After two years, the bank was completely re-organised, while its credit has increased to a great extent. Later, a revision was made in the Memorandum of Association, and additional branches were established. Steps were also taken to carry on exchange business with foreign countries, and efforts were made to take in hand the management of the Government Treasury, as well as other enterprises. As a result of all these efforts, the profits of the Bank greatly increased during the third and fourth years of the Republic and, whilst the business of the Bank thus flourished, the shares rose in price. In the 5th year, the specie payment of the Peking Notes of this Bank were suspended in accordance with the Meratorium Order issued by the Government, and in the following year reforms were carried out by the Bank with some new regulations, and a new system of book-keeping introduced.

Afterwards, with a view to promoting the welfare of the people, the Ministry of Communications offered 1/10th of the capital, amounting to Ku-ping Tls. 500,000, for subscription to the public, and thenceforth 3/10th of the shares of the Bank should be held by the Government and 7/10th by the merchants. At first, there were only two branches established in foreign countries,—one in Singapore and the other in Hongkong, but in the 7th year, a further branch was opened in Tokio for the purpose of carrying on exchange business there. With all these efforts taken in extending the business of the Bank, the profits realised increased year by year. The shares of the Bank have been changed from Ku-ping Taels to Dollars, one Ku-ping Tael is made equivalent to \$1.50, making the amount of shares \$7.500,000. There are now 70 branches established throughout the country, with three branches in foreign countries, namely, Singapore, Tokio, and Hongkong, and Reserve funds have reached the sum of \$3,223,828.38 Regarding the Peking Notes, the specie payment of which had been suspended, the Government has now issued a National Loan for their redemption. On and after the 31st January next, these notes will be no longer in existence.

Since its establishment, thirteen years ago, this Bank has passed through many political crises, and has always remained strong. With a good credit and doing a flourishing business the Bank considers that it has done admirable services to the banking community.

Responsible officers of the Bank of Communications.

Mr.	Liang Shih-yi,	Chairman	Cantonese
22	Chu Chi-chien	22	Kweichow
,,	Chow Chi-tse	,,	Shantung
22	Lu Tsung-yu	22	Chekiang
,,	Wang Yu-lin	27	,,
,,	Chuang Pang-yen	22	,,
	Meng Shi-wang	22	,,
,,	Tsao Ju-lin	President	Kiangsu.
,,	Hsu Shi-tsang	Vice-President	
77	Jen Feng-pao	Assistant Vice-President	Chihli
"	Tao Shang	Manager of Peking Bran	

Balance Sheet for the last three Years.

Liabilities.	1917.	1918.	1919.
Capital Loans from other banks. Fixed Deposits Current ,, (a), (b) Notes in circulation Reserves Profits unpaid Profits for the year Sundry deposits Bills payable Overdrafts with other banks Dividend Reserves	\$15,000,000.00 21,250,000.00 12,407,298.52 26,129,644.09 	\$15,000,000.00 15,450,000.00 17,184,573.11 35,179,602.38 34,144,563,48 2,175,138.53 2,050,506.73 4,449,996.18	\$15,000,000.00 15,125,000.00 22,268,001.00 46,364,845.47 6,465,308.32 29,272,653.72 2,975,137.77 25,733.96 2,107,937.41 4,688,623.32 1,222,942.54 1,513,915.66 319,999.69
Total	\$108,936,657.09	126,634,380.29	147,350,098.87
Assets.	1917.	1918.	1919.
Unpaid Capital Fixed Loans Loans on Current A/C Loans against securities ,, on credit Bills discounted Documentary drafts Overdrafts on Current A/C Drafts purchased Amounts due from other banks Bank's Premises and furniture Deposits with other banks Investments Cash on hand	\$7,500,000.00 21,475,096.29 42,213,893.79 2,236,657.05 1,235,050.64 18,619,330.42 2,893,648.66 12,762,980.24	\$7,500,000.00 27,219,048.22 44,540,013.72 5,520,013.18 805,215.77 10,893,551.28 30,156,538.73	27,214,526.91 10,481,155.16 4,355,359.09 2,083,295.88 34,874,757.89 1,294,808.69 1,438,847.72 1,750,583.82 23,955,637.62 9,254,556.79
Total	\$108,936,657.09	126,634,380.39	147,350,098.87

CHAPTER XIV.

CURRENCY.

The Tael is at present the unit of currency for foreign and Chinese commerce. It is hoped, however, when the Government mint at Shanghai is completed to substitute the national dollar for the Tael as the unit of currency. Whether this is practicable will, probably, depend upon the extent to which foreign experts are employed for the assaying and minting of silver. Formerly all foreign transactions in China were paid for either in kind or in Carolus or Spanish dollars, which even to this day are current in two or three of the less important treaty ports.

In large native transactions ingots of silver, known as shoes, form the medium of exchange. These are Sycee, i.e. pure silver (so-called from the mispronunciation of se-sze, meaning "silk fine"). Shoes range in weight from ½ tael to 100 taels, but never amount to an exact round sum of, say, ten, twenty-five or fifty taels. Shanghai shoes weigh about fifty taels, the average fineness being 916.66. After the silver has been cast into shoes at the melting houses, these are sent to be tested at the office of the Kung Ku, or public valuers. The fineness is estimated, and the premium or betterness, together with the exact weight, is marked in ink ("chopped"). The fineness is determined by dividing the weight into 100 parts called touch; 98 touch means that the ingot contains 98 parts of pure metal to 2 parts of alloy. According to the stamp ("chop") affixed to each ingot the compradore before circulating the shoe as currency adds from nil up to 3 taels Shanghai weight per 50 taels of actual weight. This addition ranges from nil for silver of the Kung Ku standard up to 6 per cent for pure silver of 100 touch. A further addition of 2 per cent is made in conformity with "old custom." THE TAEL.

The *Tael* is a weight of silver of a certain degree of fineness. It is represented by no actual coin The taels used in different parts of the Empire vary in weight, in touch and in value. Mr. H. B. Morse, in his book *The Trade and Administration of the Chinese Empire*, states that he has notes of 170 different currencies.

In theory the tael is subdivided decimally into mace, candareens and cash, as follows:—

One Tael =10 Mace.

One Mace = 10 Candareens.

One Candareen = 10 Cash.

But though in book-keeping the decimal system may be used, the actual exchange value of subsidiary coinage fluctuates to an extraordinary degree. A tael may be worth as little as 800 cash, or as much as 1800 cash, so that one mace (one-tenth of a tael) may mean the transfer of 80 to 180 cash when actual coin is handled, though its nominal value is 100 cash. Different taels are in use in each province in China, and, in many instances, even in the different towns of one province.

The taels which are in most general use are the following:-

1. The Haikwan, or Customs Tael.—All duties levied by the Maritime Customs are calculated in this tael, which is a purely arbitrary standard of currency, not used for commercial or business transactions of any other kind. In theory it is a pure silver tael, the equivalent of Mex. \$1.50. This tael weighs about 583.3 grains of silver 1000 fine. It is entirely a money of account; duties, as a matter of fact, being paid in the local currency of the port at a rate of exchange settled on the opening of the Customs House at each port.

The equivalent of the Haikwan Tael, in which the Customs Revenue and all Values are stated, was, during the years 1910 to 1920, at the average Sight Exchange on London, New York, Paris, Berlin, Calcutta, Yokohama, Petrograd, and Hongkong respectively, as follows:—

		GLISH	AMERICAN MONEY.	FRENCH MONEY.	GERMAN MONEY.	INDIAN MONEY.	JAPANESE MONEY.	RUSSIAN MONEY.	MEXICAN
1910	s. 2	8 156	Gold \$ 0.66	Francs. 3.40	Marks. 2.76	Rupees. 2.01	Yen. 1.31	Roubles	1.49
1911	2	81	0.65	3.40	2.75	2.00	1.32	•••	1.48
1912	3	05	0.74	3.85	3.12	2.27	1.49	1.45	1.52
1913	3	01/4	0.73	3.81	3.08	2,25	1.47	1.44	1.51
1914	2	83/4	0.67	3.45	2.79	2.04	1.34	1.36	1.47
1915	2	7 <u>1</u>	0.62	3.39	2.67*	1.95	1.2 5	1.63*	1.41
1916	3	3 13/6	0.79	4.63	3.68*	2.46	1.54	2.52*	1.54
1917	4	3 13 6	1.03	5.94	4.78*	3.11	1.98	5.08*	1.63
1918	5	3 7	1.26	7.11		3.55	2.37	•••	1.61
1919	6	4	1.39	10.12	•••	3.54	2.72	•••	1.68
1920	6	91	1.24	17.79	•••	3.34	2.38	•••	1.58

^{*}Shanghai Customs rate of exchange.

The exchange rates of the Haikwan tael in foreign currencies are settled each month by the Customs authorities.

^{2.} The Kuping, or Treasury Tael.—In this under the Manchus all Government taxes and dues other than Customs Revenue, and those paid in kind or in copper cash, were calculated. In theory it was uniform throughout the Empire. (Normal paying weight=573.9 grains 1000 fine, but the receiving rate is 1.5 grains heavier.)

^{3.} The Tsaoping, or Shanghai Tael.—This is the tael in general use in Shanghai, in which foreign exchange rates are quoted by the banks. The weight is 545.25 grains 980 fine.*

^{*} See pp. 322-3.

4. The Canton Tael, which is used for weighing bar silver in Hong-

kong, Shanghai and Canton. (Weight=579.85 grains 1000 fine.)

In the exchange of one tael into another three elements have to be considered: the weight of the respective taels; the fineness or touch of the silver; and convention, premium or "old custom." The complications which result from this form of calculation may be judged from the operations followed in converting Kuping or Treasury taels into Shanghai taels.

The element of weight is first considered. One hundred Kuping taels (by weight) are equivalent to 101.80 Tsaoping taels (by weight).

Next, for difference of touch on, say, two shoes, 5-6 is added, making 107-40.

By Shanghai convention, an old custom or understanding, the origin of which is lost in obscurity, this sum is now divided by .98, which increases it to 109-592. To this 0-008 is added for meltage fees, and the value of 100 Kuping taels is then found to be Shanghai taels 109-60.

At Tientsin a "premium" is added instead of dividing by a "conven-

tion" ratio.

In theory, the Haikwan, Kuping and Canton taels are all of pure silver, though 100 Canton taels of pure silver may exchange into 111.05 to 111.20 Shanghai taels according to the quantity of silver sent in to be melted.

The following table shows the approximate exchange value between a variety of taels:—

```
100 Kuping taels =109.60 Shanghai taels.
100 Haikwan taels=101.642395 Kuping taels.
                  =101.75 local taels at Amoy.
                  =106.40
                                          Chefoo.
 9.7
        2 2
                  =104.16
                                          Chinkiang.
                                    22
                  =110
                                          Foochow.
        2.2
               "
                             ,,
                                    33
 9.2
                  =108.75
                                          Hankow.
        ,,
                                    23
 22
                  =113.76
                                          Hoihow.
                                    "
               ,,=109.65
                                          Ichang.
        ,,
 2 2
                             2.2
                                    9.9
                  =104.37
                                          Kiukiang
 1,
                                    ,,
                  =108.50
                                          Newchwang.
               : 2
                                    22
                  =105.83
                                          Ningpo.
               ,,
                                    ,,
                  =110.57
                                          Pakhoi.
               ,,
        ,,
                                    ,,
                  =111.40
                                          Shanghai.
        22
                             ,,
                                    2.2
                  =110.15
                                          Swatow.
                                    22
                  =111.32
                                          Tamsui.
        22
               ,,
                                    29
                  =105
                                         Tientsin.
               22
                                   ,,
                  =103
                                         Wenchow.
                                   ,,
                  =104.16
                                          Wuhn.
```

THE DOLLAR.

As the tael is not a coin but a weight, and copper coin is too bulky for ordinary cash transactions in the treaty ports and also in the provinces, it is customary to use a dollar coin for domestic and other retail transactions. The exchange value between local dollars and local taels fluctuates considerably, and into this fluctuation many elements quite apart from the intrinsic value of either currency enter. Various dollars are in circulation in different parts of the Republic, some foreign, such as the Hongkong and Straits dollars, the Mexican dollar (which was formerly the one in generly use in Shanghai and the neighbourhood) and the old Spanish or Carolus dollar. There has, however, recently been a great increase in the number of Chinese Republican dollars in circulation. Various reasons may cause a certain kind of dollar to become popular over a large or small area and

to appreciate in value to 30 or 40 per cent above its intrinsic value. In some of the smaller treaty ports, such as Amoy, Ningpo, Hangchow or Wuhu, the Spanish dollar is most in favour to this day. Though lighter than the Mexican dollar, it may be in such demand as to fetch \$1.40 Mex. At present the Hongkong and Straits dollar is "fashionable" in certain cotton-growing districts, and is at a premium compared with other coins of about the same intrinsic value. But both the British and the Spanish dollar if used in other districts would probably be at a discount to the local Chinese coin. Thus the actual value of the silver in the dollar coin, whether minted in Spain, Mexico, the Straits or one of the provincial mints, is often a less important factor in the exchange values between the different dollars themselves and the local taels than the fleeting popular fancy for this or that particular coin. Local note issues, which may be at a premium or a discount when compared with those of other ports, add to the perplexing chaos of Chinese silver currency. Chinese dollars have been issued by various provincial mints, but their great drawback has been that they are at a discount in all provinces but the one in which they are minted. There are more than ten varieties of Chinese dollars in circulation. The Mexican dollar for the past fifty years has been the most generally popular, but is now being gradually superseded by dollars coined in the Chinese mints. In 1911 more Mexican dollars were exported from than imported into China.

In the spring of 1912 a number of commemoration dollars and 20-cent pieces bearing the effigy of Dr. Sun Yat-sen were coined at the Nanking mint.

In December 1914, new Standard Dollars bearing the image of the late President Yuan Shih-kai began to be minted. Fifty-cent (half-dollar) coins are also in circulation to-day.

According to the Currency regulations of 1914 (q.v.) the unit of Chinese currency is to be the Yuan, or Dollar. The National Budget, all official accounts, with the exception of the Customs Returns, and all new Chinese Banking accounts are now based on the dollar currency. The Tael, however, is still largely used in commerce. Many proposals have been made for its abolition, all of which depend upon the establishment of general confidence in the minting of dollars by the Chinese Government. Reference to these proposals will be made later. Meanwhile foreign dollars are being replaced to a considerable extent by Chinese dollars, few Straits or Spanish coins now being in circulation, while the number of Mexican dollars has steadily diminished. During the recent world-shortage of silver a large proportion of the Mexican dollars was melted down and exported in the form of silver bars, while many more have been melted and reminted in China.

From December 1914, when the new Dollars bearing the image of the late President Yuan Shih-kai began to be minted, until March 1920, 383,902,948 dollars were minted in China. They are now widely circulated in the Northern Provinces and the Yangtze Valley.

SUBSIDIARY COINAGE:

Throughout China subsidiary silver coins, known as 5. 10 and 20-cent pieces (and nominally bearing a ratio of 1-20th, 1-10th and 1-5th of the dollar) but stamped with a tael value (the "10-cent piece," for instance, is stamped 7-2 candareens), are in circulation. The ratio that these coins bear to the dollar varies to an extraordinary degree. At times eleven "10-cent pieces" may be obtained for a dollar, while at others ten "10-cent coins" cannot be got at exchange shops. Popular fancy plays its part in connection with subsidiary silver coinage also.

Besides subsidiary silver coins there is the copper currency, which is really the currency of the people. Two kinds are in universal use; 10-cash pieces (cents), which are supposed to contain 95 per cent of copper and are about the size of a halfpenny (analysis of a large number of coins gives the average composition as follows: copper, 88.75 per cent; pewter, 8.80 per cent; lead, 2.45 per cent); and one-cash pieces, which are coined in large and small sizes, have a square hole in the middle, and contain only 50 per cent of copper. Since 1904, when the minting of copper 10-cash coins was begun, the provincial mints have been turning out 10-cash coins in such numbers that they have depreciated in value at an alarming rate. In 1905-6 the value of a Shanghai tael was 1100 to 1200 cash. It has since been between 1800 and 2000 cash.

During recent years provincial mints have been permitted to issue silver and copper subsidiary coinage for purposes of revenue, and this accounts for the enormous over-issue, and consequent depreciation in value of these coins.

The following Memorandum gives some idea of the chaos resulting from the indiscriminate minting of copper coins:

CHINA'S SUBSIDIARY CURRENCY+

BY DONALD McColl.

(General Manager, Shanghai Electric Construction Company, Limited).

In consequence of the appearance in circulation of considerable quantities of new copper coins, with additional depreciation, during the past two years, I have made a further special investigation of the currency question.

One-cent Coins.

Since the early part of 1919 when the new coins began to appear in Shanghai, daily records have been kept by the Shanghai Tramways (Foreign Settlement) of the proportion of such new coins in the revenue. The following table is based on these records:—

PERCENTAGE OF NEW COINS (MOSTLY LIGHT-WEIGHT) IN SHANGHAI TRAMWAY RECEIPTS.

	1919	1926	1921
January		5.24%	10.04%
February	2.70%	6.14%	11.84%*
March	3.44%	6.98%	
April	3.28%	6.89%	
May	3.32%	7.64%	
June	3.63%	7.35%	
July	4.07%	7.68%	
August	4.83%	7.73%	
September	5.05%	7.68%	
October	5.12%	7.56%	
November	5.17%	7.50%	
December	5.18%	8.44%	
	70.	70	

On March 5, 1921, the ratio was 12.33%.

^{*} British Chamber of Commerce Journal, March 1921. * 1-24th February, 1921.

About the beginning of February this year a consignment of 1,000,000 new one cent copper coins was brought to Shanghai from the Nanking mint. The introduction of these coins into circulation has accelerated the increasing ratio of depreciation. The design of this million coins is now without any foreign wording as on the older coins and with various minor changes. The new coins are even more poorly embossed than previous issues and are extremely crude and rough. They are about 10 per cent. lighter than the one-cent coins turned out in the earlier years of the Republic. Small supplies of these new copper coins are being constantly smuggled into Shanghai.

As the copper coins in circulation at the end of 1918 are doubtless still in use, figure of 12.33 per cent. (as above) may fairly be taken to represent the approximate increase in the 1 cent copper coins in circulation in Shanghai since the end of 1918. In certain parts of China, the additions to the coinage appear to have been greater because of the introduction of 2 cent coins as well as fresh issues of 1 cent coins. In 1915 (in my article in the "Journal") I estimated the number of 1 cent coins then in circulation in China at 22,000,000.000. From the foregoing data, it is evident that, since the beginning of 1919, the additional issues must have amounted to at least 14 per cent. of this figure, equal to 3,080,000,000 copper cents.

Two-cent Coins.

In my article on Chinese Currency (published in the "Journal" of December 1915) I referred to the proposal to introduce 2 cent copper coins as "a dangerous and retrogade feature of the Currency Law."...

The ratio of intrinsic value to face value of the two cent coin is only 48.8 per cent. as against 58.3 per cent. for the one cent coin. Two cent coins have not appeared in circulation in Shanghai.

The Motive-Minting Profits.

The resumption of minting activity coincided with the fall in the silver price of copper ingots following the close of the war. The present position is as follows:—

is as follows:—		
	1 cent	2 cent
	coin	coin
Weight (candareens)	17.72	29.20
Intrinsic (or metal) value computed on—		
Copper (93 per cent.) per ton	\$700.56	\$700.56
Zinc (7 per cent.) per ton	279.89	279.89
Minting labour, etc. per 10,000 coins	9.50	17.00
7 per cent. interest on Capital Investment=per day	160.00	160.00
per cents interest on capital involuntary	cent.	cent.
Face value	1.000	2.000
Depreciation	0.301	0.767
Deptectation	0.001	0.101
Circulating rate	0.699	1.233
Intrinsic (or metal) value	0.583	0.976
intrinsic (of inecat) value	0.000	0.010
Minting profit	0.116	0.257
ramonig pront	0.110	0.201
Ratio of intrinsic (or metal) value to face value	58.3%	48.8%
	143+	162.20*
Circulating rate (cents per \$)	1401	102.20

^{*} At Hankow.

t Average of different cities.

The minting profit on 3,080,000,000 copper cents at the rate for 1 cent coins as above would be over \$3,500,000. This profit is very large on the small working capital involved, due partly to the capital being turned over again and again in the course of the year.

The lower ratio of intrinsic value to face value of the two cent coin is a special danger: it makes over-minting for profit still more attractive and gives even greater encouragement to counterfeiting than the one-cent coin. For the sake of minting profits, the Chinese mints have been aggravating the bad state of the currency whenever opportunity offered by

- (a) Excessive issues of coins.
- (b) Reducing their metal value.
- (c) Introducing low-value two cent coins.

At the present production costs (in silver) the 1 cent coins would have to depreciate to 171.5 cents to the dollar and the 2 cent coins to 204.99 cents to the dollar before minting profits would disappear. Thus:—

Face Value **Depreciation	1 cent coin 1.000 0.417	2 cent coin 2.000 1.024
Circulating rate Intrinsic (or metal) value	0.583 0.583	0.976 0.976
Minting Profits	Nil	Nil

With a 20 per cent. increase in the present silver price of copper ingots, the minting of 1 cent copper coins would cease to show a profit; with a 27 per cent. increase, the minting of 2 cent coins would cease to show a profit.

The Effects.

The effect of the introduction of all this additional coinage, on the top of an already superabundant circulation, has been to increase the ratio of depreciation. The steady increase in the depreciation of copper coins in Shanghai during the past two years is shown by the following table:—

	1 cent coins		
	(number per \$)		
	1919	1920	1921
January	132.12	136.27	141.35
February	134.67	135.05	143.50
March	135.43	137.18	
April	135.24	137.59	
May	135.31	138.08	
June	135.86	138.31	
July	135.95	139.34	
August	136.19	139.75	
September	136.43	1 39.65	
October	136.56	139.87	
November	136.51	140.42	
December	136.18	141.36	
On March 5, 1921, the rate was 144,47	cents to	the dollar.	

^{*41.7} per cent., or 171.5 cents to dollar.

The losses of the Shanghai Tramways (Foreign Settlement) in converting its revenue in depreciated subsidiary coinage into dollars have been:—

(From March 5)	1908	***************************************	\$ 50,812=14.77%
Year	1909		116,089 = 24.01%
,,	1910	***************************************	155,184 = 24.91%
,,	1911		168,848 = 22.93%
,,	1912	*************************	239,375 = 24.55%
,,	1913	***********	258,810 = 23.19%
9.9	1914	***********	316,670 = 26.04%
,,	1915	******	362,368 = 28.58%
,,	1916		387,510 = 26.72%
2.2	1917	***************************************	354,776 = 23.26%
,,	1918		390.377 = 23.95%
**	1919		521.385 = 26.21%
,,	1920		658,572 = 27.93%
January	1921		60,145 = 29.27%
February			62,012 = 30.38%
V		_	

Total.....\$4,102,933

For week ended March 2, 1921, the percentage of loss was 30.76 percent.

The depreciation affects the whole of the country, some parts more severely even than Shanghai. The following are the average circulating rates in 12 cities, in December 1918 and February, 1921.

	Dec. 1918.	Feb. 18, 1921.	Increase.
Amoy	132.77	143.30	10.53
Changehow	133.31	143.30	9.99
Chefoo	134.70	145.70	11.00
Chinkiang	134.07	144.40	10.33
Foochow	1 31.90	143.60	11.70
Hangchow	132.00	143.00	11.00
Hankow 1 cent	138.47	151.50	13.03
riankow 2 cents	148.10	161.20	13.10
Nanking	1 34.30	145.00	10.70
Ningpo	131.73	143.50	11.77
Shanghai	132.57	143.70	11.13
Soochow	132.65	143.00	10.35
Tientsin	1 37.82	148.40	10.58

It will be noted that Hankow (adjacent to an active mint and with 2 cent as well as 1 cent copper coins) has the heaviest depreciation of all and that the depreciation of the 2 cent coins is heavier than of the 1 cent. The depreciation is now heavier in Shanghai and throughout the country than it has ever been.

Evils of Depreciation.

An American political economist wrote, years ago, "wages rise much more slowly than goods and never proportionately because labourers do not well understand the situation and never act quickly enough to insure them selves; and so they are always great sufferers from a depreciated currency."

In China a large proportion of the people are paid in copper coins and adjustments have not been made which compensate for the depreciation.

The purchasing power of the people, therefore, has been reduced. The position is aggravated by higher prices for food and clothing. In a country like China, with the bulk of the population poor even at the best of times, a depreciated and further depreciating subsidiary currency, which is necessarily their main medium of exchange, must tend to intensify the struggle for existence. Reduction in intrinsic value and additional issues of coins are merely subtle methods of robbing the people. With actual famine and threatened pestilence, the people can ill support the added burden of exploitation by the further watering of the currency. The depreciated coinage robs them every time they make a purchase.

An Oxford Professor of Political Economy writing on depreciated curcency, said: "As long as an inconvertible currency lasts, it never ceases to harass trade and every commercial dealing between man and man. The harm is renewed day after day, week after week, year after year, . . . a bad, unsound, untrustworthy currency persecutes society at every turn and brings loss on all but gamblers." To quote further from the American economist already referred to, "All classes of the people are ultimately greatly losers in wealth and reputation from the destruction of the stable measure of value." China's depreciated currency restricts trade and tends to dry up the springs of activity. Currency shrinkage shrinks other things. A currency such as China now has not only hampers forward influences; it puts back the clock.

"Schemes for the establishment of new undertakings in China have to contend with the difficulty of very high prices for imported equipment. When the revenue of the undertaking has to depend upon a depreciated subsidiary currency, liable to further serious shrinkage in value at the will of profit-seeking Mint officials, the risks to capital are materially increased. These risks equally affect the development of existing undertakings whose revenue is in subsidiary coinage. Obstacles to the initiation of new enterprises in China must retard its opening up and be prejudicial to the interests of the people."

Reduction in the purchasing power of the people, through increasing lepreciation of their coinage, must necessarily tend adversely to affect trade with China and, therefore, undertakings which produce for Chinese markets.

From the point of view of the Chinese Government, the policy of watering the currency is, of course, equally wrong. Initial profits on minting are soon far more than lost in the reaction upon the Government of the reduced paying power of the people consequent on the increasing depreciation of the coinage. The Government of a country and its people rise and fall together. Their interests cannot be separated. If depreciation of the coinage reduces purchasing power, duties and taxes must suffer. China's currency policy has been the worst both for the Government and the people: it is fraught with the gravest dangers, economic and other.

Bank-notes.

The foreign banks having branches in China issue notes for taels and dollars, in various multiples, in the local currency of the places where they have branches. Their note issue is, of course, restricted by their regulations.

Bank-notes are also issued by numerous native banks and provincial governments, and add to the financial chaos, inasmuch as these issues are not always restricted by considerations of adequate reserves for redemption. The note currency was increased during the Revolution by the almost indiscriminate issue of military notes, which the Government has since been at pains to redeem to some extent.

A return made in 1915 gave the amount of paper money in circulation at \$172,000,000, as follows:—

Amount	issued.	Market	value.	Discounted	value.
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Anhui	780,000		At par		780,000
Chekiang	2,439,000		Less 10%		2,195,100
Chihli	6,400		,, ,		5,760
Three Eastern Provinces	34,650,157		Less 38%		21,483,097
Fukien	300,000		Less 10%		270,000
Honan	2,200,000		At par		2,200,000
Hunan	36,000,000	,	Less 44%		14,960,000
Hupeh	30,000,000		Less 20%		24,000,000
Ili and Sinkiang	7,000,000		,,		5,600,000
Jehol	15,000		Less 10%		13,500
Kiangsi	8,000,000		Less 33%		5,360,000
Kwangsi	3,000,000		Less 10%		2,700,000
Kwangtung	32,000,000		Less 40%	***	19,200,000
Shansi	720,000		At par		720,000
Shantung	480,000		At par		4,800,000
Shensi and Kansu	7,000,000		Less 10%		6,300,000
Yunnan and Kweichow.	4,000,000		Less 30%		2,800,000

NOTE REDEMPTION.

The most business-like and most successful effort in the redemption of depreciated notes was made in Kwangtung Province in July, 1914, under joint foreign and Chinese control. Notes of the face value of \$31,645,504 were redeemed and cancelled at the rate of .455, and in their stead new Bank of China notes, convertible into silver, were issued to the amount of \$14,398,710. Funds for the silver reserve, to the amount of £1,000,000 sterling, were released by the Salt Administration from the proceeds of the 1913 Redemption Loan.

The military notes in Chekiang and Anhui were also called in, while the Bank of China undertook the work of redeeming the depreciated notes in Kirin, Heilungkiang and Szechuan, as well as the paper money of the

Chin Feng Bank and the Kiangsi Republican Bank.

Various attempts have been made to rehabilitate the Peking Notes of the Banks of China and Communications in Peking, which have been at a heavy discount ever since the crisis brought about by the large loans made to Yuan Shih-kai for the prosecution of his Monarchical scheme. These efforts, however, have not yet raised the Peking Notes of these Banks above 67.5 per cent of their face value.

CURRENCY QUESTIONS.

As an illustration of some of the currency vagaries to be met with in China, the following report of the Commissioner of Customs at Amoy on

the position at that port in 1913-14 is of interest:-

"One of the features of the trade of this port, which has been a puzzle to many and does not seem to have been yet specially treated of in any previous Trade Report, is that regarding the local currency. The unit of this currency is the so-called 'Spanish Dollar,' which, though actually in use in the 60's, had totally disappeared from the market by the end of the 70's. Since then, however, it has been retained as a book unit by the local agency of the Hongkong and Shanghai Bank and made to rule practically all commercial and banking transactions of the port. The rate of this unit with regard to the silver currency actually handled here—styled 'chopped yen,' and consisting variously of Japanese yen (coined for Formosa), Hongkong dollars, Mexican dollars, and Indo-China piasters, all considered, mirabile dictu, to be mutually equivalent in value—is fixed from day to day by the aforesaid bank. It varies generally from about

2 per cent premium to par, but may even go below par in times when local silver coins are scarce, as in 1911, when it actually touched 3½ per cent discount. The sole criterion for this fluctuation is the bank's want or superfluity of silver dollars, which is practically synonymous with the port's demand or supply of coined currency. Some other banks established in more recent years-the Bank of Taiwan and the Chinese Official Bank of Communications—have local silver currency, yen or dollars, as their unit, but this has not affected the paramount position of the Spanish dollar as the basis of trade and foreign exchange transactions at Amoy. From a currency point of view the position is a most remarkable one, as the only legal tender for daily purposes consists practically of cheques on one bank or silver coins at rates fluctuating daily at the will of that same bank. Though in theory the Spanish dollar is represented by 72 candareens Canton weight of current dollars or silver of .900 fineness, in practice sycee is not obtainable, and the bank reserves the right to refuse the acceptance of dollars by weight, taking them by count only, with the interposition of its daily rate to arrive at Spanish dollars. Needless to say, this rate also varies buying and selling. The system of handling dollars by count only has become the rule, since the bank's policy of accepting only clean or slightly chopped dollars has had the effect of driving the old mutilated cup-and-saucer-like coins to other ports or into the melting pot.

"Notwithstanding all the above peculiarities, the Amoy currency system presents distinct advantages for the trade as compared with the neighbouring coast ports. By adhering to an extinct currency and continuing that as a book or bank unit the bank is able to keep its unit mostly always at par with the Hongkong-dollar and quote for its sterling exchange almost invariably the identical figures ruling for the day at Hongkong. The Amov merchant thus obtains in his foreign dealings the benefit of a sterling exchange rate very closely following the price of bar silver and is freed from the additional uncertainties introduced by varying supply and demand of the local currency, which may amount to a considerable percentage in abnormal times or through artificial 'riggings' of the money market. The Amoy currency system may thus be quoted as an object lesson to show how under a heterogeneous and irregular coinage system a fictitious bank unit may be resorted to almost unconsciously, with great steadying effect, and how easy it is even for a single bank to maintain such a fictitious unit under conditions which are far removed from carrying any force in the nature of legal compulsion. In this direction would seem ultimately tc lie a practicable road toward currency reform and unification for China."

Currency Reform.

By Article II of the Mackay Treaty between Great Britain and China, signed at Shanghai in September, 1902, "China agrees to take the necessary steps to provide for a uniform national coinage which shall be legal tender in the payment of all duties, taxes, and other obligations, through-

out the Empire by British as well as Chinese subjects."

In 1908 an Imperial Decree announced the adoption of the Kuping or Treasury tael as the unit of coinage, and ordered tael coins to be struck. Fortunately, however, wiser counsels prevailed; a less cumbrous coin was decided upon, and two years later the dollar was adopted as the unit of currency of the Empire. The memorial, decree, and regulations issued on this subject in May, 1910, were published in the CHINA YEAR BOOK for 1912.

Dr. G. Vissering, at that time President of "De Javasche Bank," was appointed in October, 1911, Monetary Adviser to the Chinese Government. He was succeeded in November, 1912, by Dr. W. A. Roest, but on the death of the latter in January, 1913, Dr. Vissering again took up the post of Honorary Adviser on currency matters. A Bureau of Currency was

formed with Dr. Chang Tsung-yuen as Chairman, to consider the question of currency reform, and the draft-regulations printed below, received the approval of the President and Cabinet in January, 1914. The Bureau of Currency was abolished about a year later, but re-established in 1918. In the Autumn of that year an abortive attempt to introduce a gold standard, with a gold yuan (dollar) containing .0752318 gr. of fine gold was made, but the elaborate and unworkable regulations then promulgated have never been put into effect. The following Currency Laws, of January 1914, are still supposed to be in force:

NATIONAL CURRENCY REGULATIONS.

ARTICLE 1. The right of minting and issuance of national currency shall belong solely to the Government.

ARTICLE 2. The unit of the national coin shall be called yuan, and the yuan shall contain six mace. four candareens and eight li (kuping weight) or 23.97795048 grammes of pure silver.

ARTICLE 3. The different kinds of national coins are as follows:-

- A. Four kinds of silver coins are-
 - (1) 1 yuan.
 - $(2) \stackrel{1}{=} yuan.$
 - (3) 20 cents piece.
 - (4) 10 cents piece.
- B. One kind of nickel coin:
 - (1) 5 cents piece.
- C. Five kinds of copper coins:
 - (1) 2 cent copper piece.
 - (2) 1 cent copper piece.
 - (3) 5 li piece.
 - (4) 2 li piece
 - (5) 1 li piece.

ARTICLE 4. The value of the national coin shall be in decimal progression. One-tenth of a yuan shall make a chu or a 10 cent piece. One-hundredth of a yuan shall make 1 feng or cent, and one-thousandth of a yuan shall make 1 li.

ARTICLE 5. The weight and fineness of the coins shall be as follows:

- 1. 1 yuan, gross weight 72 candareens with 90* per cent silver and 10 per cent copper.
- 2. 50 cent piece, gross weight 32'4 candareens with 70 per cent silver and 30 per cent copper.
- 3. 20 cent piece, gross weight 12 candareens with 70 per cent silver and 50 per cent copper.
- 4. 10 cent piece, gross weight 6 candareens with 70 per cent silver and 30 per cent copper.
- 5. 5 cent nickel piece, gross weight 7 candareens with 25 per cent nickel and 75 per cent copper.
- 6. 2 cent copper piece, gross weight 28 candareens with 95 per cent copper and 4 per cent pewter and 1 per cent lead.
- 7. 1 cent copper piece, gross weight 18 candareens with its fineness same as 2 cent copper piece.
- 8. 5 li copper piece, gross weight 9 candareens with its fineness same as above.
- 9. 2 li copper piece, gross weight 4-5 candareens with its fineness same as above.

10. 1 li copper piece, gross weight 2.5 candareens with its fineness same as above.

ARTICLE 6. No restrictions shall be placed upon the use of 1 yuan piece. The amount of 50 cent pieces involved in one transaction shall not exceed twenty dollars. The amount of 20 cent and 10 cent pieces involved in one transaction shall not exceed five dollars. The amount of nickel or copper pieces involved in one transaction shall not exceed one dollar. This restriction shall not be applied to the collection of taxes and the exchanges in the national banks.

ARTICLE 7. The designs of the national coins shall be promulgated by

a Provisional Order.

ARTICLE 8. The ratio of the difference between the weight of silver

coins and that of the legal tender shall not exceed 3/1000.

The ratio of the difference between the total weight of per 1000 pieces of the silver coins and the legal weight of that amount of coins shall not exceed 3/10,000.

ARTICLE 9. The ratio of the difference between the fineness of any

piece of silver coins and the legal fineness shall not exceed 3/1000.

ARTICLE 10. When, on account of wear and tear, 1 yuan silver piece loses one per cent of its weight, it may be exchanged at the Government bank for a new dollar. When, on account of wear and tear, the 50 cent silver piece and other kinds of coins lose five per cent of the legal weight, they may be exchanged at the Government banks for new coins.

ARTICLE 11. When a coin is found to be mutilated purposely, no one

shall be compelled to accept it.

ARTICLE 12. When the Government consents to coin 1 yuan silver pieces for those who give to it silver bullion, 6 li per yuan shall be charged as minting fee.

ARTICLE 13. This law shall be in force on the day of its promulgation.

REGULATIONS FOR THE ENFORCEMENT OF THE CURRENCY LAW.

ARTICLE 1. The national coins must be used as medium in the transaction of any financial dealings in the country. Special regulations in the Currency Regulations must also be observed.

ARTICLE 2. The Government shall exchange the silver dollars coined

by the old mints with the national coins and remint the dollars.

Within a certain period, the old dollar shall possess the same value as the national yuan, but as to the length of that period, a Provisional Order shall be issued to fix it.

ARTICLE 3. The Government shall replace all the old silver pieces of the different denominations, old copper pieces and cash with the national coins. After recalling them, the Government shall remint them, but within a certain fixed period the old coins shall be allowed to be circulated at the market prices.

If the old coins are used to pay taxes, every month all the public offices shall issue notices fixing the current rate at which the offices shall receive old coins. The offices shall take as the current rate an average of the rates of exchange during the previous month. The period for the circulation of the old coins shall be fixed by a Provisional Order.

ARTICLE 4. If taxes are remitted with silver bullion or if anyone wants the Government to mint silver coins for him, in the calculation one dollar shall contain 65-4 candareens. Bullion of other fineness and weight shall be

converted according to a Table to be attached:

ARTICLE 5. In the public offices where the receipts and expenditures are calculated in taels, the amount should be converted into the term of yuan in accordance with Article 4. At places where the receipts and

disbursement consist of copper coins and cash, the public office shall report to the Ministry of Finance the actual sum of receipts and disbursements with the request for permission to convert the coin into the term of yuan.

ARTICLE 6. In the collection of various revenues and taxes, Articles 4, 5 and 6 shall be observed. In the calculation, the li shall be the smallest of denominations. All the decimal fractions of the li shall be treated thus:—when the figure is 4, it shall be discarded, and when it is 5, it shall be considered as one to be added to the other integers.

ARTICLE 7. When the debts among the people themselves are calculated in the term to taels, they should be converted into the term of the national coin. Where the old subsidiary coins are involved, Article 6 shall be observed in the conversion into the national coins. If the sums in the deeds, contracts and promissory notes are not converted into the term of yuan, and if any law suit rises, the exchange rate on the day of the promulgations shall be considered as a standard.

ARTICLE 8. Within the domain of China no one shall object to the use of the national coins.

ARTICLE 9. If anybody disregards Article 4 of the law for the national currency and Article 8 of the regulations for the enforcement of the law of the national currency, the concerned may bring a law suit against him, and when convicted, a fine of from 10 dollars to 1000 dollars shall be imposed on the offender. Any official or any member connected with the Government enterprises who commits the same offence, is liable to pay a fine of from 50 to 3000 dollars after the same procedure has been observed.

ARTICLE 10. The area and the date for the enforcement of these regulations shall be fixed by a Provisional Order.

Criticism was directed against this Currency Law on the following grounds (inter alia):—(1)

- The omission of a definite statement to the effect that Government institutions will always accept the token coins at their face value.
- 2. The excessive margin of minting profit in the case of 2 cent coins (Article 5,6), which should weigh 36 per cent more (222 grains instead of 163 grains), if they are to have the same intrinsic value in relation to face value as the present 10 cash copper coins
- 3. The 5 cent nickel coin (Article 5,) would represent even a greater margin of minting profit, as its intrinsic value would be only about one-tenth of its face value.

It was noted that, in spite of the declared intention of the Government to regulate the output of its mints to the needs of the country, enormous quantities of 10 cash copper coins were issued by the Government mints within six to twelve months after the publication of the Currency Law, with the result that the whole copper coinage was still further depreciated. According to a statement in the Chinese press in October, 1915, the Ministry of Finance had already instructed the Yunnan Mint to proceed with the issue of 5 cent nickel coins.

In a statement issued by the Ministry of Finance to a foreign newspaper (The China Press, Shanghai), in October, 1915, the steps taken towards currency reform are thus described: "The plan was to coin first new coins of one dollar, in order to secure uniformity, the mould to be manufactured and issued to the branch mints by the Central Mint. Coining is now in progress in the Tientsin and Nanking mints, and the coins are gradually issued. The old dollars are now permitted to be

circulated with the new coins, and are gradually being called in by the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications to be re-minted. Subsidiary coins of 10 cents and 20 cents will also shortly be struck and issued. Two half dollars, twenty 5 cents, or ten 10 cent pieces will be changed for a new dollar permanently without change. The subsidiary coins for legal tender will be restricted in conformity with the general rules of currency. The old subsidiary coins will, after the issue of the new coins, be current according to their market value for a time, and then be gradually called in and re-coined.

The Gold Currency Scheme.

In August, 1918, the Minister of Finance, Tsao Ju-lin, in a petition to the President, urged that steps should be taken for the issue of Gold Currency Notes and for the organization of a Currency Bureau. He stated that the scheme outlined by the Law of 1914 had been carried out and had been successful, and added that another step in advance was required to achieve complete success. Amongst the arguments advanced in favour of a gold currency were: (1.) That China's foreign indebtedness and the indemnity, amounting to one-third of her annual budget, were in gold currency; (2) that exchange fluctuations were a serious hindrance to the development of trade; and (3) that the most advanced nations of the world use gold.

A Presidential mandate issued on August 10, 1918, gave effect to the Finance Minister's proposals, and promulgated the required rules and regulations. The outcry raised against the scheme, however, caused an announcement to be made to the effect that it was not proposed to put the regulations into force at once and they have remained in abeyance

ever since.

The regulations in question were the following:-

Regulations for the issue of Gold Currency Notes.

1. With a view to facilitating international trade and preparing for the adoption of a currency system with a gold basis the bank or banks appointed by the Currency Bureau shall be allowed to issue gold currency notes.

2. The unit of the gold currency shall be one gold dollar which shall contain 0.725.318 Kungfun of pure gold, that is, 2.01688 candareen of

Kuping tael.

One-tenth part of a gold dollar shall be called a "cho," one hundredth

a "fun," one thousandth a "li," etc.

3. The denominations of the gold currency notes shall be: one dollar, five dollars, ten dollars, twenty dollars, fifty dollars, and one hundred dollars.

The Government may order the bank or banks appointed by the Bureau to issue gold currency notes of small denominations, such as five-cho (half a dollar), two-cho (one-fifth of a dollar), and one-cho (one-tenth of a dollar), and the Government Mint may be ordered to mint copper coins of one "fun" denomination.

4. Before the coinage of such gold dollars the holder of the gold currency notes may remit the money to other cities in this country or to foreign countries through the specified banks and after the coinage of such gold dollars, the holder of such gold currency notes may exchange them for gold coins as well as remit them to any city in the country or to any foreign country.

The gold currency notes may be exchanged at the specified banks for foreign gold coins or string gold. All ornaments made of pure gold shall

be considered equivalent to sterling gold and they shall be valued according

to the quantity of pure gold they contain.

- 5. The proportionate value of the gold currency notes and the national currency now m circulation will necessarily not always be the same. But it shall be made known to the public by notifications issued by the specified banks from time to time, and gold currency notes and current silver coins in circulation may be exchanged at the said banks at the notified value.
- 6. The specified banks shall have an adequate gold reserve against the amount of notes issued. This gold reserve shall either be in our national gold dollars, or gold bullion, or foreign gold coins deposited with the exchange banks in both Chinese and foreign commercial ports. The public shall be notified by the specified banks once every ten days about the amount of the gold reserve and the places where this reserve is deposited.

This gold reserve shall be subject to the inspection of the special dele-

gates of the Currency Bureau at any time.

7. The gold currency notes may be used in public and private dealings at the proportionate value as notified from time to time by the specified banks.

The use of the gold currency notes shall not be restricted.

- 8. The specified banks may deposit and carry on other forms of business with the gold currency notes.
 - 9. These regulations shall be enforced from the date of promulgation.

Rules for the Organization of the Currency Bureau.

- 1. The Currency Bureau shall be under the direct control of the Premier and take charge of the following affairs:
 - (a) Those in connection with currency.
 - (b) Those in connection with issue of notes.
 - (c) Other matters in connection with currency.
- 2. The following officers shall be appointed to the Currency Bureau:—
 One Director-General: this post shall be held by the Minister of Finance concurrently.

One Governor: to be specially appointed.

One adviser: to be engaged.

An unlimited number of honorary advisers: to be engaged.

- 3. In the Currency Bureau, departments shall be established and members appointed to manage the affairs of the respective departments. But before the establishment of such departments, an Investigation Committee shall be appointed with a certain number of members, which shall be decided upon by order of the Bureau.
- 4. For copying documents and the management of miscellaneous affairs clerks shall be employed in the said Bureau.
- 5. All the Mints, Printing Offices, Paper Factories, and the Superintendents of the Banks under the control of the Ministry of Finance shall be under the supervision and direction of the Currency Bureau.
- 6. The Currency Bureau may issue orders independently or, when necessary, for the issuance of Cabinet orders, or issue jointly with the Ministry of Finance.
 - 7. The Currency Bureau shall be established for a period of ten years.
- 8. The Regulations governing management of affairs in the Currency Bureau shall be drafted separately and enforced in due course.
 - 9. The Rules shall be enforced from the date of promulgation.

A HISTORY OF CHINA'S CURRENCY.

The Finance Minister attached to this petition the following history of China's currency:—

I. Brass Cash.—Brass cash was first minted during the Chow dynasty, The minting was continued by all the succeeding dynasties, each new emperor minting new cash bearing his own title. The cash is round in form with a square hole in the centre, the diameter and weight differing. Cash during the second year of Shun-Chi (1644-1662) weighed as much as 2 mace and 2 candareens. Light ones minted during Kuang-Hsü's reign weighed only 6 candareens, being one-cash pieces. Big cash were also minted (during the Taiping rebellion) as 5-cash and 10 cash pieces. Since the introduction of the copper coin, the issue of brass cash has gradually decreased on account of illicit melting, and is no longer minted. Brass recently rose in value, and enormous amounts of cash are being melted. In treaty ports, and big cities with good communications facilities, brass cash is becoming rarer every day, though a certain amount of cash may be found in out-of-the-way interior places. The exact amount of brass cash now extant cannot be ascertained, because figures showing the amount of cash

minted by various Emperors are not available.

II. The Copper Coin.—The minting of copper coin (10-cash pieces) began in Kwangtung in the 26th year of Kwang-Hsü (1900), the year of the Boxer trouble. An Imperial edict was issued in 1901 ordering the coastal and river provinces to copy Kwangtung's example for the reason that cash were becoming scarce and insufficient for circulation. Then began the era in which the provinces vied with one another, and flooded the market with an abnormally large output of copper coin. The copper coin was originally intended for use as a substitute for cash. But the basic trouble is that there is no legal ratio between cash and dollar and cash and tael, the exchange rate being controlled by factors of supply and demand between copper and silver. Therefore, the ratio between the copper coin and the dollar and tael is also subjected to erratic fluctuation according to supply and demand of either of the three currencies. copper coin is not a token coin. Moreover, the amount of pure copper contained in the copper coin is different from the amount contained in ten brass cash, although it is intended to represent ten cash. Because of these differences in weight and fineness, different exchange rates arise between the brass cash and the copper coin. So it happens that each of these three currencies—silver, copper coin and brass cash—goes its own way and has no connection with the other in the ratio of value. There is no system between these three currencies which could come under one fixed ruling.

At first the Government issued regulations ordering that 100 copper coins should be equal to one dollar: and one copper cash should represent 10 brass cash, showing that the Tsing Government intended to use copper coin as a token coin of the silver dollar. But the Government did not understand the underlying principles governing the standard coin and the token coin, and did not take steps to maintain the legal ratio by ordering State banks to exchange cash for copper coin or vice versa at fixed legal rates. The Government did not put restrictions on the amount to be used and the amount to be minted. So confusion set in. Copper coins were minted by as many as seventeen mints simultaneously-at Tientsin, Mukden, Kirin, Honan, Shantung, Nanking, Soochow, Tsingkiangpu, Anhui, Hupeh, Hunan, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangtung, Szechuan, and Yunnan. During the Republic only eight mints were retained, viz., Tientsin, Mukden, Nanking, Hupeh, Hunan, Szechuan, Kwangtung, Yunnan. The Chungking mint also minted 200-cash pieces, 100-cash pieces, 50-cash pieces, 20-cash pieces, and 5-cash pieces in copper coin. The 10-cash coin is universally minted by all mints. At present about 130 coppers are worth one dollar. The total amount of coppers minted by all the mints from the beginning to December, 1917, is as follows:—

10-cash	pieces		31,682,102,306
20-cash			386,292,308
50-cash	pieces		300,805,522
100-cash	pieces	***************************************	15,699,227
200-cash	pieces		3,064,862
1-cash	pieces		160,487,661
2-cash	pieces		28,718,641
5-cash	pieces		37,942,509

III. The Silver Tael.—The use of silver as currency in China began in the Sung dynasty, but it was made in the form of a sycee shoe, not as a coin, which practice was maintained even during the latter period of the Tsing dynasty. A sycee shoe is calculated according to weight, regardless of the number of pieces. and there was no legal ratio between the tael and the cash. There are different sycee values owing to the difference in fineness, causing great confusion. For instance, we have seven different kinds of tael in Peking, and six different kinds of tael in Shanghai. What confusion! Some taels like the Shanghai taels are fictitious. No Shanghai tael sycee is ever minted, but is merely used for calculations. Since the introduction of the silver coin, the use of the tael has greatly decreased. (The Kuping tael is regarded as universal because the Tsing dynasty used it in Government transactions). Since the founding of the Republic public funds are received and disbursed in dollars, not taels; but some interior places still use the tael, and even traders in Shanghai use it. It would perhaps be surprising to learn that there are no less than 65 different kinds of silver tael in China!

IV. The Silver Dollar.—The first Chinese silver dollar was minted, strange to say, in Tibet, in the 57th year of Chien Lung (Tsing dynasty). It was called the "Chien Lung precious treasury silver coin." dollars came into China after the opening of trade with foreign countries, first appearing in Kwangtung, then in Kiangsu, Chekiang, Fukien and other coastal provinces, then in the river provinces, and in Tibet, etc. Minting on a big scale began in the 17th year of Kwang Hsü in Kwangtung. The coin was called the Kwang-Hsu Yuan-Pao-"precious coin"-and weighed 73 candareens Tsao-ping tael. Other provinces followed suit, the weight and fineness differing and causing confusion. At last in the 29th year of Kwang-Hsü an effort was made to unify the weight and fineness. An Edict was issued to establish a head mint at Tientsin to unify the form of dollar. The head mint was completed in the 31st year of Kwang-Hsü, and was called Hu-pu (Finance Board) Head Mint. Chang Chih-tung and others advocated the minting of a one tael dollar, but the plan was not adopted. In the 4th moon of the 2nd year of Hsuan Tung, a law was promulgated fixing 7 mace 2 candareens as the fineness of the standard dollar. The head mint submitted to the Imperial Court a design of a new standard dollar, and engraved the steel dies for minting the new dollar, called Ta-Tsing-Yen-Pi (Ta-Tsing Silver Coin). In the 5th month of the 3rd year of Hsuan Tung (1911) the Nanking and Wuchang Mints began to mint a standard dollar, expecting to issue the same in the 10th moon when the new currency law was to be enforced, but the revolution came in the 8th moon (October 10), and the standard dollar circulated earlier than expected for Republican soldiers' pay. Later Szechuan minted the Ta-Han-Yen-pi (silver coin of the Great Han). In February, 1914, a National Coinage Law was promulgated. The standard dollar under the new law was first minted by the Tientsin mint in December, 1914, and the fineness was fixed at 89 per cent. pure silver instead of 90 per cent. (of Tsing dollar). The mints sold their

dollars to banks, etc., just as a shop sells goods, according to market prices. Currency is for use as a medium of exchange of commodities, but the Chinese dollar became itself a commodity, and does not fill the office of a fixed universal medium of exchange for commodities. Foreign banks and big Chinese business transactions are calculated in taels. According to available figures old style dollars minted by all the mints amount to \$250,-000,000. The average dollar contains about 64 candareens Kuping tael Some of the old dollars minted by Kwangtung, Tientsin, etc., contain a small percentage of gold, due to incomplete assaying.

V. The Dime.—Dimes were first minted in the 20th year of Kwang-Hsü, in Kwangtung and Hupeh. Although it ought to be a token coin, yet, strange to say, it is also treated as a commodity, its value fluctuating subject to supply and demand. In the 33rd year of Kwang Hsü the Finance Board got the Imperial sanction for regulations providing that one dollar should equal ten dimes, or 100 coppers or 1,000 cash, all in decimal progress, but this was never actually enforced. Different exchange rates had to be fixed for the dime with respect to the dollar and to the copper. At present \$1 exchanges for 11 dimes, and 1 dime for 11 coppers. Old style dimes minted by all mints amount to \$370,000,000.

VI. Standard and Unit.—Originally the unit was the one-cash piece, and the standard was copper. After the country had been opened to foreign trade, foreign dollars came in, and Chinese dollars were later minted similar to foreign dollars. But as silver and copper coins are not connected with each other, there is no real standard. The currency reform movement began with a telegram from the Grand Council to all provinces (11th moon, 25th year of Kwang Hsü) enquiring whether a one-tael dollar should be minted. Most provinces objected and recommended the continuance of the 72 candareen dollar. Another effort was made in the 29th year of Kwang Hsü when the Government, on account of the great losses incurred on foreign loans and the Indemnity by the fall of silver approached the United States Government with a request for assistance.

America appointed an International Exchange Commission to study and determine the best system for silver-using countries to adopt in instituting a gold standard. Dr. Jenks, on behalf of the commission, came to China and submitted a currency memorandum to the Government recommending a gold exchange standard, and fixing a gold currency unit, while continuing to use silver in the country, at a ratio of 1.32. The Grand Councillors and others opposed the programme and dared not carry it out, but the suggestion served to call the attention of Chinese officials to the importance of currency reform, and a long controversy ensued between officials on the question of a standard. Most of the authorities favoured the use of a silver standard.

In the 4th moon of the 2nd year of Hsuan Tung (1910) the Finance Board secured Imperial canction for the promulgation of regulations fixing silver as the standard with 72 candareens as the unit. In 1911 the Government entered into an agreement with the Group Banks for a loan of £10,000,000 for Manchurian development and currency reform, and appointed delegates to proceed to London to discuss currency reform with currency experts of the countries represented in the Group.

In the 8th moon the Finance Board received Imperial sanction to transform the Currency Investigation Bureau (under Sheng Kung-pao) into the Currency Bureau to take over complete control of currency reform. Enormous amounts of standard dollars and 1-cent token coins were minted, sufficient to enforce the reform scheme. Unfortunately for the scheme the Revolution broke out, and currency was thrown into greater confusion than ever before.

Such was the history of currency in China before the Republic.

In the winter of the first year of the Republic (1912) Dr. Vissering, of Holland, brought his book on China Currency Reform to Peking, recommending the simultaneous adoption of a gold exchange standard and a silver standard; the new unit to contain 0·3644883 gram of pure gold; all books of the State Bank to be written in gold currency; gold notes to be issued to represent the new gold unit. inconvertible into gold in China but convertible into foreign gold coins in foreign countries where a Chinese reserve is available; existing Chinese and foreign silver and copper coins to be allowed to circulate according to their intrinsic value, until several tens of years afterwards when China would be strong and able to prohibit counterfeiting; the ratio then to be fixed at 21·1, and silver dollars to represent the gold unit to be minted, thus introducing in its entirety the gold exchange standard. The book produced a good deal of discussion among efficials and people.

VII. National Coinage Law.—This law was promulgated on March 18, 1914, fixing silver as the standard, and making a 72-candareen dollar as the unit, and to be called one yuan; token coins to be in decimal progression. The purpose of this was to unify the multifarious currencies, to recall old dollars and coins, and to issue new standard coins in their stead. Reforms already carried out in this connection are as fellow:—

(1) The design of the dollar has been unified, bearing the portrait of Yuan Shih-kai, a better course than that which was formerly in vogue when each province had its own design, and the coin of one province could not be circulated in other provinces. The Yuan dollar can be used anywhere, without restriction. Token coins such as the half-yuan, 20-cent pieces and 10-cent pieces were also minted, the designs being issued by the head mint to the various mints.

(2) The weight and fineness were fixed, the fineness being 89 per cent. pure silver, each dollar to weigh 72 candareens Kuping, the net amount of silver being 64.08 candareens. The maximum variation in weight and fineness allowed is $\frac{10000}{1000}$ th, and coins found showing variation to be reminted. All mints required strictly to observe this law. The mints send specimen dollars to the Ministry of Finance to be assayed and tested, and the banks on receiving new dollars also send specimen dollars to the Ministry to be assayed.

(3) To maintain decimal progression, a mint is not allowed to overproduce. The Bank of China and the Bank of Communications are ordered to exchange standard coins at legal rates, and the Government is enforcing the law gradually. Success has already been attained in Chihli; Shantung, Shansi, Honan, Kiangsu, Anhui, Chekiang, Fukien and Kwangtung will be dealt with as the second stage; Kansu and other provinces as the third, and

Manchuria and other provinces as the fourth.

(4) The market rate of standard coins to be abolished in order to avoid fluctuation. Formerly coins were treated as goods, with market prices, because dollars varied in fineness and weight, and because the Government used the tael in public funds. Now coins have been unified, and the Government uses the dollar in public funds. The Government now allows people to bring silver to the mint, and on payment of six li (six candareers) per dollar as minting expenses, they can obtain dollars for silver. With free coinage the market fluctuations will be naturally abolished. The market price of old style dollars is now gradually coming to the same level as the legal rate, showing the success of the Government scheme.

THE GOVERNMENT'S POLICY.

The Government is recalling the old dollars and destroying them. The mints up to February, 1918, have minted 184,946,487 pieces of one

yuan new dollars and destroyed 51,679,151 old dollars. (After setting forth the reasons for adopting a gold currency and for the issue of gold notes, the memorandum continues:—

VIII. Why a Gold Note is necessary (preliminary to a gold standard).— Although it is imperative for China to adopt a gold standard, we have to take into consideration the difficulties of carrying out such a measure. In the first place, China does not produce much gold, and does not hold much gold. It would be difficult, therefore, to mint gold coins at once. Secondly, the normal ratio between gold and silver is disturbed by the European war, and it is not advisable at present to fix the legal ratio. In the circumstances it is necessary to make some modifications in methods in carrying out our programme. We will adopt the suggestions made by a former Secretary of State for Finance of the United States, and the suggestions of Dr. Vissering, modified to suit present conditions in China, and fix a gold unit called the Chin-yuan (gold dollar) to contain 0.752318 gram, equal to 2.01688 candareens, Kuping weight. One-tenth of a gold yean should be called a gold dime; of the should be called a feng; to the should be called a li: all in decimal progression. The Government will permit the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications to issue gold notes. These two banks will keep a separate set of books in gold currency. The notes will be used in deposits, loans, and other transactions, to gather together the people's surplus gold and to make people accustomed to the use of gold. On the other hand, the Government will foster the growth of China's international trade and increase the circulation of gold notes so as to secure a big gold reserve, and at the proper moment the Government will declare the ratio between gold and silver and enforce the gold standard. Then the gold note or the gold dollar will take the place of the silver dollar, and the silver dollar may be gradually recalled or used as a token coin of the gold yuan, and the token coins provided in the National Coinage Law will continue to be used as token coins of the gold yuan. In this way no disturbance or panic will be experienced by the market and the gold standard will come into force automatically.

IX. Unification of Copper and Silver Coins.—The problem which must be solved before the adoption of the gold standard is the clearing up of existing currency confusion and entanglements. The Government hopes to accomplish this by rigidly enforcing the National Coinage Law to unify the various existing coins. (The methods here described are the same as those laid down in the detailed regulations governing the operation of the law.)

Метнор 1.—(а) Relating to New and Copper Coins .-- At present, although the Tientsin mint is called the head mint, it has no real power over other mints, which act independently. This is a serious obstruction to currency unification. The first step is, therefore, this: The Government will effect the unification of the various mints. At present there are too many mints. We will reduce the number and make Tientsin the head mint. The Nanking mint will be moved to Shanghai; the Wuchang mint will be moved to Hankow; while the Canton mint will remain. Thus we will have three provincial mints, viz. at Shanghai, Hankow, and Canton, which will be called branch mints. The removal of the Nanking and Wuchang mints is proposed because Shanghai and Hankow are great trading centres, and to establish mints there would effect great saving in transportation expenses, etc. Another reason is that the mint authorities can easily feel the pulse of market requirements and judge the supply and demand at these trading centres. The administration and the employment of officers for the three branch mints will be under the control of the head mint, as also the control of the weight and fineness of coins, etc., and will be subject to inspection by the head mint.

(b) To secure the confidence of the public in new coins it is imperative to remove all doubts in regard to weight and fineness. So far the mints have strictly observed the requirements of the Coinage Law. To provide additional caution we propose to establish the National Coin Assay Bureau. There is an assay office in the Ministry now, but the scope will be enlarged, and wider powers to control the weight and fineness of coins from all mints will be given. The Assay Bureau will send inspectors to inspect the working of all mints, take specimen coins and assay them. They will also buy coins from the market and assay them, and the result will be recorded in a statement to be published every month. The Assay Bureau may engage a foreign assayist to do the assay work and to inspect mints.

(c) The Currency Bureau will have a Coin Examination Committee to be organised as follows: One senator; two members of the Finance Ministry, one of whom to be a member of the Currency Bureau; five members from the Chambers of Commerce of Peking, Tientsin, Shanghai, Hankow, and Canton—one member from each place; one chemist professor of a State University; one member of the Bank of China; and one member of the Bank of Communications Foreign business men may be engaged as

advisers.

(d) The Banks of China and Communications will be appointed to circulate the standard coins and do exchange operations at legal rates. These two banks may appoint other banks to do similar work.

METHOD 2.—Foreign dollars and Chinese old dollars.—(a) The Government will order that after a certain date mints shall not be allowed to mint

old style dollars.

(b) The Government will recall and destroy foreign dollars and re-

strict the import of foreign dollars.

(c) The Government will order that before a certain date people shall be at liberty to send in old and foreign dollars to be exchanged for standard dollars, after which date foreign and old dollars will not be regarded as dollars, but as so much bullion and worth only the intrinsic value of the silver they contain.

(d) All public offices, such as telegraph, post and tax offices, shall send old and foreign dollars collected as revenue, etc., to the Bank of China, which will send them to the mint to be exchanged for standard

dollars.

METHOD 3.—Unification in Book-keeping.—Some traders still use taels in their book-keeping and transactions. With strict enforcement of the new law the day will come when the Government will find it practicable to abolish altogether the sycee tael and the brass cash, the only thing needed being the confidence of the people in the standard coins.

The Government will order all public offices, including the Maritime Customs, to adopt the dollar only in their book-keeping. The treaty nations will be consulted regarding the conversion of the tael collections of the Maritime Customs into dollars at rates fixed by the Currency Bureau. The Government will require all commercial transactions to be recorded in terms of dollars.

One fact to be noted is, that fewer and fewer one-dollar pieces will be minted hereafter, and their place will be taken by the half-dollar pieces because the half-dollar piece is destined to be the token coin equal in value to one gold yuan. The above is the Government's policy in regard to hard metal currencies.

X. China's Paper Currency.—Paper currency was used in China as early as the Sung Dynasty, and was continued in the Yuan and Ming Dynasties. The Sung Dynasty note is called a Chiao-tzu-hui note. In the Yuan Dynasty Chiao-tsao and Pao-tsao notes were issued. In the Ming Dynasty Ta-ming-pao-tsao notes were issued. In the Tsing Dynasty Tsao-kuan notes were issued during Shun Chih's reign, and Pao-tsao notes

in Hsien Feng's reign. These are all State notes. Silver notes and cash notes were issued in Peking in Hsien Feng's time, and the Government banks were established in Peking and other cities as exchange agencies.

In the third moon of the thirty-first year of Kwang Hsü the Hupu Bank issued notes. In the first moon of the thirty-fourth year of Kwang Hsü the Hupu (Finance Ministry) Bank was changed into the Ta-Ching Bank as a State bank, with privilege of note issue. Up to the sixth moon of the third year of Hsuan Tung (1911) the Ta-Ching Bank issued tael notes to the amount of Tls. 5,438,910-75, and dollar notes to the amount of \$12,459,907-89.

After the Revolution of 1911 all Ta-Ching Bank notes were recalled. The Ta-Ching Bank was transformed into the Bank of China, whose charter was promulgated in April, 1913, with the privilege of note issue.

The Bank of Communications was established in the thirty-third year of Kwang Hsü: Imperial permission was secured by the Board of Communications and Posts. The charter was promulgated in March, 1914, with the privilege of note issue.

The Ping-shih (Market Adjustment) Bank of the Finance Ministry was established in the third year of the Republic (1914) at Paoting, and in Peking and Tientsin in 1916. It issues copper coin notes.

Up to December, 1917, the Bank of China issued in all \$71.892,962 of rotes, including \$32,089,059 Peking notes. The Bank of Communications issued in all \$28,027,123 notes, including \$17,585,527 Peking notes.

Great confusion was caused by the note issues of provincial banks. In Kwangtung provincial notes were recalled, after one month's hard work, in July, 1914, \$31,645,504 worth of notes being redeemed at an arbitrary rate of .455 exchanged against \$14,398,710 Bank of China notes. The Central Government sent a big sum for this purpose. Conditions are very bad in Hunan, Hupeh, Szechuan, Manchuria, and Sinkiang.

The Government policy is to restrict provincial issues and to let only the two Government banks issue notes. The Government will order the two banks to secure an adequate reserve to cover their note issue and to concentrate their reserves at six trade centres, viz. Tientsin, Shanghai, Hankow, Chungking, Canton, and Changchun.

Peking depreciated notes will be cashed as soon as the Currency Reform Loan is concluded, when the Government will repay all indebtedness to the two banks to enable them to resume specie payment.

Restrictions will be laid on provincial and foreign banks and they will not be allowed to issue notes after a certain date. These banks may get notes from the Bank of China and Communications for issue if they so desire.

The above is the Government policy in regard to paper currency.

XI. Currency Bureau.—This Bureau is to be under the Premier. It will take charge of (1) investigation of currency conditions; (2) formulation of reform schemes; (3) carrying out of such schemes; and (4) administrative affairs relating to banks and currency. It will complete its task in ten years. It will have the following offices: (1) a Currency Investigation Committee, whose function will be to investigate and study conditions in China and abroad and suggest reform schemes; (2) an Assay Office; (3) Coinage Examination Committee to examine and test coins.

The Currency Bureau should compile every quarter (three months) a "work accomplished report," to be sent to the President and Parliament, and to be published in the Government Gazette, and translated into foreign languages to be published by the Bureau.

THE CURRENCY LOAN.

On April 15, 1911, an agreement was signed between Duke Tsai Tze (as President of the Ministry of Finance) on the one part, and Messrs. Willard Straight (representing Messrs. J. P. Morgan and Co., Kuhn, Loeb and Co., the First National Bank, and the National City Bank, all of New York, constituting the American Group), E. G. Hillier (for the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation), H. Cordes (for the Deutsch Asiatische Bank), and MM. Cazenave and Henry Mazot (representing the Banque de l'Indo Chine), of the other part, authorizing the issue by the International Group of a Five per Cent Sinking Fund Gold Loan for an aggregate amount of £10,000,000. The issue price of this loan was to be 95, and of the £9,500,000 which was actually to be handed over to the Chinese Government a sum of £8,500,000 was ear-marked for the reform of the Chinese Currency system. Owing to the outbreak of the Revolution this loan was not floated, but £400,000 was advanced for Plague and Industrial expenses in Manchuria.

On October 14, 1918, the Loan Agreement was extended for six months, but the loan was never floated.

RECENT PROGRESS IN CURRENCY REFORM.

The first Mint to be opened in China was the Kwangtung Government Mint, which was established in 1887. Between that date and 1907 Government Mints, including what was described as the Head Mint at Tientsin, in addition to the Peiyang Mint at the same centre, were opened in Hupeh, Kiangsu (Nanking), and Shantung, for silver coins; and in Kwangtung, Fukien, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhui, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, Honan, Yunnan and Kweichow, for copper coins. The Central Mint at Tientsin was destroyed by looters in 1912, and its functions were transferred to the Peiyang Mint. In the summer of 1920 the Tientsin Mint was placed on an equality with the other Government mints in China, and they all came (nominally) under the control of the Bureau of Currency.

A number of Mints which had been closed during the latter portion of the Manchu regime, and the first three years of the Republic, have since been reopened by the Tuchuns, most of whom utilize them for their personal profit, and there have been numerous and wellfounded reports of the debasement

of the currency in consequence.

The following extracts from an address by Mr. G. H. Stitt, Manager of the Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation at Shanghai, at the Annual Conference of British Chambers of Commerce in Shanghai in November 1920 will convey a clear idea of the present situation:

The following memorandum, drawn up by the Shanghai Foreign Exchange Bankers' Association, was also forwarded to the Ministry of Finance, Peking, in the early part of this year, a copy being sent to H. M. Minister:—

"The Foreign Exchange Banks have heard that a resolution was passed at the Conference of the British Chambers of Commerce held in

Shanghai last November to the following effect:-

"That the Chinese Government be strongly urged to bring an end to the use of sycee: to establish a uniform currency of dollars, subsidiary silver and copper coinage throughout the country: to open a mint in Shanghai for the free coinage of dollars and to place the mints under efficient control, so that uniformity of standard may be preserved."

"The Foreign Exchange Banks have also been informed that H. M. Minister has recommended this resolution to the Chinese Government

The Chinese American Bank of Commerce

Established by American and Chinese capitalists under special charter of the Government of China issued April 12th, 1919.

 Authorized Capital
 U.S. \$10,000,000

 Paid-up Capital
 U.S. \$ 5,000,000

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President:

Hon. CHIEN NEN SHUN.

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JAMES A. THOMAS, ESQ.

Chinese Vice President: HSU UN-YUEN, ESQ.

Branches in: —Peking, Tientsin, Hankow, Shanghai Tsinan, Harbin, Manila and Shihkiachwang

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The Bank is closely associated with a number of the leading financial institutions in the United States and has a wide connection of important capitalists in China, and is prepared to give financial facilities to assist its clients in initiating and developing solid commercial and industrial undertakings in China.

The Bank receives deposits; grants loans; issues drafts and makes telegraphic transfers; buys and sells foreign exchange; issues commercial and circular letters of credit; collects bills, checks and other documents; and does other general banking business.

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SINO ITALIAN BANK

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銀 行 BANCA ITALO CINESE

AUTHORISED CAPITAL

Silver Dollars 4,800,000

PAID UP CAPITAL ...

Gold It. Lire 16,000,000 Lg. 640.000

S. \$ 1,200,000

4,000,000=Lg. 160.000 G. I. L.

HEAD OFFICE: Tientsin. TIENTSIN BRANCH: Rue de France 38.

> PEKING BRANCH: West Entrance of the Legation Quarter

SHANGHAI BRANCH: Kiukiang Road.

Bankers.

Italy:

Credito Italiano, Banca Italiana di Sconto, Banco di

England:

Credito Italiano, National Provincial and Union Bank of England Ltd., Glyn Mills and Currie.

United States:

Credito Italiano. Equitable Trust Company. Credit Commercial de France. Comptoir National

France: Switzerland:

d'Escompte de Paris. Banque Commercial de Bâle. Banca Unione di Credito

Belgium: Austria:

Crédit Général Liegeois. Banca di Credito Italo Viennese Banque Générale de Romanie. Bank of Athens.

Roumanie: Greece: Canada:

Canadian Bank of Commerce.

South America: Banca Italo Belga

Functions and Facilities.

THE BANK:

-Transacts a General Commercial Banking business, carries Current, Fixed and Savings Accounts in Taels, Dollars, Sterling, U.S. Gold Dollars, Lire, Francs, Dracmas, and Marks, pays interest on daily balances of checking accounts.

Undertakes all kinds of Foreign Banking Transactions through its direct relations with leading Banks in all parts of the world.

Buys and sells bills of exchange and cable transfers: accepts drafts for the purpose of financing shipments to and from the Far East.

Collects drafts and other documents at the lowest rates: deals in

acceptances: issues letters of credit.
Offers special facilities for Italian exchange.

Grants credit on approved securities.

Places importers and exporters in touch with interested parties in Italy and in the Far East and stimulates, in other ways, trade between the two countries.

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for Head Office "SINITHEAD"

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and it is reported in the public press that the Government is according favourable consideration to it.

"In October, 1917, the Foreign Exchange Banks' representatives had the privilege of exchanging views on this subject with Messrs. Wang and Yee, of the Ministry of Finance, and on that occasion they put their views on record in the following words:—

"The Banks recognize the great advantage that would ensue to trade generally by the entire abolition of the tael and the substitution therefor of a aniform Chinese silver dollar which would be currency throughout China, and although this would deprive the Banks of a certain profit which they at present secure from interport exchange, they are so convinced that the change would be of such ultimate benefit to trade and to themselves that the Government may count on their wholehearted support to the measures necessary to bring this about. In the adoption of a uniform Chinese dollar it is absolutely essential that care be taken that whatever weight and fineness is decided upon, that weight and fineness must be as invariable and as reliable as the weight and fineness of a British sovereign, or of the current gold coins of other countries. The dollars coined by the Chinese Mints have not been of uniform fineness and composition, and to establish general confidence in the new Chinese dollar expert foreign supervision in the Mints would be necessary, for a time at least.

"The exchange of sycee and of Mexican dollars for the new dollar should present no difficulties, but it would be necessary that a Mint should be established in Shanghai, which is the principal port of entry for silver from abroad and the source from which most other treaty ports derive their supplies of currency."

"The Foreign Exchange Banks have seen no reason to change the views as expressed above and they wish therefore to record their support to the resolution of the British Chambers of Commerce.

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS.

"The following suggestions may be of use to the Chinese Government if they decide to give effect to the resolution:—

- (1) The Mint should be established within easy distance of the business centre of the International Settlement of Shanghai, and should be under the direct control of the Central Government.
- (2) The control should be vested in the hands of a Chinese Director-General, with a Foreign Associate Director-General.

To ensure uniformity of coinage and proper workmanship, also the efficient handling of silver tendered to the Mint, it would be necessary to employ two foreign Assayers, three Inspectors and one Accountant.

- Note:—When the Japanese Government first began minting coins which went into circulation in the East in competition with the coins of foreign countries, they employed ten foreign experts. There is, however, so much efficient Chinese labour available which is skilled in the handling of metals, that we consider a minimum of foreign supervision would be sufficient.
- (3) The Mint should be capable of manufacturing one million coins daily. One million dollars or half dollars daily.
- (4) When it is in full working order, the coinage of dollars must be discontinued by the other Mints in China, unless these Mints are controlled by the Central Government and placed under expert foreign supervision, similar to that of the Shanghai Mint.

(5) A new die should be made so that the new dollars will be readily distinguishable from those already in circulation.

(6) Silver should be tendered direct by the Banks and the public to the Mint, which, in order to simplify the procedure, can stipulate that no silver under .890 fine will be received for coinage.

Dollars should be delivered by the Mint to the Banks and the public in the same rotation as the silver has been received.

(7) With regard to the weight and fineness of the new dollar, in view of the considerable quantities of Provincial Mint dollars already in circulation, it would be desirable that the new coin should approximate as closely to them as possible, in order that no discrimination would be made by the public against one or other of the coins.

From a series of tests made at the Indian Government Mint at Bombay, it has been ascertained that the Nanking Mint dollars, although very uneven, average 891.15 fine and weigh 414.589 grains.

These dollars are considered to be equal to those coined by the Tientsin and Wuchang Mints. The new coin might, therefore, be fixed at 416 grains weight, 890 fine, and it should be received at par with the existing recognized dollars by the Government and the public. The Mint should, however, be prepared to recoin the existing dollars into the new dollar free coins.

(8) As it is not proposed to consider the question of subsidiary coinage at this time, the Foreign Exchange Banks are of opinion that it would be a public convenience if a half dollar were coined, the weight and fineness of which should correspond with the dollar, viz: 208 grains weight and 890 fine.

(9) The rate of conversion of the existing stocks of sycee to dollars can be fixed by arrangement with the Chinese Government and the Foreign Banks, on the basis of the actual amount of pure silver contained in the sycee. It should be coined free of charge as it is not desirable to compel the public to bear the expenses of the change.

(10) The rate of seigniorage might be agreed on at 2 per cent., which is what the Indian Government charged when the Mints in India were open to the public for the coinage of rupees-Presumably that was considered a fair charge to the public and to the Government.

(11) It is recognized that the expense of establishing a Mint may be inconvenient to the Chinese Government at present. The Foreign Banks, therefore, would be willing to give what temporary financial assistance might be necessary for the purchase of land and machinery and the erection of suitable buildings."

The Chinese Government has accepted the advice so far as the establishing of a Mint in Shanghai is concerned, but appears unwilling to place such Mint under expert foreign control.

As pointed cut in the above memorandum, it is a cardinal essential to the success of the proposal that the weight and fineness of the new coins be absolutely reliable and invariable. Without this essential it would be quite impossible for Foreign Banks to accept the new dollar currency in substitution for sycee, the reliability of which has stood the test of time, or for the foreign trade of the country to be conducted in it. There can

be no doubt, however, that the introduction of a thoroughly reliable coin, circulating freely throughout the whole country, would prove an immense stimulus to trade, a large increase in the volume of which could confidently be looked for as a result of such reform. The country is ripe for its introduction, for public confidence in paper issues, unsupported by adequate metallic reserves as they have been, has of late years received a rude shock, and dollars minted at existing mints, variable, as I will show them to be, have been going freely into the interior, while considerable quantities of silver must also have been hoarded there.

RESULTS OF RECENT ASSAYS.

In 1908 two parcels of silver dollars, minted at a Chinese Mint which I will refer to as A, were forwarded to the Indian Government Mint in Calcutta for assay. The result was:—

(1) A dollar weighing 415.26 grains 899.5 fine (2) ,, ,, ,, 414.90 ,, 897.8 ,, Average 415.08 ,, 898.65 ,,

You will note that the fineness is much higher than that of the dollars being minted to-day. The reason no doubt is that in those days the desire was to produce a dollar which could circulate at par with a British or Mexican dollar, rather than form a new National Currency. I mention this assay, however, as I will draw your attention presently to a curious coincidence in connexion with the large variation of more than $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. between these two assays.

The following assays of Chinese silver dollars have all been made at the Indian Government Mint, Bombay. In each case two parcels were sent and each parcel was assayed separately:—

MINT B

1916 (1) Weight 414 80 grains 891. fine (2) ,, 414.80 ,, 891 2 ,, Average 414.60 ,, 891.1 ,, Variation .074% 1920 (1) Weight 414 20 grains 890.3 fine (2) ,, 414. ,, 889 8 ,, Average 414.10 ,, 890.05 ,,

Variation .104%

It will be noted that there was less variation between the dollars minted at this Mint in 1916 than between these minted in 1920, while the value of the 1916 dollars in 259 per cent, higher than that of the 1920 one.

MINT C.

1920 (1) Weight 414.48 grains 891. fine (2) ,, 814.20 ,, 891.1 ,, Average 414.34 ,, 891.05 ,, Variation .056%

MINT D.

1915 (1) Weight 414.639 grains 889.6 fine (2) ,, 414.639 ,, 889.5 ,, Average 414.639 ,, 889.55 ,, Variation .0112%

In these assays the weight is constant, while the variation is only .0112 per cent. From that point of view this is the best assay obtained.

1918	(1)	Weight	414.76	grains	891.4	fine
	(2)	,,	414.32	,,	890.9	,, .
		Average	414.54		891.15	,,
		Variation	.162%	•		
1919	(1)	Weight	415.80	grains	891.4	fine
	(2)	,,	415.20	,,	890.5	,,
	. ,	Average	415.50	,,	890.45	,,
		Variation	.133%			
1920	(1)	Weight	415.40	grains	890.8	fine
		,,	414.40	,,	890.5	,,
	\ /	Average	414.90		890.65	,,
		Variation	.275%			

While there was a gradual improvement in dollars minted at this Mint up to 1919, there has been a depreciation of .122 per cent. in the dollars minted in the early part of this year—as compared with those minted last year. It is also noticeable that the variation between the 1920 dollars is practically the same as the variation between dollars minted as A in 1908, viz: .276 per cent.

Dollars as variable as these are not coins in the technical sense, for they have no definite intrinsic value. At the best they are but a commodity whose expressed value in the accepted tael unit must necessarily fluctuate

considerably.

During 1919 the Nanking Mint turned out \$37,860,000. To the end of September this year (1920) they have turned out \$44,641,000. The Mints at Tientsin and Wuchang have also been busy, while a new Mint was established in Hangchow towards the middle of this year. This Mint up to the end of September had turned out about \$7,000,000.

The Stock of dollars in Shanghai on October 31, 1919 was estimated to be \$10,550,000 and the middle price was 74.44. On the October 31, 1920 the estimated stock was \$26,200,000, the middle price being 72.25. On

Nov. 4, 1920 the quotation was 72.

The cost of minting \$100 weighing 416 grains of silver 890 fine, exclusive of mint expenses, is Shanghai currency taels 71.685. At current prices it would not be a profitable transaction to mint such coins under the present system on which Chinese Mints are conducted—a further depreciation of their dollars would probably result if that system is continued. The first step on the road to currency reform is the minting of an absolutely invariable dollar for circulation throughout the country. If this step be now taken by placing the proposed Shanghai Mint effectively under efficient technical control, it should not prove a very costly one for the Government, while the increased volume of trade which should result will more than repay the country. The longer the minting of the present unreliable dollar is continued, the more expensive must reform become. If the trade of the country were to be financed through the medium of a dollar as variable as those at present available, an unnecessary tax would be placed on it, which could not but retard its full development.

The Shanghai Mint.

The recommendations of the Foreign Exchange Banks have not yet been accepted in toto by the Chinese Government. But on March 3, 1921, a Loan Agreement was signed between the Ministry of Finance, and a Chinese Banking Group, almost identical with that which arranged the

Railway Car Loan* for the erection and equipment of a modern Mint at Shanghai. The amount of the Loan is \$2,500,000 Chinese Currency, and the main provisions of the contract are printed below. Special importance attaches to the Memorandum from the Chinese Banking Group to the Minister of Finance and Director of the Currency Bureau, recommending the procedure to be adopted to standardize the new dollar currency, which is reproduced in full. It will be seen that several of the recommendations of the Foreign Exchange Banks have been adopted, others modified, and some not referred to at all.

SUMMARY OF LOAN CONTRACT.

The contract for the Shanghai Mint Loan, of \$2,500,000 in Chinese currency, was signed on March 3, by the Minister of Finance, the Director of the Currency Bureau and representatives of the Shanghai Mint Loan Chinese banking group. The contract makes the following stipulations:—

- (1) Treasury notes will be issued in accordance with regulations to be announced by the Ministry of Finance.
- (2) The money derived from these notes is to be exclusively used for the purchase of land, the building of the mint and its equipment with machinery. Within one month of the signing of the contract the parties of the first part will instruct the officers of the Shanghai mint, and their engineers and contractors, to draw up a detailed plan for the approval of the parties of the second part. Upon the latter's approval the building of the mint will proceed without delay, and an immediate order for the required machinery will be placed.
- (3) In accordance with the Shanghai Mint Treasury notes regulations, the parties of the first part will receive \$93 for every \$100 note, and the parties of the second part will sell for the actual amount received by the parties of the second part.
 - (4) The notes will bear nine per cent. interest.
- (5) On the day of the signing of the contract, the parties of the second part will place to the credit of the Shanghai mint account the new sum of \$2,325,000 upon the notes that have been underwritten, as a deposit bearing four per cent. interest, all the interest on the notes being debited to the account of the Shanghai mint from the deposit above-mentioned.
- (6) The parties of the second part will bear all the expenses involved in the sale of the notes, telegrams, posting, advertising, etc., the second parties receiving not more than one per cent. of the total value of the notes as commission.
- (7) A monthly redemption of \$70,000 will be effected from April, 1921, to May, 1924, for which the first parties will instruct the Salt Administration to make such payment to the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications in Shanghai, which will in turn hand over the money to the second parties for the redemption of the notes.
- (8) Upon the completion of the Shanghai mint, the first parties will hand over the documents in relation to the ownership of the land, machinery, equipment, etc., to the second parties.
- (9) This deals with the profits, which cannot be taken out by the first parties until all the notes have been redeemed.

The remainder is unimportant. The banking group concerned is practically the same as the one which contracted for the railway-car loan.

^{*} See pp. 271 9.

CHINESE BANKERS' RECOMMENDATIONS.

The following correspondence has been exchanged between the Chinese Banking Group associated in the Mint Loan and the Ministry of Finance and the Currency Bureau:

To The Minister of Finance and the Director of the Currency Bureau:

We have been taking great interest in the proposition put before us by your Ministry and the Currency Bureau, concerning the issue of \$2,500,000 Shanghai Mint Loan Treasury Notes: and a contract has been entered into between your Ministry and ourselves, signed on March 3 1921, by which we will be the underwriters of the issue of the full amount of the notes.

Owing to the fact that Shanghai is the trading as well as the financial centre of the whole of China, both Chinese and foreign commercial circles here, desiring to see the realization of financial stability and commercial development of China, have been most urgently looking forward to the establishment of a modern and efficient mint at Shanghai in the immediate future. Political conditions in the country during the past few years have been very unfavourable to trade activities, and lack of adequate communication has shaken the financial equilibrium of the nation. The uncertainty of transportation, which prevents the free movement of dollars and often enhances their value, unnecessarily and abruptly made the situation still worse. It is true that we have several mints in different provinces; but it is equally true that the provincial authorities have been taking these mints as provincial property and conducting them on a purely business basis. When any profit is seen, then dollars are minted; and when there is no prospective profit to be realized, the operations of the mints are stopped, whether the Central Government approves or not. As a result, the existing mints in China have ceased to perform their functions as stabilizing agents of national finance. Therefore the establishment of a centralized and efficiently managed mint in China is not merely a matter of importance but also a matter of necessity.

We are glad to see that the loan contract for the establishment of such a mint has been signed, and we are sure that we shall see the mint in operation before long. However, our interest regarding the establishment of the Shanghai Mint does not end with the mere creation of an additional manufacturing house where dollars and cents will be produced. Our interest goes far beyond that. We hope to see in this mint a stepping stone towards the abolition of bullion sycee, towards the nationalization of the currency system, and towards the reconstruction of the whole financial structure of the nation. In connexion with such a great expectation as ours, we cannot but offer our suggestions regarding the coinage system as well as the ways and means by which the mint can maintain its independence and efficiency. We therefore make the following suggestions:—

SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING MINT.

1. Weight and fineness of the coins.

According to the regulations governing national coinage, issued in the year 1914, the dollar should contain .648 of a Kuping Tael, or 23.97795048 grammes of silver, and the fineness should be 900.00, the other 100.00 being copper. But these stipulations have not been carried out. The Yuan Shihkai dollar has a fineness of 890.00, and there are more than 400.000,000 of such dollars in circulation. It seems to us that it would be wise to adopt the fineness of the Yuan dollar, i.e. 890.00 as the fineness for the new dollars to be coined by the Shanghai Mint, containing a weight of .6408 of Kuping Tael, i.e. 23.9024808 grammes. This adoption will avoid unnecessary changes. The 1914 Coinage Regulations should be revised according to the above conditions, so that the laws will not be merely empty words.

2. The die of the coins.

The coins now circulating have been coined after the model of 1914, bearing a picture of Yuan Shih-kai. A new die should be adopted for the Shanghai Mint, and a special mark should be put on the coins so as to distinguish them from the existing issues. The new die should be adopted by a Presidential mandate, and mention should be made in the Mandate to the effect that the old and new coins are to be circulated at the same par value.

3. Remedy.

The weight, fineness and remedy should be definitely fixed by a certain set of regulations, as was done in 1914. The remedy between the actual weight of a dollar and the authorized weight should not exceed .03 per cent., the remedy between the total weight of 1,000 dollars and the authorized weight, should not exceed .003 per cent. The remedy between the fineness of one dollar and the authorized fineness should not exceed .03 per cent.

4. Coinage system.

For the purpose of the abolition of sycee and the standardization of coinage, the system of free coinage should be adopted. According to the 1914 regulations, a seigniorage of .006 Tael is to be charged. A dollar would contain .648 of a Tael if the same regulations were observed. The reason why the seigniorage of .006 Taels was added was so that the dollar would approach the then market value of .66 Taels, Tientsin currency, and .71 Taels, Shanghai currency. The British Chamber of Commerce at Shanghai proposed to charge a seigniorage of 2 per cent. If we reckon that a doilar contains a silver equivalent of .6408 Taels, a seigniorage of .0128 would be charged. This seigniorage as proposed by the British Chamber of Commerce nearly doubles that provided in the regulations. It seems to be altogether too high. The .006 Tael seigniorage is a just one; but as the price of commodities at present is very high, and if the Shanghai Mint is not going to coin subsidiary coins for the time being, it is feared that .006 seigniorage would not be enough to maintain operating expenses. The loss on the part of the mint would be still greater, when the old dollars are to be recoined. So it seems that a seigniorage charge of more than .006 Taels would be necessary. According to the report made by the Currency Bureau in May 1915, it stated that the minimum cost of .65 Taels should be maintained, that is, .01 Tael should be the minimum seigniorage charge. If the .01 Tael seigniorage should be adopted as the standard seigniorage, it would mean a seigniorage of 1.5 per cent. This seems to be a just charge. Then a dollar would contain .6508 Kuping Tael. However, should the 1.5 per cent. seigniorage become too high at a future date, it could be reduced by a Presidential Mandate.

If the free coinage system should be adopted, the mint should not accept for minting any bullion, the fineness of which is below 890.00; and for the sake of ensuring efficiency, the English system of receiving and paying out the money to be coined should be adopted, that is, the Chinese banks at Shanghai would elect representatives to whom the mint could entrust the task of receiving bullion for coinage, and paying out the coins minted. The Chinese Bankers' Association at Shanghai and the Shanghai Mint will work together and fix the amount of money that the mint should coin every day or every month.

However, prior to the adoption of the free coinage system, the question of abolition of bullion sycee and the Tael standard should first be definitely settled. If the bullion sycee and the Tael standard are to be allowed to remain, dollars will still have a market exchange quotation daily. When the exchange rate is high, people bring their bullion to the mint for coinage, and when the rate drops, the mint would cease coining altogether. There-

fore, if China should adopt a system of free coinage, bullion sycee and the Tael standard should be first totally abolished. The Government should entrust the Chinese Bankers' Association, the Chinese Chamber of Commerce and the Domestic Bankers' Association to work together with the Foreign Bankers' Association, and the officials of the Customs to organize a special committee to look into this matter. If the methods could be outlined before the opening of the mint, so much the better.

If the abolition of bullion sycee and the Tael standard cannot be realized at an early date, and the free coinage system could not be adopted before the mint starts operations, then the precedents of the present working in the Tientsin and Nanking Mints should be followed. All the member banks of the Shanghai Mint Loan Banking Group, when they want to have coins minted, can apply for procedure from the Bank of China

and the Bank of Communications.

5. The organization of the Mint.

The control of the Shanghai Mint should be in the hands of the Ministry of Finance and the Currency Bureau. The Chief and other members of the staff should be appointed by the Ministry of Finance directly. These officials should be appointed according to their real qualifications both regarding knowledge and experience, and once appointed, they should not be changed or shifted too often so as to ensure efficiency of the mint management and production. The Shanghai Mint should also employ a foreign assaying expert to take charge of the work of the assaying office and for testing the variations and fineness of the coins minted. His investigations should be published from time to time, so that the public will have full confidence in the mint's work.

6. Production of the Mint.

According to the present estimate the amount of money daily needed in Shanghai now is somewhere between \$500,000 and \$600,000. If we calculate on the basis of daily production \$600,000, a sum of Tls. 12,000,000 is needed every month. It seems that it would be enough to start the initial production at that rate. If the mint is in need of further funds for its expansion and enlargement, we, the Shanghai Mint Loan Banking Group, will be willing to supply such funds. The present plan of the mint should leave plenty of room for further expansion so that enlargement plans to the extent of \$1,000,000 daily production can be formulated whenever necessary.

Special Committee. In order to make certain of the abolition of the Tael standard and bullion sycee, the Shanghai Mint should appoint a Special Committee. Any persons, whether Chinese or foreign, who have close connexions with the question of the Tael and doliar, should be represented by members of the Committee, for instance, the members of the Chinese Bankers' Association, members of the Native Bankers' Association, members of the Chinese General Chamber of Commerce, members of the staff of the Customs (who have great interest in this proposition in so far as they are concerned in the question of abolishing the Haikwan Tael and the payment of foreign loan obligations on the basis of dollars instead of Taels) the members of the Foreign Bankers' Association (who also have considerable interest in this question because they have a great deal to do in connexion with settlement of foreign loans, both in principal redemption and interest payment) The Committee should from time to time discuss ways and means of how to abolish bullion sycee and the Tael standard, as well as to test the fineness of coins and supervise the coinage of the mint, and to make suggestions for general efficiency of the mint.

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committee will cease to function only when the reform of currency through-

out the country has been completely carried out.

We the Shanghai Mint Loan Banking Group, sincerely submit the above suggestions for the consideration of you, the Minister of Finance and Director of the Currency Bureau. As the matter is one of importance and urgency, we beg to request that you will give serious consideration to these suggestions.

REPLY FROM THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE AND THE CURRENCY BUREAU.

We are in receipt of your letter submitting suggestions concerning the weight and fineness of National coins, the die of coins, remedy, coinage system, the organization of the Mint, production of the mint, and special committee, which have received our hearty approval. We have duly instructed the Shanghai Mint to act upon them. In case we desire to make any changes we will discuss first with you on the subject.

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Reserves: Frs. 40,000,000.

Head Office: 74, Rue St. Lazare, Paris.

China Branches: Shanghai, Hankow, Hongkong, Tientsin, Canton, Peking, Foochow, Mukden, Swatow, Tsinanfu, Yunnanfu.

CHARTERED BANK OF INDIA, AUSTRALIA AND CHINA.

Capital: £3,000,000.

Reserve Fund: £3,500,000.

Head Office: 38, Bishopsgate St. London.

China Branches: Shanghai, Hongkong, Tientsin, Hankow, Canton, Peking.

CHINESE AMERICAN BANK OF COMMERCE.

Capital (Paid up): U. S. \$5,000,000.

Head Office : Peking.

Branches: Harbin, Tientsin, Shanghai, Tsinan, Hankow, Shihchiachuang.

HONGKONG AND SHANGHAI BANKING CORPORATION.

Capital (Paid up): \$15,000,000.

Reserve Funds: £2,500,000 and \$21,500,000.

Head Office: Hongkong

China Branches: Shanghai, Tientsin, Hankow, Peking, Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Harbin, Tsingtao.

INTERNATIONAL BANKING CORPORATION.

Capital and Surplus: U.S. \$10,000,000. Undivided Profits: U.S. \$3,200,000. Head Office: 60, Wall St. New York.

China Branches: Shanghai, Hankow, Hongkong, Tientsin, Peking, Canton, Harbin.

MERCANTILE BANK OF INDIA, LD.

Capital (Paid up): £1,050,000.

Reserve and Undivided Profits: £1,050,000.

Head Office: 15, Gracechurch St. London.

China Branches: Hongkong, Shanghai.

MITSUBISHI BANK, LD.

Capital (Paid up): Yen 30,000,000.

Head Office: Tokio.

China Branch: Shanghai.

MITSUI BANK, LD.

Capital (paid up): Yen 60,000,000. Legal and Special Reserves: Yen 27,000,000.

Head Office: Tokio.

China Branch: Shanghai.

NEDERLANDSCHE HANDEL MAATSCHAPPIJ.

Capital (Paid up): Guilders 80,000,000.

Reserve: Guilders 17,353,234.

Head Office: Amsterdam.

China Branches: Shanghai, Hongkong.

PARK_UNION FOREIGN BANKING CORPORATION.

Capital: G. \$4,000,000.

Surplus and Undivided Profits: G. \$754,000

Head Office: 56, Wall St. New York.

China Branch: 7, Kiukiang Road, Shanghai.

PHILIPPINE NATIONAL BANK.

Resources: Pesos 261,000,000.

Head Office: Manila.

China Branch: 1, The Bund, Shanghai.

RUSSO-ASIATIC BANK.

Capital (tully paid): Rbls. 55,000,000.

Reserve Fund: Rbls. 26,960,000.

Head Office: 9, Rue Boudreau, Paris.

China Branches: Shanghai, Tientsin, Hongkong, Hankow, Peking, Changchun, Chefoo, Dairen, Hailar, Harbin, Manchouli, Newchwang, Urumtchi

SINO-ITALIAN BANK.

Capital (Paid up): \$1,200,000 and Gold Lire 4,000,000.

Branches: Peking, Shanghai, Tientsin.

SUMITOMO BANK, LD.

Capital (paid up) :—Yen 40,000,000. Reserve Fund: Yen 18,000,000.

Head Office: Kitahama, Osaka.

China Branches: Shanghai, Hankow.

BANK OF TAIWAN, LD

Capital (subscribed): Yen 60,000,000.

Reserve Funds: Yen 8,980,000

Head Office: Taipeh, Formosa.

China Branches: Shanghai, Hankow, Hongkong, Canton, Foochow, Amov, Swatow, Kiukiang.

YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK, LD

Capital (paid up): Yen 100,000,000.

Reserve Fund: Yen 53,000,000. Head Office: Yokohama.

China Branches: Shanghai, Hankow, Hongkong, Tientsin, Peking, Changchun, Dairen, Harbin, Kaiyuan, Mukden, Newchwang, Tsinaufu, Tsingtao.

TREASURE IMPORTED FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES DURING 1919.

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TOTAL IMPORTS	MPORTS	32,910,493			49,014.547	13,079,160	62,093,707	11,722	11,722 113,184,072

TREASURE EXPORTED, 1919.

	Grand	Total.	Hk. Tls. 936,436	9,182	1	444,804	a.	1,384,882	82,065	15,397,583	7,604	489,016	4,623	108,685	1	18,864,880	
	Copper	Coins.	Hk. Tls.	1		ı	1	1	1	1		1		23	1	33	
	SILVER.		Hk. Tls.	9,182	1	100	!	1,197,532	63.666	7,084,206	7.604	489,016	2,360	108,652		8,968,418	
RTS.			Hk. Tls.		1	100		1,197,632	999'89	5,563,504	1	35.912	3,360	108.652	1	6,977,826	
EXPORTS		In Bars and Sycee.		9,182	1	1	1	1	1	1,520,702	7,604	453,104	1	- Control of the Cont	- Charge and Charge an	1,990,592	
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		in Bars, Dust, etc	Hk. Tls. 936,436	ļ	!	444,704		187,250	15,399	3,383,224	1	i	1,263	1	-	4,966,276	
	COUNTRIES.	TATACAR TARACARAGA	Europe	AMERICA	AUSTRALIA	ASIA: INDIA (INCLUDING BURMA, ETC.)	SINGAPORE, STRAITS, ETC	SAIGON AND TONKIN	SIAM	HONGRONG AND MACAO	DUTCH INDIES	Japan (including Formosa)	Korea	VLADIVOSTOCK	Manila	TOTAL EXPORTS	

EXCHANGE VARIATIONS SINCE 1890.

The following table shows the extent of exchange variations (Shanghai Taels) since 1890:—

					1	
В	Official quo Bank's Sellir London T			Range within year.	Difference between highest of the year and the highest of the preceding year.	the highest of the
1000	т.	s. d.		d.	d.	8. d.
1890. 1890.	Lowest Highest	4/2\frac{5}{8} 5/3\frac{1}{8}		Range 1s. 0½d.	•••	
1891. 1891.	Lowest Highest	4/2½ 4/8½		Range 6	Down 65	Down 1/0
1892. 1892.	Lowest Highest	$\frac{3}{8\frac{1}{2}}$ $\frac{4}{2\frac{3}{4}}$		Range 61	Down 5 ³ / ₄	Down 1/0
1893. 1893.	Lowest Highest	3/13 3/103		Range 9	*Down 43	Down 1/13
1894. 1894.	Lowest Highest	$\frac{2/7\frac{7}{8}}{3/1\frac{3}{4}}$		Range 57	Down 85	Down 1/21
1895. 1895.	Lowest Highest	2/8\frac{3}{8} 3/0\frac{7}{8}		Range 4½	Down 7/8	Down 53
1896. 1896.	Lowest Highest	2/10 5 3/1 5		Range 3	3/4 up	Down 21/4
1897. 1897.	Lowest Highest	2/3¼ 2/11⅓		Range 77	Down 2½	Down 103
1898. 1898.	Lowest Highest	2/5\frac{3}{8} 2/8\frac{7}{8}		Range 3½	Down 21/4	Down 53/4
1899. 1899.	Lowest Highest	2/7 2/9½		Range 2½	1/4 up	Down 178
1900. 1900.	Lowest Highest	2/8 2/11 <u>4</u>		Range 31/4	2 <u>1</u> up	Down 118
1901. 1901.	Lowest Highest	2/5 2/10½		Range 5½	Down 3/4	Down 614
1902. 1902.	Lowest Highest	$\frac{2/1\frac{3}{4}}{2/6\frac{1}{2}}$		Range 43	Down 4	Down 834
1903. 1903.	Lowest Highest	$\frac{2/1\frac{5}{8}}{2/7\frac{1}{4}}$		Range 55	3/4 up	Down 478
1904. 1904.	Lowest Highest	2/3 7 /8 2/8 <u>3</u>		Range 47	1½ up	Down 3½
1905. 1905.	Lowest Highest	2/6½ 2/11	•••••	Range 47	2 <u>1</u> up	Down $2\frac{1}{2}$
1906. 1906.	Lowest Highest	$\frac{2/9\frac{1}{2}}{3/2}$		Range 4½	3 ир	Down 1½
1907. 1907.	Lowest Highest	2/4§ 3/0		Range $7\frac{3}{8}$	Down 2	Down 93

^{*} Note.—Sherman Act repealed.

C I	Official quotations Bank's Selling Rate London T T	Range within year.	Difference between highest of the year and the highest of the preceding year.	Difference between the highest of the preceding year and lowest of the year.	
1908. 1908.	Lowest $2/2\frac{3}{8}$ Highest $2/7$		s. d. Down 5	d. Down 958	
1909. 1909.	Lowest $2/3\frac{1}{2}$ Highest $2/5\frac{1}{4}$		Down 13/4	Down 31	
1910. 1910.	Lowest $2/3\frac{1}{2}$ Highest $2/6\frac{3}{8}$		13 up	Down 134	
1911. 1911.	Lowest $2/4\frac{5}{16}$ Highest $2/5\frac{7}{8}$		Down 3/4	Down 25	
1912. 1912.	Lowest 2/5 ¹³ / ₁₆ Highest 2/10 ⁷ / ₁₆		4 9 up	Down 16	
1913. 1913.	Lowest $2/6\frac{3}{4}$ Highest $2/10\frac{1}{16}$	Range 315	4 up	Down 311	
1914. 1914.	Lowest $2/1\frac{7}{8}$ Highest $2/7\frac{5}{8}$		Down 3 i	Down 8 13	
1915. 1915.	Lowest $2/2\frac{3}{4}$ Highest $2/7\frac{3}{4}$		å up	Down 47	
1916. 1916.	Lowest $2/6\frac{5}{8}$ Highest $3/6\frac{1}{2}$	Range 117	10 <u>3</u> up.	Down 1!	
1917. 1917.	Lowest 3/3½ Highest 4/10½	Range 1s. 7d.	1s. 4d. up.	Down 3	
1918. 1918.	Lowest 4/2½ Highest 5/7	Range 1s. 4½d.	8½d. up.	Down 8d.	
1919. 1919.	Lowest 4/6 Highest 7/10	Range 3s. 4d.	2s. 3d up.	Down 1s 1d.	
1920. 1920.	Lowest 3/11 Highest 9/3	Range 5s. 4d.	1s. 5d. up.	Down 3s. 11d.	

Average T. T. rate: 1909, $2/3\frac{7}{8}$; 1910, $2/4\frac{1}{16}$; 1911, $2/4\frac{1}{16}$; 1912, $2/8\frac{5}{8}$; 1913, $2/8\frac{1}{2}$; 1914, $2/5\frac{3}{8}$; 1915, $2/3\frac{7}{8}$; 1916, $2/11\frac{11}{16}$; 1917, $3/10\frac{3}{8}$; 1918, $4/8\frac{1}{16}$; 1919, $5/7\frac{7}{8}$; 1920, $6/1\frac{7}{16}$.

CHAPTER XV.

THE NEW CONSORTIUM.

OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS.

Joint Note from British, American, French and Japanese Legations at Peking to Chinese Foreign Office.

September 28th, 1920.

Excellency:

The Governments of France, Japan, the United States of America and Great Britain considering that the time has now arrived to make a joint communication to the Chinese Government on the proposed scope and objects of the so-called New Consortium which has been under discussion between the four Governments for some time past, the undersigned representatives of France, Japan, the United States of America and Great Britain have the honour to state as follows:

In the course of 1918 the United States Government informed the other three Governments in question of the formation in the United States of America of an American group of Bankers for the purpose of rendering financial assistance to China. The principles underlying the formation of the American group were that all preferences and options for loans to China held by any members of this group should be shared by the American group as a whole and that future loans to China having a Governmental guarantee should be conducted in common as group business, whether these

loans were for administrative or for industrial purposes.

In notifying the other three Governments of these proposals the United States Government recognized that the war had created such a mutuality of interests between certain Governments and peoples as to render this co-operation essential to any constructive programme of financial assistance to China. It was suggested therefore that the other Governments which were largely interested in China and in a position at the time to render such assistance-viz: France, Japan, and Great Britain-might be willing to join with the United States in its proposed plan and consent to the formation of similar national Groups organized on the same basis to act in co-operation with the American Group. In the proposal of the United States Government which in practice envisaged a reconstruction of the Old Consortium it was specifically stated that there was no intention of interfering with any of the rights of the Consortium. The hope was expressed however that the new national Groups formed might be made so broad as to include the members of the former Consortium as well as others who had legitimate claims to such inclusion, so as to meet the larger needs and opportunities of China in a spirit of harmony and of helpfulness rather than of harmful competition and self-interest.

The proposal of the United States Government as here outlined received the most careful and friendly consideration on the part of the French, Japanese and British Governments which resulted in a meeting to be held in Paris on May 11th and 12th, 1919, at which the chief Representatives of the four Groups were present to discuss the financial details of the proposed arrangement as well as the scope and limit of their activities.

A draft arrangement between the four Groups was then drawn up embodying inter alia the principles of the American proposals. While it is not the intention of the present Note to do more than outline the broad aspects of the question or to enter into financial details which await confirmation by the Groups at the forthcoming inter-group meeting to be held in New York in October next, we consider it advisable to make the position clear in regard to an essential point which might otherwise give rise to misapprehension, namely the amount of support to be given by the respective Governments to their national groups or to the Consortium as a whole.

It is to be understood that the Governments of each of the four participating Groups undertake to give their complete support to their respective national Group members of the Consortium in operations undertaken pursuant to the inter-group arrangement entered into by the bankers at Paris, which arrangement in turn relates to existing and future loan agreements involving the issue for subscription by the public of loans having a Chinese Government guarantee subject to the proviso that existing agreements for industrial undertakings upon which substantial progress has been made may be omitted from the scope of the arrangement.

A collection of documents which have passed between the Governments interested in the Consortium as well as certain letters exchanged between the American and Japanese Group representatives which are herewith enclosed will enable the Chinese Government to follow the course of the

negotiations and understand the whole position.

In making this communication to Your Excellency the undersigned venture to reiterate the earnest hope of their respective Governments for the early consummation of a united Government in China so that the New Consortium may eventually be enabled to give practical expression to the desires of the four Governments concerned to assist in the future development of this country.

State Department's Letter of July 9, 1918, to the Bankers Outlining Conditions of Consortium.

July 9, 1918.

Messrs J. P. Morgan and Company,
Messrs Kuhn, Loeb and Company,
National City Bank of New York,
First National Bank of New York,
Chase National Bank,
Continental and Commercial Trust and Savings Bank,
Messrs Lee, Higginson and Company,
Guaranty Trust Company of New York.
New York City.

Gentlemen:

Your letter of July 8, 1918, has had my very careful consideration. It contains several elements of an important nature which I will take up in order:

This war has brought the countries of Great Britain, France, Japan, the United States and some others into a state of harmony and helpfulness, and has supplanted an intense spirit of competition by a spirit of mutuality and co operation in matters relating to their interests abroad. Doubtless this situation is in a measure due to the absence of capital seek-

ing foreign investment at the present time because of the demands upon it for war purposes.

If international co-operation is necessary, as seems to be the case, for the successful flotation of the proposed loan, I realize that the support of Great Britain and France would be desirable even if it should be necessary for the United States and Japan to carry for the time being their respective portions of the loan. All four powers are of course deeply interested in any measures taken to strengthen China and fit her for a more active part in the war against the Central European powers. Japan is already considering rendering financial assistance, while two of the loans that have been mentioned as desirable are loans by which the interests of British and French citizens would be directly affected and it would, of course, be unwise to undertake their negotiation without consulting parties immediately concerned.

In these circumstances the formation of a four-power group, to consist of financial interests of the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan to deal with the Government of China for purposes of making loans to that Government seems advisable and it is my hope that in this way the whole subject of finance in China can ultimately be treated in a broad way. If the terms and conditions of each loan are submitted to and approved by this Government, and the other co-operating Governments and by the Government of China, this Government would not only interpose no objection, but, on the contrary, would consider such an arrangement an assurance that the welfare of China and the proper interests of the other Governments were of such a mutual character as to permit of close and friendly intercourse for their common good. I think that I should say frankly that this Government would be opposed to any terms or conditions of a loan which sought to impair the political control of China or lessened the sovereign rights of that Republic.

In response to your inquiry, as to whether the Government would be willing at the time of its issue to state that the loan was being made at the suggestion of the Government, I will say that the Government has suggested that this loan be made and would have no hesitancy in formally stating that fact at the time of issue.

The question of relinquishment by the members of the American group of any options to make loans now existing in favour of any of them seems to be a reasonable condition of membership in that group. Such relinquishment by a member of a foreign group is a matter over which this Government would have no control. However, I may say that if the members of the American Group come to the conclusion that they desire it, this Government will use its good offices, in so far as it can properly do so to bring about such relinquishment.

The war has created a community of interest between certain governments and their citizens and those of other governments and has broken down barriers that once have existed and made easier the intercourse between them. With the consequent expansion of our interests abroad there must be considered also the element of risk which sometimes enters into the making of loans to foreign governments and which is always inseparable from investments in foreign countries where reliance must be placed on the borrower's good faith and ability to carry out the terms of the contract. This Government realizes fully that condition and in order to encourage and facilitate that free intercourse between American citizens and foreign states which is mutually advantageous is willing to aid in every proper way and to make prompt and vigorous representations and to take every possible step to insure the execution of equitable contracts made in good faith by its citizens in foreign lands.

Your suggestion that the members of the proposed American group may be representative of the whole country is one which is entirely satisfactory since it removes a possible ground of objection. Various sections of the country are interested in enterprises of this character and undoubtedly would be glad to join any constructive movement such as is proposed. As so much depends upon the proper organization of the American financial group I assume that in the event of its formation you will submit the names of the proposed members to the Government before a final organization is made.

The spirit of co-operation you manifest is very gratifying and you are assured of the interest of the Government and of all proper aid which it can render in bringing this matter to a satisfactory conclusion.

I am, Gentlemen,

Your obedient servant.

State Department's Note and Memorandum to the French, British, and Japanese Embassies, dated October 8, 1918.

October 8, 1918.

No. 2249.

Excellency:

On July 10, 1918, I had the honour to communicate to Your Excellency copies of confidential letters exchanged between certain American bankers and myself on the subject of the formation of an American Group for the purpose of rendering financial assistance to China.

As appeared from the correspondence above referred to, it was the thought of this Government that the newly formed American Group should be representative of the whole country and should include in its membership such banks as had a present interest in China as well as such banks as might desire to join the Group and were acceptable both to the other members of the Group and to this Government. Thirty-one banks have now joined the American Group and are representative of all sections of the country.

It was considered by all to be a reasonable condition of membership in the American Group that all preferences and options for loans to China held by any member of this Group should be shared by the American Group as a whole and that all future loans in China which have any governmental guarantee should be conducted in common as Group business, whether it was for administrative or for industrial purposes.

Such, in brief, were the principles underlying the formation of the American Group so far as its own organization was concerned. It was the intention that all loans of the American Group shall be automatically shared with and conducted in common by the International Group when formed. It was frankly recognized that the war had created such a mutuality of interests between certain Governments and peoples as to render their cooperation essential to any constructive programme of financial assistance to China. It was, therefore, the earnest hope of the Government of the United States that the other Governments which were largely interested in China and in a position to render substantial assistance at this time,—namely, France, Great Britain and Japan-might see fit to join with this Government in its proposed plan and consent to the formation of similar national groups organized on the same basis to co-operate with the American Group; for it was and is the firm conviction of this Government that only by such cocperation, and upon such principle, can the best results be obtained for China and for the common interests of the other Powers corcerned.

If each of the four Governments should form a group of its own which should include all those who have made or would like to make loans to China, and if each member should share with the other members of its national group all future loans, including those to which it has a preference or on which it has an option, there could be little or no objection in the financial circles of the respective governments to such an arrangement.

Then if each of the four national groups should share with the other national groups any leans to China, including those to which that national group may have a preference or on which it may have an option, and all such business arising in the future, it is felt that the best interests of China would be served,— a purpose which the Government of the United States has, in all sincerity, felt would have the cordial support of all the

Powers which have at heart the welfare of China.

The Government of the United States, in making its proposal was of course not unaware of the so-called "Five Power Consortium." It was not the purpose, however, of this Government in suggesting the formation of a new international Group to interfere with any of the rights of that Consortium. It was hoped that, as in the case of the American Group, the new national groups to be formed might be made so broad as to include the members of the former Consortium as well as others who had legitimate claims to such inclusion, so as to meet the large needs and opportunities of China in a spirit of harmony and of helpfulness rather than of harmful competition and of self interest.

The proposal as presented has given rise to various inquiries on the part of the several Governments to which it was addressed and I have the honour to hand to Your Excellency herewith a memorandum covering the main points as raised. I should be happy if you would be so good as to convey the information therein contained to your Government and solicit its favourable

consideration and approval.

Accept, Excellency, the renewed assurances of my highest consideration. Enclosure:

Memorandum.

893.51.

MEMORANDUM.

The Government of the United States is gratified at the cordial reception given, in principle, to the general plan for loans to China as recently presented to the respective interested Governments.

This Government is now happy to reply, in the following sense, to the several requests of those Governments for further information as to certain

features of the proposed plan:

1.—It is not intended that the American Group, recently formed, should rejoin the existing consortium, but that there should be organized a new International Group, consisting of representative financial institutions of

the United States, Japan, Great Britain and France.

The plan, as proposed by the Government of the United States, does not contemplate that the former Consortium should necessarily be dissolved, but that each of the Governments concerned should arrange for the formation of its own national group which it is hoped might be made so comprehensive as to include all those parties interested in the former Consortium and such others, not so associated, who are engaged, or might engage, in loans to China, as well as any others whose participation might be desired.

Nor did the American Government, in making its proposal, have any specific loan in mind, but was endeavouring to lay down some general rule for future activities which might, in a broad way, meet the financial needs and opportunities in China. It was for this reason that no specific refer-

ence was made to the amount of the loan or loans to be raised, the revenues to be pledged or to the precise objects of the proposed loan. It was contemplated that these questions would be determined in respect to each

case as it might arise.

With respect to the Second or supplementary Reorganization Loan for purposes of Currency Reform, this Government is prepared to state in advance that it would be ready to recommend to the American Group that it should not only take a part in that loan but be prepared to carry also, in conjunction with the Japanese Group, the shares of the British and French Groups, not only in this particular loan should it be included in the business of the new International Group, but in such other loans as may develop while circumstances are such as to prevent their more active parti-

cipation.

2.—The reference to "a relinquishment by the members of the Group either to China or to the Group of any options to make loans which they now hold" applied primarily to the American Group alone and to an agreement between the banks and the United States Government, whereby all preferences and options for future loans in China having any Governmental guarantee and held by the individual members of the American Group should be relinquished to the Group which should, in turn, share them with the International Group. Such relinquishment of options was considered by this Government to be a reasonable condition of membership in the American Group; and while it is recognized that each interested Government must necessarily make its own arrangements with its own national group; it is submitted that it is possible properly to conduct the business of the International Group only by similar relinquishment to the respective national groups by the individual banks forming those groups, without distinction as to the nature of the options held.

3.—The proposal of the Government of the United States contemplated that industrial, as well as administrative loans should be included in the new arrangement for the reason that, in practice, the line of demarcation between various classes of loans often is not easy to draw. Both alike are essential fields for legitimate financial enterprise and both alike should be removed from the sphere of unsound speculation and of destructive competition. The intention of this Government was to suggest, as a means to that end, that the interested Governments should, by common consent, endeavour so to broaden the membership in the newly formed national groups that all financial firms of good standing interested in such loans might be included in the respective groups, and should withhold their support from independent financial operations without previous agreement of

the interested Governments.

As regards the Inter-Group Conference held in Paris, September 26, 1913, and the agreement to which the American Group adhered, stating they had no objection to the elimination of industrial loans, it can only be said that the American Group prior to that had withdrawn from active participation in the Consortium and was, therefore, not in a position to object; but that it is now felt that with the establishment of a new group,

the question may properly be reconsidered.

4.—The expression "any terms or conditions of a loan which sought to impair the political control of China or lessen the sovereign rights of that Republic" had reference only to the future activities of the American Group and was not intended to call in question the propriety of any specific arrangement in operation between the former Consortium and the Chinese Government, or between any other government and the Chinese. It can be definitely stated that the United States Government did not mean to imply that foreign control of the collection of revenues or other specific security pledged by mutual consent would necessarily be objectionable, nor

would the appointment under the terms of some specific loan of a foreign adviser,—as, for instance, to supervise the introduction of Currency Reform.

6.—With respect to the Russian and Belgian Groups and their rights in the former Consortium, no present action is contemplated either by way of reservation as to the old or of participation in the new Group. As previously stated, it is not anticipated that the existing Consortium will necessarily be dissolved nor, on the other hand, do present conditions warrant the expectation that effective Russian and Belgian national groups could readily be formed at this time.

It is not the intention, however, of this Government to ignore, much less to exclude, any just claim of participation in the new International Group, but merely, for practical considerations arising out of the war, to associate the interests of the Governments now so closely and actively associated and most able to finance the proposed loans to China, and to reserve for future consideration the inclusion of any other groups of friendly powers which may, at a later time, be in a position effectively to co-operate.

IDENTIC.

State Department's Note of May 31, 1919 to the French, British and Japanese Embassies.

May 31, 1919.

Sir:

Referring to Mr. Lansing's note of October 8, 1918, I have the honour to inform you that at a meeting of representatives of the banking groups of Great Britain, France, Japan and the United States, held at Paris on May 12, 1919, with the sanction of their respective Governments, for the purpose of organizing an International Group for financial business in China, the enclosed resolutions were unanimously adopted, subject to confirmation by the Governments concerned.

The Government of the United States, on its part, accepts and confirms the above resolutions and it is hoped that (His Britannic Majesty's) Government will promptly give like confirmation in order that the formal organization of the new consortium may be completed, prior to the expiration of the old consortium agreement on June 18 next.

Accept, Sir, the renewed assurances of my high consideration.

BRECKINRIDGE LONG,

Acting Secretary of State.

Enclosure: Resolutions. 893,51/

Resolutions Adopted by the Bankers' Conference at Paris, May 10 to May 12, 1919.

First. It was resolved that the principles laid down for the formation of the new consortium for Chinese loan business in the note dated Oct. 8, 1918, by the American Government, addressed to the British, French and Japanese Governments, and the subsequent memorandum relating thereto, be, and the same are, hereby approved.

Second. It was resolved: (a) That in addition to future business all existing loan agreements and options which involve the issue for subscription by the public of loans, be pooled with the exception of agreements and options relating to industrial undertakings (including railways) upon which substantial progress has been made; (b) that the groups will surrender to the consortium any such agreements and options which they them selves possess or control; (c) that the groups will use their best endeavours to induce other parties who may possess or control any such agreements or options to surrender the same to the consortium.

Third. It was declared that the groups would be prepared to consider the inclusion of the Russian group in the new consortium as soon as a government recognized as such by the respective governments of the groups should be established in Russia. The Chairman was requested to com-

municate a copy of this resolution to the Russian Group.

Fourth. Mr. Simon having reported that a Belgian group had requested that they be included in the new consortium as a principal, it was resolved that favourable consideration should be given to this request after the fermation of the new consortium. Mr. Simon was requested to com

municate a copy of this resolution to the Belgian group.

Fifth. It was resolved that each group in the new consortium shall be a national unit and that no member of any group shall, within the scope of the operation of the consortium, represent directly or indirectly any other national interest. That each group shall be established by a formal agreement in writing. That each of these agreements shall be furnished to the other groups.

Sixth. It was recognized in principle that industrial undertakings and railways in particular should be handled as an undivided whole and not sectionally and it was resolved that instructions be given by the groups to their respective representatives and engineers to prepare a joint scheme

for carrying this principle into effect.

Seventh. The question of the participation of the Japanese group in the Hukuang Railway loan having been raised, the other groups stated that it was their intention, so soon as the new consortium was formed and the Japanese group included therein, to offer them an equal share with the other groups in this loan upon the terms of the last mentioned resolution.

Eighth. The draft of the agreement was read and approved and it was resolved that the same should be remitted for the further consideration of the groups in consultation with their respective governments.

Letter From Mr. M. Odagiri to Mr. T. W. Lamont, dated June 18, 1919.

The Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd., 7, Bishopsgate, London.

18th June, 1919.

T. W. Lamont, Esq.,Messrs Morgan, Grenfell & Co.,22, Old Broad Street, E.C. 2.

Dear Sir,

With reference to our interview in Paris, and Mr. Tatsumi's conversation with you on the 16th instant in connection with the proposed new Consortium for Chinese business, for your information I would wish to communicate to you that we have been instructed by our principals in Japan that all the rights and options held by Japan in the regions of Manchuria and Mongolia, where Japan has special interests, should be excluded from the arrangements for pooling provided for in the proposed agreement. This is based on the very special relations which Japan enjoys geo-

graphically, and historically, with the regions referred to, and which have been recognized by Great Britain, the United States, France and Russia on many occasions. In this connection I would wish to specially draw your attention to a Note from the Secretary of State to the Japanese Ambassador, dated Washington, November 2nd, 1917.

Furthermore the following matter which was dealt with under the present Group Agreement, was reserved by the Japanese Group at the time

of signature of the Chinese Reorganization Loan Agreement.

On the 18th June, 1912, at a meeting of the Six Groups held in Paris, when discussing the agreement for the Chinese Reorganization Loan about to be issued, the following declaration was made by Mr. Takeuchi on behalf of the Japanese Group and was recorded in the minutes of the Conference. "The Japanese Bank declared that it takes part in the loan on the understanding that nothing connected with the projected loan should operate to the prejudice of the special rights and interests of Japan in the regions of South Manchuria and of the Eastern portion of Inner Mongolia adjacent to South Manchuria."

I should be very much obliged if you would give the foregoing matter

your careful consideration and with my best thanks in advance.

I remain,

Yours faithfully,

(Signed) M. ODAGIRI.

Letter from Mr. Thomas W. Lamont to Mr. M. Odagiri, dated
June 23, 1919.

COPY.

Hotel de Crillon, Paris, June 23, 1919.

Mr. M. Odagiri,

Hotel St. James et d'Albany, 211, Rue St. Honare, Paris.

Dear Sir :

I have before me your letter of June 18, delivered to me at London and communicating to me for the information of the American Group the instructions which you have received from Tokio as to "the rights and options held by Japan in the regions of Manchuria and Mongolia where Japan has special interests." You have, as I understand it, sent a letter in a similar sense to Sir Charles Addis, of the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation for the British Group, and M. Simon, of the Banque

de l'Indo-Chine, for the French Group.

For your information I beg to state that I have conferred informally with both the British and French Groups, and our views of the matter that you bring up are in accord. We cannot but believe that there is some misunderstanding upon the part of your principals in the matter, for if they were to make such an attitude final, the effect upon the relation of Japan to the New Consortium would be obvious. Mongolia and Manchuria are important parts of China, and any attempt to exclude them from the scope of the Consortium must be inadmissible. The "special interests" to which you allude have, in our opinion, never had to do with economic matters.

The whole question that you bring up is one of such grave import that we feel that it is beyond the immediate competence of the financial groups to discuss, and I am therefore bringing the matter to the attention of the

Department of State at Washington. I presume that the other groups will take similar action with respect to their own Foreign Offices.

We have noted your reference to the declaration made by Mr. Takeuchi on behalf of the Japanese Banking Group and recorded in the Minutes of the Conference on June 18 1912, at a meeting of the six banking groups held in Paris on that date. For your information I beg to recall to you that at the same time there was recorded in the Minutes of the Conference the following declaration: "The British, German, French and American Groups stated that they were unable to accept or consider either of these declarations upon the ground that they were not competent to deal with political questions." This declaration was accepted in conformity with the statement made by the Japanese Ambassador to Mr. Addis in London on June 11, 1912.

I remain,

Yours very truly,

(Signed) THOMAS W. LAMONT.

State Department's Note of July 3, to French, Japanese and British Embassies, Setting Forth Degree of Diplomatic Support to be accorded the Consortium.

July 3, 1919.

No.

Sir:

Referring to previous correspondence regarding the organization of a new International Consortium for financial business in China I have the honor to inform you that I have instructed the American Embassies at Paris and London to inform the French and British Governments that the Department will accept as an interpretation of the bankers' agreement of May 12th the following slightly modified form of the formula submitted by the French Government:

"The Governments of each of the four participating groups undertake to give their complete support to their respective national groups members of the consortium in all operations undertaken pursuant to the resolutions and agreements of the 11th and 12th of May, 1919, respectively, entered into by the bankers at Paris. In the event of competition in the obtaining of any specific loan contract the collective support of the diplomatic representatives in Peking of the four Governments will be assured to the consortium for the purpose of obtaining such contract."

You will note that the principal change is in pledging each Government to the support of its respective national group rather than to the consortium collectively. This proposed change makes the formula more in accord with the actual facts and with the established practice of this Government.

The American Ambassador at Tokio is being instructed to communicate the above to the Japanese Foreign Office.

Accept, Sir, the renewed assurances of my high consideration.

WILLIAM PHILLIPS.

Memorandum of the Department of State to the Japanese Embassy July 30, 1919.

MEMORANDUM.

The Government of the United States is informed that, at the bankers' conference held in Paris during May and June last to discuss matters relating to the new consortium for China, the Japanese financial delegates, acting under instructions from their principals, asserted that "all the rights and options held by Japan in the regions of Manchuria and Mongolia where Japan has special interests should be excluded from the arrangements for pooling provided for in the proposed agreement," because of "the very special relations which Japan enjoys geographically and historically with the regions referred to and which have been recognized by Great Britain, the United States, France and Russia on many occasions."

The Government of the United States is further informed that the position taken by the representative of the American Group, with the approval of the British and French financial representatives, was that so far as the banking groups were concerned, any attempt to exclude Mongolia and Manchuria from the scope of the consortium would be inadmissible; but that the whole question raised was one of such grave importance that it was felt to be beyond the immediate competence of the financial groups to discuss, and that he would, therefore, bring the matter to the attention of his Gov-

ernment.

The Imperial Japanese Government has not indicated that it shares the cpinion expressed by the Japanese bankers; but inasmuch as the question raised by the latter has been referred to this Government by the American representative, it is felt to be appropriate to bring the latter to the

notice of the Imperial Government.

It may be that the Japanese banking group is under a misapprehension as to the objects and purposes of the consortium, which are to make loans to the Central Government of China, or to the provincial governments, for administrative or industrial purposes and to include all such loans as have the guarantee of the Central Government or any of the provincial governments and which involve a public issue. They do not, however, contemplate the elimination of private enterprise or the activities of financial or industrial corporations, nor would it be the desire of the Government that they do so.

The Imperial Japanese Government will readily understand that the Government of United States could not consistently consent that the American bankers agree to the reservation proposed, for the reason that it is believed to be an essential prerequisite to the proper functioning of the consortium that all Chinese business of the classes proposed as appropriate for the activity of the consortium be available for it. Reservations of regions can only impair its usefulness as an instrument for good, and limitations on its activity can only detract from its utility as a means for promoting international co-operation among these most interested in China. Moreover, as all other parties to the arrangement have agreed to pool their rights and options without other reservation than that contained in the terms of the agreement itself, it is only equitable that the same rule should apply to all alike.

If the Government of Japan is unable to convince the Japanese bankers of the justness of adhering, without reservation, to the agreement as accepted by the bankers representing the groups of the United States. Great Britain and France, the Government of the United States will receive the information with keen disappointment and sincere regret; for it is felt that the relations established during the Great War between these and other nations have laid a basis upon which the work of peace might be erected by cordial co-operation and to their mutual advantage. The Government

of the United States believes that the consortium is one of those mediums for constructive work through which the helpful spirit of the relations which were so cemented during the war may be translated into co-operative action. That this view is not held alone by the Government of the United States is evidenced by the desire on the part of the British and the French Governments to co-operate in the consortium and by the requests for representation therein from the Government of Belgium, and from the bank of Russia, both of which are now under consideration. It is, therefore, the confident hope of this Government that the Imperial Japanese Government will also share this view, and will so inform the Japanese banking group.

ROBERT LANSING.

Department of State, Washington, July 30, 1919.

Memorandum of Earl Curzon of Kedleston to the Japanese Embassy.

MEMORANDUM.

On the 22nd of last month Earl Curzon of Kedleston had the honour to address to the Japanese Ambassador a note on the subject of the British participation in the International Consortium for providing loans to China. This note will have made it clear to Viscount Chinda that with the exception of the condition concerning exclusive official support to the British group—a point which has been satisfactorily settled by the adoption of the American formula defining the measures of support to be accorded by the Governments concerned to their respective national groups, His Majesty's Government have accepted in their entirety the original proposals of the American Government for the formation of the International Consortium as set out in a note addressed by Lord Curzon to the Japanese Chargé d'Affaires on March 22nd last. This scheme, as Viscount Chinda is doubtless aware, comprises the pooling by the groups of all their existing and future options in China, except such concessions as may already be in operation.

His Excellency has probably also had occasion to study the minutes of the inter-group meetings held in Paris on the 11th and 12th of May last, at which resolutions were unanimously adopted, subject of course to the approval of the Governments concerned, providing for the pooling by the groups of all their existing loans agreements and options involving a public issue and even pledging the groups to use their best endeavours to induce other parties who may possess or control any such agreements or options to surrender the same to the Consortium.

At the present moment the British, American, and French Governments have all informed their respective groups of their approval of these Minutes, subject always to the American definition of the measure of official support to be accorded to them, but so far as Lord Curzon is aware no such approval has as yet been intimated by the Japanese Government, with the result that the urgent work of organising the Consortium has been brought to a standstill.

His Majesty's Government have heard, with the utmost regret that the Japanese financial delegates in Paris, acting under instructions from their principals, have informed their colleagues that all the rights and options held by Japan in the regions of Manchuria and Mongolia, where Japan has special interests, should be excluded from the arrangements for pooling provided for in the proposed agreement because of the very special relations which Japan enjoys geographically and historically with the

regions referred to and which have been recognized by Great Britain, the United States, France and Russia on many occasions.

His Majesty's Government are further informed that the position taken by the British, American and French groups towards this claim of the Japanese group was that any attempt to exclude Manchuria and Mongolia from the scope of the Consortium would be inadmissible, but that the whole question raised was one of such grave importance that it was felt to be beyond the immediate competence of the Groups to discuss and must therefore be referred to the decision of the Governments.

In these circumstances His Majesty's Government feel justified in bringing the matter to the notice of the Japanese Government, as they hear has already been done by the American Government, and requesting them to direct the Japanese groups to modify their attitude on this all-important point.

One of the fundamental objects of the American proposals as accepted by the British, Japanese and French Governments, is to be eliminate special claims in particular spheres of interest and to throw open the whole of China without reserve to the combined activities of an International Consortium. This object cannot be achieved unless all the parties to the scheme agree to sacrifice all claim to enjoy any industrial preference within the boundaries of any political sphere of influence. Manchuria and Mongolia are important provinces of China and any attempt to exclude them from the scope of the Consortium would constitute a direct negation of the principle on which the Consortium is based, would provoke the revival of similar claims on the part of other nations and thus perpetuate the very difficulties which the Consortium is designed to obviate. over as all other parties to the arrangement, except the Japanese group, have agreed to pool their rights and options without other reservation than that contained in the terms of the agreement itself, it is only equitable that the same rule should apply to all alike.

His Majesty's Government have every reason to believe that the Japanese Government will share these views and will cause the Japanese group to withdraw their claim to the exclusion of Manchuria and Mongolia from the scope of the Consortium. Foreign Office, S. W. I.

August 11th, 1919.

MEMORANDUM OF THE JAPANESE EMBASSY AT WASHINGTON.

IMPERIAL JAPANESE EMBASSY WASHINGTON.

The Japanese Government accept and confirm the resolutions adopted at the meeting of the representatives of the bankers' groups of the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan at Paris on May 11 and 12, 1919. for the purpose of organizing an international consortium for financial business in China: Provided, however, that the acceptance and confirmation of the said resolutions shall not be held or construed to operate to the prejudice of the special rights and interests possessed by Japan in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.

К. Deвuchi,August 27, 1919.

State Department's Reply Dated October 28, 1919, to the Memorandum of the Japanese Embassy dated August 27.

MEMORANDUM.

The Government of the United States has received and carefully considered the memorandum dated August 27, 1919. in which the Imperial Japanese Embassy advised it that the Japanese Government accepted and confirmed the resolutions adopted at the meeting of representatives of the bankers' groups of the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan at Paris on May 11 and 12, 1919, for the purpose of organizing an international consortium for financial business in China, subject, however, to the following proviso:

"that the acceptance and confirmation of the said resolutions shall not be held or construed to operate to the prejudice of the special rights and interests possessed by Japan in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia."

This Government, after an earnest study of the proposal thus made, reluctantly finds itself unable to assent to the provise in reference to South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia: it can only regard the reservation in the form proposed as an intermixture of exclusive political pretensions in a project which all the other interested Governments and groups have treated in a liberal and self-denying spirit and with the purpose of eliminating so far as possible such disturbing and complicating political motives; and it considers that from the viewpoint, either of the legitimate national feeling of China or of the interests of the Powers in China it would be a calamity if the adoption of the consortium were to carry with it the recognition of a doctrine of spheres of interest more advanced and farreaching than was ever applied to Chinese territory even in the period when the break-up of the Empire appeared imminent.

It can only be assumed that in taking its present position the Japanese Government has misapprehended the purposes of the consortium and assumed that it is the intention of the other Governments to encroach upon the existing vested Japanese interests in the region indicated. That such is not the intention may be seen from the wording of the inter-group agreement of May 11th which in Article I specifies that only those industrial undertakings are to be pooled upon which substantial progress has not been This wording plainly excludes those enterprises which are already developed and thus constitute vested proprietary interests (such as the South Manchuria and Ssupingkai-Chengchiatun Railways, the Fushun collieries et cetera) and may fairly be interpreted to exclude likewise the existing options for the extension of railways already in operation (for instance the proposed continuation to Taonan of the Ssupingkai-Chengchiatum Railway and to Huining (Hoiryong) of the Kirin-Changchun Railway.) If Japan's reservation is urged with a view solely to the protection of existing rights and interests, it would seem that all legitimate interests would be conserved if only it were made indisputably clear that there is no intention on the part of the consortium to encroach on established industrial enterprises or to expect the pooling of existing Japanese options for the continuation thereof: and this Government feels that the Japanese Government should be amply content with the understanding that certain specific enterprises are exempt. This Government cannot accept a geographical reservation which could not but lend itself to implications which are foreign to the purposes of the consortium. But it is still hopeful that the Japanese

Government may find it possible to authorize its banking group to enter the proposed consortium with full assurance that no legitimate Japanese rights or interests would thereby be jeopardized.

ROBERT LANSING.

893.51/2405.

Department of State,

Washington, October 28, 1919.

Memorandum Handed to the Japanese Ambassador by Earl Curzon.

On the 1st September his Excellency the Japanese Ambassador communicated to Earl Curzon of Kedleston the following memorandum.

"The Japanese Government accept and confirm the resolutions adopted at the meeting of the representatives of the bankers' groups of the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan at Paris on the 11th and 12th May 1919, for the purpose of organizing an international consortium for financial business in China, provided, however, that the acceptance and confirmation of the said resolutions shall not be held or construed to operate to the prejudice of the special rights and interests possessed by Japan in Scuth Marchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia."

At a subsequent interview with Lord Curzon Viscount Chinda, in accordance with instructions received from his Government, defined what

was meant by South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.

His Majesty's Government have now, after the most careful consideration of the Japanese contention, been forced to the conclusion that they could not justifiably accept the claim for the exclusion of Southern Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia from the sphere of activity of the consortium if it were intended as a territorial claim.

As was pointed out to the Japanese Ambassador in the memorandum communicated to his Excellency on 11th August, the admission of such a claim to a monopoly of commercial interests in a large geographical area of China would be a direct infringement of the fundamental idea underlying the creation of the consortium, which was to abolish spheres of interest and throw open the whole of China to the activities of an international financial combination.

Lord Curzoń, however, cannot help thinking that the Japanese Government must be labouring under a misapprehension as to the scope and purpose of the consortium. It is not and never has been intended that under the guise of the consortium vested interests should be encroached upon. Article 1 of the inter-group agreement of the 11th May last specifically lays down that agreements and options relating to industrial undertakings (including railways), upon which substantial progress has been made, need not be pooled. Indeed, the sphere of the new consortium is definitely limited to the financing of future undertakings in China, and was never meant to extend to established industrial enterprises.

So far as Southern Manchuria is concerned, Lord Curzon recognizes that there are in that province important railway and other industrial enterprises which have been developed or are in course of development by Japanese enterprise and which are clearly not within the sphere of the consortium. Such is not, however, the case in Eastern Inner Mongolia, where, although options for railways have been granted to Japan. no work has yet been begun. Indeed, such a claim as it put forward by the Japanese Government in regard to Eastern Inner Mongolia, amounting to the reservation of an exclusive interest in a large area whose southern boundaries practically envelop Peking and encroach upon the province of Childi, can-

not be reconciled with the maintenance of the independence and territorial integrity of China which Japan has so often pledged herself to observe.

It is confidently hoped, therefore, that when the question is viewed in this light, the Japanese Government will see no objection to modify their present attitude as regards both South Manchuria and Inner Mongolia and will authorise the Japanese banking group to enter into the new consortium on the same basis as the other groups, that is, without any special reservations.

The Japanese Government will also, no doubt, recognize the urgent need of promptitude in dealing with the situation, in view of the disastrous situation on the verge of which China appears now to find herself. Foreign Office, November 20th, 1919.

Imperial Japanese Embassy Washington.

MEMORANDUM.

The Japanese Government have given their serious consideration to the Memorandum of the United States Government of the 28th of October last relating to the formation of a new Consortium.

The United States Government appears to be under the impression that the proposal of the Japanese Government in regard to South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia amounts either to exclusive political pretentions or to the establishment of a so-called sphere of interest.

The Japanese Government desire to set forth once again their views frankly on the main purpose of their proposal and to invite further consideration on the part of the United States Government on this subject.

From the nature of the case, the regions of South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia which are contiguous to Korea stand in very close and special relation to Japan's national defence and her economic existence. Enterprises launched forth in these regions, therefore, often involve questions vital to the safety of the country. This is why Japan has special interest in these regions and has established there special rights of various kinds.

The Japanese Government are under no misapprehension or misgiving as to the purpose of the organization of the Consortium, and are glad to co-operate under such an arrangement with the Powers concerned for the promotion of the general welfare in China. But, as is suggested in the proposed Consortium, merely out of business considerations, to throw open to the common activities the regions of South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia which vitally affect the economic existence and national defence of Japan, would be no safe way of providing for the national peace and security, and for this reason, it would hardly meet with the approval of public opinion in Japan. These considerations were fully set forth by Mr. Debuchi, the then Chargé d'Affaires of Japan, in his interview with the Third Assistant Secretary on the 27th of August last year.

Furthermore, the recent development of the Russian situation, exercising as it does an unwholesome influence upon the Far East, is a matter of grave concern to Japan. In fact, the conditions in Siberia, which have been developing with alarming precipitancy of late, are by no means far from giving rise to the most serious situation, which may at any time take a turn threatening the safety of Japan and the peace of the Far East, and ultimately place entire Eastern Asia at the mercy of the sinister activities of extremist forces. Having regard to these signals of the imminent character of the situation, the Japanese Government all the more keenly feel the need of adopting measures calculated to avert any such danger in the interest

of the Far East as of Japan. Now South Manchuria and Mongolia are the gate by which these direful influences may effect their penetration into

Japan and the Far East to the instant menace of their security.

The Japanese Government are convinced that having regard to the vitat interests which Japan, as distinct from the other Powers, has in the regions of South Manchuria and Mongolia, the United States Government will appreciate the circumstances which compelled the Japanese Government to make a special and legitimate reservation indispensable to the existence of the State and its people.

In short, the present proposal of the Japanese Government in regard to Manchuria and Mongolia is based, as already explained, on the paramount importance of the economic existence and national security of the country, coupled with a due regard for the general peace of the Far East,-considerations which have been strengthened by the recent development of the situation. Consequently the Japanese Government are prepared to co-operate with the financiers of the Powers concerned in Manchuria and Mongolia so long as the main purpose of their proposal as above enunciated remains respected. It would be needless to say that the proposal was prompted by no desire of making any territorial demarcation involving the idea of economic monopoly or of asserting any exclusive political pretensions or of affirming a doctrine of any far-reaching sphere of interest in disregard of the legitimate national aspirations of China, as well as of the interests possessed there by the Powers concerned. It is confidently hoped that the United States Government would submit these points to their serious consideration.

The Japanese Government are gratified that the United States Government acknowledges in its memorandum now under review the exclusion from the scope of the common activities of the new Consortium, not only those Japanese undertakings in Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia which are already developed and constitute vested proprietary interests, but also of the existing options in connection with railways already in operation (for instance the proposed continuation to Taonan of the Ssupingkai Chengchiatun Railway and to Huining of the Kirin-Changchun Railway) and makes it abundantly clear that Japan's legitimate rights and interests are in no case to be jeopardized. Having regard to the considerations of assuring the national security referred to above, it is expected that the principal instances of Japan's legitimate undertakings, as enumerated in the attached statement, will be excluded from the scope of the common activities of the new Consortium. The British Foreign Minister invited Viscount Chinda on the 19th of November last year, if there is any fear that any project launched under the aegis of the Consortium might threaten the strategic security of Japan, to guard against this danger by proposing a formula to meet the case. It is believed that the views of the British Government in this respect are shared by the United States Government.

Accordingly, the Japanese Government, while authorizing the Japanese bankers' group to enter the proposed Consortium on the same footing as the bankers' groups of the other Powers concerned, venture to propose to achieve the settlement of the matter at issue by exchanging between the Members concerned a note embodying the sense of the formula hereto attached.

FORMULA.

The Japanese Government accept and confirm the resolutions passed at the conference of the representatives of the banking groups of the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan which met in Paris on May 11th and 12th, 1919, for the purpose of organizing a new Consortium.

In matters, however, relating to loans affecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia which in their opinion are calculated to create a serious impediment to the security of the economic life and national defence of Japan, the Japanese Government reserve the right to take the necessary steps to guarantee such security.

Japanese Embassy, March 2, 1920.

Imperial Japanese Embassy Washington.

1.—The South Manchuria Railway and its branches, together with the mines which are subsidiary to the Railway, are unaffected by the scope of the common activities of the new Consortium.

2.—The construction of the Kirin-Changchun Railway, Hsinminfu-Mukden Railway and Ssupingkai-Chengchiatun Railway has been completed, and their operation has already been commenced. They fall therefore within the category of those enterprises which according to Article 2 of the proposed intergroup Agreement, have already made substantial progress, and are outside the scope of the common activities of the new Consortium.

3.—The Kirin-Huining Railway, the Chengchiatun-Taonanfu Railway, the Kaiyuan-Kirin Railway, the Taonanfu-Jehol Railway and the railway connecting a point on the Taonanfu-Jehol Railway with a seaport are branch or feeding lines of the South Manchuria Railway. Moreover, having regard to the fact that, as stated in the Memorandum dated March 2, these lines together with the South Manchuria Railway do not only bear a most important relation to the national defence of Japan, but also constitute a powerful factor in the maintenance of peace and order in the Far East; and also in view of the fact that, as an extension of the railways already in operation as set forth in the memorandum of the United States Government, these lines form the subject of legitimate rights of Japan, it is expected that they will be placed outside the scope of the common activities of the new Consortium. It is not unlikely, however, that in case of any loan being floated in future in connection with these railways, the European and American markets will be invited to subscribe to it.

Japanese Embassy, March 2, 1920.

State Department's Memorandum Dated March 16, 1920 to the Japanese Embassy in Reply to the Japanese Memorandum of March 2.

MEMORANDUM.

The Government of the United States has received and carefully considered the memorandum under date of March 2, 1920, in which the Japanese Ambassador set forth the views of his Government as to the formation of the proposed international Consortium for loans to China; and it is happy to record the hearty gratification with which it has noted the disavowa! by Japan of any claim to exclusive economic or political rights with respect to South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.

The American Government cannot but acknowledge, however, its grave disappointment that the formula proffered by the Japanese Government is in terms so exceedingly ambiguous and in character so irrevocable that it might be held to indicate a continued desire on the part of the Japanese Government to exclude the American, British and French banking groups

from participation in the development, for the benefit of China, of important parts of that Republic,—a construction which could not be reconciled with the principle of the independence and territorial integrity of China.

The Government of the United States is not unsympathetic with the professed objects of the principle embodied in the Japanese formula: it considers, on the other hand, first, that the right of national self preservation is one of universal acceptance in the relations between states, and therefore would not require specific formulation as to its application in any particular instance, and, second, that the recognition of that principle is implicit in the terms of the notes exchanged between Secretary Lansing and Viscount Ishii on November 2, 1917. This Government therefore considers that by reason of the particular relationships of understanding thus existing between the United States and Japan, and those which, it is understood, similarly exist between Japan and the other Powers proposed to be associated with it in the Consortium, there would appear to be no occasion to apprehend on the part of the Consortium any activities directed against the economic life or national defence of Japan. It is therefore felt that Japan could with entire assurance rely upon the good faith of the United States and of the other two Powers associated in the Consortium to refuse their countenance to any operation inimical to the vital interests of Japan; and that Japan's insistence that the other three Powers join with it in the proposed formula as a condition precedent would only create misapprehension. It is felt, moreover, that such a formula would not only be unnecessary, but would lend itself to misconstruction for the reason that it apparently differentiates between the status of South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia and that of other Chinese territory. The mere fact of differentiation would, it is apprehended, give rise to questions which would tend still further to unsettle the already complex situation in China. This Government is therefore hopeful that the Japanese Government may in view of its several existing relationships of understanding with the United States and the other two Powers be persuaded to rely upon their good faith in this matter and forego its proposal to require explicit guarantees, the mere statement of which opens the way for possible misconstruction and misapprehension in the future.

The Government of the United States has furthermore been happy to note the readiness of the Japanese Government to enumerate the specific vested interests of its nationals, in Manchuria and Mongolia, which it would propose to exclude from the scope of operations of the proposed Consortium; although it finds it difficult to believe that in order to meet the necessities of Japanese economic or political security it is essential for Japan alone to construct and control a railway line of such a character as the one projected from Taonanfu to Jehol and thence to the seacoast.

It is hoped that the discussions now in progress in Tokio between Mr. Lamont, on behalf of the American Group, and the representatives of the Japanese banking interests may result in such a complete understanding on the question of the specific enterprises in Manchuria and Mongolia, which it may be found mutually satisfactory to exclude from the operation of the Consortium, as would enable the Japanese Government to accord to that understanding its unqualified approval

In conclusion, the Government of the United States takes pleasure in the fact that the frank interchanges of views which have thus far taken place appear to have resulted in a basis of mutual understanding which justifies the belief that a speedy completion of the organization of the Conscrtium is now possible.

Department of State, Washington, March 16, 1920.

Memorandum left with Earl Curzon by the Japanese Ambassador, March 16th, 1920.

The Japanese Government have given their serious consideration to the British Government's note of the 19th November last relative to the formation of a new consortium. The British Government appear to be under the impression that the proposal of the Japanese Government in regard to South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia amounts either to the assertion of a monopoly of economic interests in that region or to the establishment of a so-called sphere of interest there, and further, that such a proposal cannot be reconciled with the principle of independence and territorial integrity of China.

The Japanese Government desire to set forth once again their views frankly on the purpose of their proposal and invite further consideration

on the part of the British Government on this subject.

From the nature of the case the regions of South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, which are contiguous to our territory of Korea, stand in very close and special relations to Japan's national defence and her economic existence. Enterprises launched forth in these regions, therefore, often involve interests vital to the safety of our country. This is why Japan has special interests in these regions and has established there special rights of various kinds. The Japanese Government are under no misapprehension or misgiving as to the purpose of the organization of the consortium, and are glad to co-operate under such an arrangement with the Powers concerned for the promotion of the general welfare of China. But, as is suggested in the proposed consortium merely out of business considerations, to throw open to the common activities of an international financial combination even those enterprises in the regions of South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia which vitally affect the economic existence and national defence of Japan would be no safe way of providing for the national peace and security, and for this reason it would hardly meet with the approval of the public opinion in Japan. These considerations were fully set forth by Viscount Chinda in his interview with Lord Curzon on the 1st September last year.

Furthermore, the development of the Russian situation, exercising as it does an unwholesome influence upon the Far East, is a matter of grave concern to Japan; in fact, the conditions in Siberia, which have been developing with such alarming precipitancy of late, are by no means far from giving rise to a most serious situation, which may at any time take a turn threatening the safety of Japan and the peace of the Far East and ultimately place the entire Eastern Asia at the mercy of the dangerous activities of extremist forces. Having regard to these signals of the imminent character of the situation, the Japanese Government all the more keenly feel the need of adopting measures calculated to avert any such danger in the interest of the Far East as well as of Japan. Now, South Manchuria and Mongolia are the gate by which this direful influence may effect its penetration into Japan and the Far East to the instant menace of their security. The Japanese Government are convinced that, having regard to the vital interests which Japan, as distinct from the other Powers, has in the regions of South Manchuria and Mongolia, the British Government will appreciate the circumstances which compelled the Japanese Government to make a special and legitimate reservation indispensable to the existence of the State

In short, the present proposal of the Japanese Government in regard to Manchuria and Mongolia is based, as already explained, on the paramount importance of the economic existence and national security of the country, coupled with a due regard for the general peace of the Far East, a considera-

tion which has been strengthened by the recent development of the situation. Consequently Japan is prepared to co-operate in Manchuria and Mongolia with the financiers of the Powers concerned so long as the main purpose of their proposal as above enunciated remains respected; nor need they say that their proposal was prompted by no desire of making any territorial demarcation involving the idea of economic monopoly or of affirming or pretending sphere of interests, or of acting in defiance of the principle of the independence and territorial integrity of China. It is confidently hoped that the British Government will take these points into their most serious consideration.

Lord Curzon invited Viscount Chinda—if there is any fear that any project launched under the aegis of the consortium might threaten the strategic security of Japan—te guard against this danger by proposing a formula to meet the case. It is a cause of gratification to know that the British Government thus share the apprehensions entertained by the Japanese Government. In view of the foregoing considerations, the Japanese Government, while authorising the Japanese bankers' group to enter the proposed Consortium, on the same footing as the bankers' groups of other Powers concerned, venture to propose to achieve the settlement to the question at issue by exchanging between the Governments concerned a note embodying the sense of the formula hereto attached.

FORMULA.

The Japanese Government accept and confirm the resolutions passed at the conference of the representatives of the banking groups of the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan which met at Paris on the 11th and 12th May, 1919, for the purpose of organizing a new consortium. In matters, however, relating to loans affecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, which in their opinion are calculated to create a serious impediment to the security of the economic life and national defence of Japan, the Japanese Government reserve the right to take the necessary steps to guarantee such security.

March 16th, 1920.

1.—The South Manchurian Railway and its branches, together with the mines which are subsidiary to the railway, are unaffected by the loans to be made. Hence they do not come within the scope of the common activities of the new consortium.

2.—The construction of the Kirin-Changchun Railway, Hsinminfu-Mukden Railway and Ssupingkai Chengchiatun Railway has been completed and their operation has already been commenced. They fall, therefore, within the category of these enterprises which according to article 2 of the proposed inter-group agreements, have already made substantial progress, and are outside the scope of the common activities of the new consortium.

3.—The Kirin-Huining Railway, the Chengchiatun-Taonanfu-Railway, the Changchun-Taonanfu Railway, the Kaiyuan-Kirin Railway, and the Taonanfu-Jehol Railway and the railway connecting a point on the Taonanfu-Jehol Railway with a seaport are branch or feeding lines of the South Manchurian Railway. Moreover, having regard to the fact that, as set forth in the memorandum dated the 16th March, 1920, these lines, together with the South Manchurian Railway, not only bear the most important relation to the national defence of Japan, but also constitute a powerful factor in the maintenance of peace and order in the Far East, it is expected that they will be placed outside the scope of the common activities of the new consortium. Both the British and the American Governments have

already agreed to the exclusion of most of these lines. It is not unlikely, however, that in case of any loan being floated in future in connection with these railways the European and American markets will be invited to subscribe to it.

Earl Curzon to Viscount Chinda.

His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, having carefully studied the memorandum and formula communicated by his Excellency the Japanese Ambassador on the 16th March relative to the position of South Manchuria and East Inner Mongolia under the proposed

Consortium, has the honour to make the following observations:-

In the memorandum handed to Viscount Chinda on the 20th November last Lord Curzon clearly enunciated the objections felt by His Majesty's Government to the Japanese claim to exclude from the sphere of the Consortium a large geographical area of China, and he is now regretfully forced to the conclusion that little or no modification of this original attitude is to be found in the wording of the formula suggested. The phrase which runs:—

"In matters relating to loans affecting South Manchuria and East Inner Mongolia which in their opinion are calculated to create a serious impediment to the security of the economic life and national defence of Japan, the Japanese Government reserve the right to take the necessary steps to

guarantee such security."

is so ambiguous and general in character that it might be held to indicate on the part of the Japanese Government a continued desire to exclude the co-operation of the other three banking groups from participating in the development, for China's benefit, of important parts of the Chinese Republic and therefore creates the impression that the Japanese reservation cannot be reconciled with the principle of the independence and the realization of the integrity of China.

While His Majesty's Government clearly recognize the legitimate desire of the Japanese nation to be assured of the supplies of food and raw material necessary to her conomic life and her justifiable wish strategically to protect and maintain the Korean frontier, they find it impossible to believe that, in order to meet such needs, it is essential for Japan alone to construct and control, for instance the three railway lines mentioned in the third reservation lying to the west of the South Manchurian Railway.

In order, however, to meet as far as possible the wishes of the Japanese Government and at the same time to avoid the mention of specific areas, which rightly or wrongly might give rise to the impression that a special sphere of interests was being officially recognized. His Majesty's Government would be prepared to subscribe to a written assurance to the effect that the Japanese Government need have no reason to apprehened that the Consortium would direct any activities affecting the security of the economic life and national defence of Japan and that the Japanese Government can firmly rely on the good faith of the Powers concerned to refuse to countenance any operations inimical to such interests.

Foreign Office, March 19th, 1920.

Imperial Japanese Embassy Washington.

The Japanese Government have received the Memorandum of the United States Government dated March 16th, 1920, giving frank expression to its views again upon the proposal of Japan relative to the organization

of a new Consortium for loans to China, and have taken it into their care ful consideration.

The Japanese Government are happy to express the hearty gratification with which they have noted that the United States Government is fully appreciative of and even sympathetic with the principle embodied in the formula proposed by the Japanese Government. The United States Government however is inclined to think that the terms and character of the formula may be taken to indicate a continued desire on the part of Japan to exclude the other Powers from participation in the development of important parts of China, and that it is likely to create unnecessary misapprehension. The Memorandum adds that the United States Government is therefore hopeful that the Japanese Government will withdraw their proposal for the explicit guarantee embodied in the formula in ques-The Japanese Government, while acknowledging that this suggestion of the United States is offered in the most friendly spirit, would like to state that they made the proposal now under review only because they felt it useful and important to do so in order to make clear the particular position which Japan occupies through the facts of territorial propinquity and of her special vested rights.

They never thought of any possibility of the formula giving rise to any such misapprehension or misconstruction as is pointed out by the United States Government. They are glad, however, to note that it is not so much to the principle of their proposal as to its form that the United States Government takes exception. Assurance is given in the Memorandum of the United States Government that the right of national self-preservation, which forms the basis of the guarantee required by Japan in order to assure the security of her national defence and the economic existence of her people, is not only one of universal acceptance but one of which the recognition is implied in the terms of the notes exchanged between Secretary Lansing and Viscount Ishii, so that the new Consortium would in no case embark upon any activities directed against the national defence and the economic existence of Japan and so that the Powers associated in the Consortium would refuse their countenance to any enterprise inimical to the vital interests of Japan. Accordingly, after deliberate consideration, the Japanese Government relying upon that assurance of the United States, have come to the decision to accept most willingly the suggestion of the United States Government and to forego their request for the acceptance of the proposed formula on the part of the other interested Powers, on condition that these Powers agree to the above understanding as formulated by the United States Government.

As to the railway and other enterprises which Japan naturally expects will be excluded from the scope of the common activities of the new Conscrtium, the United States Government expresses a doubt as to whether it is essential for Japan alone to construct and control such a railway as the Taonanfu-Jehol line. This railway, together with the line connecting a point thereon with a seaport, was projected with the strategic object of making it a means of common defence on the part of China and Japan against foreign invasion coming from the direction of Urga, quite apart from the further object of facilitating development of the districts through It is, therefore a matter of great regret and which these lines run. surprise to the Japanese Government that there exists the misunderstanding that these railways will eventually prove a menace to Peking. It is confidently hoped that Japan's position in this connection may be fully appreciated by the United States Government. The Japanese Government. mindful as they are of the common interests of the Powers, have no objection to a scheme of making these two railways a joint enterprise of the new Consortium, but having regard to the particular relation in which

Japan stands to these railways, it is hoped that the United States Government will lend their full support to the following two propositions.

(1) In the event of the new Consortium projecting in future a scheme of extending the Taonanfu-Jehol railway to the north with a view to connection with the Chinese Eastern Railway, the assent of the Japanese Government thereto must be obtained beforehand through the Japanese group, inasmuch as such an extension being tantamount to a renewal of the so-called Chinchou-Aigun railway scheme against which a protest was lodged by Japan when the question was mooted some years ago, is calculated to have a serious effect upon the South Manchuria Railway.

(2) In consideration of the particular desire of Japan that these two lines should be built as speedily as possible, the Japanese group, after due consultation with the other groups, may be permitted to undertake their construction single-handed in the event of the other three Powers associated in the new Consortium being reluctant to finance it. In that case, having regard to the fact that these railways must cross the Peking-Mukden railway at a certain point, the American group will give their support to the overture which the Japanese financiers will make to their British colleagues with a view to perfecting the junction of these lines.

As regards concrete questions as to which of the options that Japan possesses at present in Manchuria and Mongolia in respect to railways, is to be excluded, in accordance with the understanding reached between the Governments of the United States and Japan, from the scope of the common activities of the new Consortium, the Japanese Government entirely shares the view of the United States Government that a settlement satisfactory to both parties will be arrived at through the discussion now in progress in Tokio between Mr. Lamont and the representatives of the Japanese banking group. In this belief, the representatives of the Japanese banking group are authorized to proceed with the discussion with Mr. Lamont with the object of arriving at a settlement of questions of this nature.

Japanese Embassy,

Washington, April 3, 1920.

Memorandum left with Sir Eyre Crowe by the Japanese Ambassador April 14, 1920.

The Japanese Government have received the memorandum of the British Government dated the 19th March 1920, giving frank expression of their views again upon the proposal of Japan relative to the organization of a new consortium for loans to China and have taken it into their careful consideration.

The Japanese Government are happy to express the hearty gratification with which they have noted that the British Government are fully appreciative of Japan's legitimate aspirations in the direction of safeguarding her national defence and the economic existence of her people, a principle embodied in the formula proposed by the Japanese Government, and that they have given assurances of performing all that is in their power to meet the wishes of the Japanese Government. The British Government, however, are inclined to think that the terms and character of the formula may be taken to suggest a continued desire on the part of Japan to exclude the other Powers from participation in the development of important parts of China, and it is likely to create the impression that Japan's reservations, as indicated by the terms of the formula, are incompatible with the principle of the independence and

territorial integrity of China. Moreover as it is apprehended that the indication of territorial demarcation may give rise to the impression of official recognition being accorded to the principle of special interests, the British Government are hopeful that any expressions of this nature may be avoided. The Japanese Government, while acknowledging that this suggestion of the British Government is offered in the most friendly spirit, would like to state that they made the proposal now under review only because they felt it useful and important to do so in order to make clear the particular position which Japan occupies through facts of territorial propinquity and of her special vested interests. They never thought of any possibility of the formula giving rise to any such misapprehension or misconstruction as is pointed out by the British Government. They are glad however, to note that it is not so much to the principle of their proposal as to its form that the British Government takes exception.

Accordingly, after deliberate consideration, the Japanese Government, relying upon the promise of the British Government to give them a written assurance to the effect that they fully recognise the fundamental principle of safeguarding the integrity of the national defence and the economic existence of Japan as proposed by Japan, so that the Japanese Government have no occasion to apprehend that the new consortium would embark upon any activities affecting the national defence and the economic existence of Japan and so that the powers concerned would refuse their countenance to any enterprise inimical to such Japanese interests, have come to the decision to accept most willingly the suggestion of the British Government and to forego their demand for the acceptance of the proposed formula on the part of the other interested Powers on the condition that these Powers agree to the above understanding as formulat-

ed by the British Government

As to the railway and other enterprises which Japan naturally expects will be excluded from the scope of the common activities of the new consortium, the British Government express a doubt as to whether it is essential for Japan alone to construct and control the three railway lines running west of the South Manchuria Railway. The Taonanfu-Jehol Railway, and the lines connecting a point thereon with a seaport, were projected with the strategic object of making it a means of common defence on the part of China and Japan against foreign invasion coming from the direction of Urga, quite apart from the further object of facilitating development of the districts through which these lines run. It is therefore a matter of great regret and surprise to the Japanese Government that there exists the misundertanding that these railways will eventually prove a menace to Peking. It is confidently hoped that Japan's position in this connection may be fully appreciated by the British Govern-The Japanese Government, mindful as they are of the common interests of the Powers, have no objection to a scheme of making these two railways a joint enterprise of the new Consortium, but, having regard to the particular relation in which Japan stands to these railways, it is hoped that the British Government wll lend their full support to the following two propositions:-

of extending the Taonanfu-Jehol Railway to the north with a view to connection with the Chinese Eastern Railway, the assent of the Japanese Government thereto must be obtained beforehand, through the Japanese Group, inasmuch as such an extension—being tantamount to a renewal of the socalled Chinchou-Aigun Railway scheme, against which a protest was lodged by Japan when the question was mooted some years ago—is calculated to have a serious effect on the South

Manchurian Railway.

2. In consideration of the particular desire of Japan that these two lines should be built as speedily as possible, the Japanese group, after due consultation with the other groups, may be permitted to undertake their construction single handed in the event of the other three Powers associated in the new consortium being reluctant to finance it. In that case, having regard to the fact that these railways must cross the Peking Mukden Railway at a certain point, the British Government will use their best endeavours towards bringing a happy conclusion to the negotiations which the Japanese financiers may enter upon with their British colleagues with a view to perfecting the junction of these lines.

As regards concrete questions as to which of the options that Japan possesses at present in Manchuria and Mongolia in respect of railways is to be excluded, in accordance with the understanding reached between the Governments of Great Britain and Japan, from the scope of common activities of the new consortium, it is believed that a satisfactory settlement will be reached through the discussions now proceeding in Tokio, with the cognizance of the American and Japanese Governments, between Mr. Lamont, who besides being representative of the American group, is understood to have certain definite understandings on the subject with both the British and the French groups, and the representative of the Japanese Banking group. The Japanese Government will therefore authorize the Japanese group to proceed with the discussion with Mr. Lamont for the purpose of arriving at a conclusive settlement of questions of this nature.

Japanese Embassy, London, April 14th, 1920.

Earl Curzon to Viscount Chinda, April 28, 1920.

His Majesty's Government have received the further memorandum of the Imperial Japanese Government of the 14th April, and after having given it their careful consideration, have the honour to reply as follows:

His Majesty's Government are much gratified to learn that the Japanese Government are prepared to accept the written assurance to which Lord Curzon declared his willingness to subscribe in his note to Viscount Chinda of the 16th March, and that provided the other Powers agree to give a similar assurance, the Imperial Government are willing to forego the request which they had made in their note of the 16th March that the Powers interested should accept the formula, the wording of which had appeared somewhat ambiguous in character.

As regards the two propositions mentioned in the Japanese Government's memorandum under reply, His Majesty's Government much regret that the Imperial Government should have raised these questions at a moment when it was hoped that the four Powers interested were about to reach an agreement on the basis of a Compromise which Mr. Lamont, the representative of the American Banking group, appeared to have reached in Tokio with the representatives of the Japanese group. His Majesty's Government fear that if the discussion of these propositions is insisted upon it will merely delay matters, and in the interests of all parties concerned, they sincerely trust the Imperial Government will be willing to withdraw them and to be satisfied with the general assurance to which His Majesty's Government have already offered to subscribe, and which the Imperial Government have just expressed their willingness to accept.

In order to meet the wishes of the Imperial Government. His Majesty's

Government are prepared to agree to the terms of the compromises proposed by Mr. Lamont in Tokio and to waive the objections which they had at one time offered to the exclusion from the consortium of the two projected railway lines from Taonanfu to Changchun and from Taonanfu to Chengchiatun.

As regards proposition (1), Japan practically asks for a right to veto construction by the consortium, of a line from Taonanfu to join the Chinese Eastern Railway, on the grounds that such an extension would be tantamount to a renewal of the socalled Chinchou-Aigun Railway scheme, against which Japan had lodged a protest some years ago.

His Majesty's Government have no wish to do anything which would conflict with the vital interests of their ally, and the assurance to which they have declared their willingness to subscribe would appear fully to safeguard Japan's interest. It appears to His Majesty's Government that with the establishment of the consortium a new era is about to dawn in which conditions have changed, and it is now proposed that the Powers should work together in harmonious and friendly co-operation rather than in competition, and granting to any one party to the consortium the power to veto in advance the possible construction of the railway would appear to be contrary to the principles upon which the idea of a consortium is based.

In the opinion of His Majesty's Government, the contingency anticipated in proposition (2) would appear to be already provided for in Article 4 of the Inter-Group Conference in Paris of the 12th of May 1919 of

which His Majesty's Government have expressed their approval.

His Majesty's Government sincerely trust that the Imperial Government will recognize the friendly spirit in which these observations are made, and that they will now agree to cooperate with the other three Powers along the lines of the proposed compromise. They note with gratification that the Japanese Government is prepared to authorize the Japanese group to proceed with the discussion with Mr. Lamont for the purpose of reaching a settlement. They trust that the Imperial Government will now see their way to give this authorization without the suggested reservations. in order that the final arrangements between the groups may be completed whilst Mr. Lamont is still in Peking, and the necessary exchange of letters between the representatives of the Japanese and American groups effected with the least possible delay.

Foreign Office, April 28th, 1920.

State Department's reply dated April 29, 1920 to the Memorandum from the Japanese Embassy of April 3, 1920.

MEMORANDUM.

The American Government has received the further memorandum of the Imperial Japanese Government of April 3rd and after having given it careful consideration has the honour to reply as follows:

The American Government is much gratified to learn that the Japanese Government is prepared to accept most willingly the suggestion of the American Government to forego its request for the acceptance of the pro-

posed formula which it had made in its note of March 2nd.

As regards the two propositions mentioned in the Japanese Government's memorandum under acknowledgment the American Government much regrets that the Imperial Government should have raised these questions at a moment when it was hoped that the four Powers interested were about to reach an agreement on the basis of compromise which Mr. Lamont, the representative of the American banking group, appeared to

have reached in Tokic with the representatives of the Japanese Group. The American Government fears that if the discussion of these propositions is insisted upon it will merely delay matters and in the interests of all parties concerned it sincerely trusts that the Imperial Japanese Government will be willing to withdraw them and to be satisfied with the general assurance to which the American Government has already offered to subscribe and which the Imperial Japanese Government has just expressed its readiness to accept.

In order to meet the wishes of Japan the American Government is prepared to agree to the terms of the compromise proposed by Mr. Lamont

in Tokio.

As regards proposition one, Japan practically asks for a right to veto the construction by the consortium of a line from Taonanfu to join the Chinese Eastern Railway on the grounds that such an extension would be tantamount to a renewal of the so-called Chinchou-Aigun Railway scheme against which Japan had lodged a protest some years ago. The Government of the United States has no wish to do anything which would conflict with the vital interests of Japan and the assurance to which it has declared its willingness to subscribe would appear fully to safeguard Japan's interests. It appears to the American Government that, with respect to the establishment of the consortium, a new era is about to dawn in which conditions have changed and it is now proposed that the Powers should work together in harmonious and friendly co-operation rather than in competition and the granting to any one party to the consortium of the power to veto the possible construction of a railway would appear to be contrary to the principles upon which the idea of the consortium is based.

In the opinion of the American Government the contingency anticipated in proposition two would appear to be already provided for in Article IV of the Intergroup Agreement at Paris on May 12th, paragraph 19, of which the American Government has expressed its approval. The American Government sincerely trusts that the Imperial Japanese Government will recognize the friendly spirit in which these observations are made and that it will now agree to co-operate with the other three Powers along the lines of the proposed compromise. It notes with gratification that the Japanese Government is prepared to authorize the Japanese Group to proceed with the discussion with Mr. Lamont for the purpose of reaching a settlement. It expresses the hope that the Japanese Government will now see its way to give this authorization without the suggested reservations in order that the final arrangements between the groups may be concluded while Mr. Lamont is still in Peking and the necessary exchange of letters between the representatives of the Japanese and American Groups effected with the least possible delay.

Department of State, Washington, April 29, 1920

Imperial Japanese Embassy Washington.

MEMORANDUM.

The Japanese Government received on May 3rd the memorandum of the American Government dated April 29th in reply to their memorandum of April 3rd last, and have carefully examined it.

The Japanese-Government are happy to note that the American Government is much gratified with the readiness of the Japanese Government to forego, in reliance upon the assurances given in the memorandum of the American Government dated March 16th last, their request for the ac-

ceptance of the proposed formula, and that the American Government has lent emphasis to the assurance to which it had already subscribed.

As regards the two points made by the Japanese Government relating to the Taonanfu-Jehol railway and the line connecting a point thereon with a seaport, the American Government seems to think that they constitute new propositions and expresses regret that these questions should have been raised at a moment when it was hoped that the four Powers concerned were

about to reach an agreement.

In particular the American Government appears to be of opinion that the point (1) namely Japan's desire in regard to the extension of the Taonanfu-Jehol railway, is tantamount to a claim for an exclusive power of veto and is therefore contrary to the fundamental principles upon which the idea of the New Consortium is based. The Japanese Government, in making the point in question, were prompted by no desire of putting forward any new condition or demand. It was simply in order to avoid future misunderstanding that the point was raised as one of the actual examples of enterprises prejudicial to Japan's vital interests which formed the subject matter of the general assurances given by the American Government. The Japanese Government feel confident that as the question involved in this case comes within the scope of the general assurances, the Governments of the Powers interested in the Consortium will, in the spirit of mutual trust and friendliness, readily appreciate Japan's point of view. to the point (2) the Japanese Government have raised it merely in order to set forth the circumstances in which they feel the need of assistance and co-operation of the Powers concerned in the actual construction of the Taonanfu-Jehol railway and the line connecting a point thereon with a seaport.

In thus giving frank expression to their hope, the Japanese Government were inspired by no other desire than to make an appeal to the spirit of gen-

eral co-operation which forms the foundation of the Consortium.

The Japanese Government, holding as they do the views as above enunciated, have no intention whatever of insisting upon obtaining the explicit assurances or consent of the American Government in regard to the two points above referred to. Their idea is simply to bring the Powers concerned to an understanding of their interpretation in these respects. Relying, however, upon the friendly spirit in which the American Government was good enough to reaffirm the fact that the general assurances to which it has already offered to subscribe are adequate enough to safeguard the interests of Japan, the Japanese Government would refrain from further insisting on the discussion of these points, and, in order to facilitate the formation of the New Consortium with the least possible delay, they would be satisfied at this juncture with bringing to the knowledge of the American Government their interpretation of these questions and will be prepared to lend their support to the conclusion of an arrangement between the banking groups concerned and to give it the necessary confirmation.

Japanese Embassy, May 8, 1920.

State Department's reply to the Note of the Japanese Embassy dated May 8, 1920.

The Government of the United States has been pleased to receive the Imperial Japanese Government's memorandum of May 8, 1920, in reply to that of the Government of the United States dated the 29th of the preceding month, and is deeply gratified to observe therefrom that the Imperial

Japanese Government has no intention of insisting upon the explicit assurance or consent of the Government of the United States in regard to the two points raised by the Imperial Japanese Government with reference to the Taonanfu-Jehol Railway and the line connecting a point thereon with a seaport. The Government of the United States also takes note with sincere pleasure that the Imperial Japanese Government is prepared to lend its support to the conclusion of the arrangement between the banking groups concerned, and to give the arrangement the necessary confirmation upon the same terms as the Governments of the United States, Great Britain, and France have already done without conditions or provisos.

It is most gratifying to the Government of the United States that the underlying principles and policies of the new International Consortium are now so fully understood and agreed upon that the representatives of the banking groups may proceed to its formation and the consideration of the working details of its operation. The Government of the United States again can assure the Imperial Japanese Government that its sole aim in ah the negotiations just completed has been to bring about an arrangement which would insure entire co-operation on the part of the interested governments on a basis which would be to their mutual advantage and for the lasting benefit of China. The Government of the United States looks forward with keen anticipation to the friendly co-operation under the Consortium arrangement, with entire confidence that such practical joint endeavour is the beginning of a new era of good will and accomplishment for both Governments.

Department of State, Washington, May 8, 1920.

Memorandum Communicated by Japanese Embassy to British Foreign Office May 11th, 1920.

The Japanese Government have received the memorandum of the British Government, dated April 28th, in reply to their memorandum of the 14th

April last, and have carefully examined it.

The Japanese Government are happy to note that the British Government are much gratified with the readiness of the Japanese Government to forego, in reliance upon the assurances given in the memorandum of the British Government, dated the 19th March last, their request for the acceptance of the proposed formula, and that the British Government have lent emphasis to the assurance to which they had already subscribed.

The Japanese Government are glad to learn further that the British Government are prepared to waive the objection which they had at one time offered to the exclusion from the consortium of the two projected railway lines from Taonanfu to Chang-chun and from Taonanfu to Chengchiatun.

As regards the points made by the Japanese Government relating to the Taonanfu-Jehol Railway and the line connecting a point thereon with a seaport, the British Government seem to think that they constitute new propositions, and express regret that these questions should have been raised at a moment when it was hoped that the four Powers concerned were about to reach an arrangement.

In particular, the British Government appear to be of opinion that the point (1), namely, Japan's desire in regard to the extension of the Taonan-fu-Jehol Railway, is tantamount to a claim for an exclusive power in veto. and is therefore contrary to the fundamental principles upon which the idea of the new consortium is based. The Japanese Government, in making the point in question, were prompted by no desire of putting forward any

new condition or demand. It was simply in order to avoid further misunderstanding that the point was raised as one of the actual examples of enterprises prejudicial to Japan's vital interest which formed the subject matter of the general assurances given by the British Government. The Japanese Government feel confident that, as the question involved in this case comes within the scope of the general assurances, the Governments of the Powers interested in the consortium will, in the spirit of mutual trust and friendliness, readily appreciate Japan's point of view. As to the point (2) the Japanese Government have raised it merely in order to set forth the circumstances in which they feel the need of the assistance and co-operation of the Powers in the actual construction of the Taonanfu-Jehol Railway and the lines connecting a point thereon with a seaport.

In thus giving a frank expression to their hope, the Japanese Government were inspired by no other desire than to make an appeal to the spirit of general co-operation which forms the foundation of the consortium.

The Japanese Government, holding as they do the views as above enunciated have no intention whatever of insisting upon obtaining the explicit assurances of consent of the British Government in regard to the two points above referred to. Their idea is simply to bring the Powers concerned to an understanding of their interpretation in these respects. Relying, however, upon the friendly spirit in which the British Government were good enough to reaffirm the fact that the general assurances to which they have already offered to subscribe are adequate enough to safeguard the interests of Japan, the Japanese Government would refrain from further insisting upon the discussion of these points and, in order to facilitate the formation of the new consortium with the least possible delay, they would be satisfied at this juncture with bringing to the knowledge of the British Government their interpretation of these questions, and will be prepared to lend their support to the conclusion of an arrangement between the banking groups concerned and to give it the necessary confirmation.

Japanese Embassy, London, May 16th, 1920.

Letter to Mr. Thomas W. Lamont from Mr. Nakaji Kajiwara dated May 11th, 1920.

Tokio, Japan, May 11th, 1920.

Mr. Thomas W. Lamont,

J. P. Morgan & Co., the Representative of the American Group.

You will recall that upon the organization of the Consortium at Paris, on May 11 and 12, last, the representatives of the Japanese, American, British and French Banking Groups attached their signatures to the resolutions and Agreement subject to the approval of their respective Governments. You will further recall that, upon the instructions of the Japanese Government, our Banking Groups addressed you a letter dated 18th June last as regards the conditions of accepting the New Consortium agreement.

We have now the honour to inform you that certain points in the Agreement and in the operations of the proposed Consortium, hitherto somewhat obscure, having been cleared up to the satisfaction of our Government and of ourselves, we are now able in accordance with the instructions of the Japanese Government to withdraw our letter dated 18th June last and announce that, conjointly with the American, British and French Banking

Groups and on like terms with them, we will accept the Consortium agreement. We beg at the same time to express our hearty concurrence with the general ideas and objects of the Consortium in respect to China.

Very truly yours,

(Signed) NAKAJI KAJIWARA,
The President of the Yokohama Specie Bank.

For and on behalf of the Japanese Group.

Letter to Mr. Kajiwara from Mr. Thomas W. Lamont dated May, 11, 1920.

Tokio, Japan, May 11 1920.

N. Kajiwara, Esquire, Tokio, Japan,

Dear Sir :

We beg to acknowledge with thanks, the receipt of your communication of May 11th. 1920, informing us, in behalf of the Japanese Banking Group that, under the instructions of your Government, you have now withdrawn your letter dated June 18th, 1919, and have adopted, in association with the Banking Groups of America, Great Britain and France and on like terms with them, the agreement for the establishment of a New Consortium in respect to China.

We are happy to note that certain points that had hitherto been somewhat obscure to your Group and to your Government have now been made plain, and we trust with you that the way is clear for the Consortium to undertake operations .

Inasmuch as some questions have arisen during our discussions as to the status of specific railway enterprises contemplated or actually begun in Manchuria and Mongolia, we hereby confirm that we have agreed with you as follows:

(1) that the South Manchurian Railway and its present branches, together with the mines which are subsidiary to the railway, do not come within the scope of the Consortium;

(2) that the projected Taonanfu-Jehol Railway and the projected railway connecting a point on the Taonanfu-Jehol Railway with a seaport are to be included within the terms of the Consortium Agreement;

(3) that the Kirin-Huining, the Chengchiatun-Taonanfu, the Changchun-Taonanfu, the Kaiyuan-Kirin (via Hailung), the Kirin-Changchun, the Hsinminfu-Mukden and the Ssupingkai-Chengchiatun Railways are outside the scope of the joint activities of the consortium.

The foregoing letter of acknowledgment, although written in behalf of the American Banking Group, has, we are assured, the cordial approval of the British and French Banking Groups, also of the Governments of the United States, of Great Britain and of France.

Pray be good enough to present our regards to your colleagues in the Japanese Banking Group and our best wishes for the success of the joint Four-power Undertaking.

Very truly yours,

(Signed) THOMAS W. LAMONT, For and in behalf of the American Group.

Memorandum Communicated to Japanese Embassy, by British Foreign Office, May 17th, 1920.

His Majesty's Government have the honour to acknowledge the memorandum which the Japanese Ambassador handed to His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs on the 10th instant.

His Majesty's Government are much gratified to learn that the Imperial Japanese Government in recording in point (1) of their memorandum of the 14th April Japan's view in regard to the extension of the Taonanfu-Jehol Railway, were prompted by no desire to put forward any new condition or demand, and they are glad to note that their ally is satisfied that His Majesty's Government have no wish to do anything which would conflict with their vital interests. As regards point (2) His Majesty's Government are happy to note that it was merely raised in order to set forth the circumstances in which the Imperial Government felt the need of the assistance and co-operation of the Powers concerned in the actual construction of the railway from Taonanfu to Jehol and thence to the sea. They appreciate the fact that in thus giving a frank expression to their hope, the Japanese Government were inspired by no other desire than to make an appeal to the spirit of general co-operation which forms the foundation of the consortium, and which it is hoped will at all times inspire its operations, and that they do not ask for explicit assurances in regard to the two points referred to above.

His Majesty's Government are happy on their part to reaffirm the general assurance to which they declared their willingness to subscribe in the memorandum which Lord Curzon sent to Viscount Chinda on the 19th March, to the effect that the Japanese Government need have no reason to apprehend that the consortium would direct any activities, affecting the security of the economic life and national defence of Japan, and that the Japanese Government can firmly rely on the good faith of the Powers concerned to refuse to countenance any operations inimical to such interests.

His Majesty's Government gladly note that the Imperial Government rely on the friendly spirit in which they have offered to renew their assurance, and they are most gratified to find that in view of the complete understanding now effected between the Governments concerned in regard to the principles upon which the consortium will operate, the Japanese Government are prepared to lend their support to the conclusion of an arrangement between the banking groups and to give it the necessary confirmation.

In conclusion, His Majesty's Government would express the hope that the Japanese group will immediately receive the required authorization, in order that the consortium, which promises such great and enduring benefits to all the countries concerned, may be established and set in motion with the least possible delay.

Foreign Office, May 17th, 1920.

French Government to Japanese Embassy, May 25th, 1920. COPY.

L'Ambassade impériale du Japon à Paris a bien voulu le 10 de ce mois communiquer au Ministère des Affaires Etrangères une note remise au Départment d'Etat à Washington par l'Ambassade du Japon d'où il résulte que le Gouvernement de Tokio, prenant acte des assurances contenues dans la note du Département d'Etat en date du 16 Mars dernier et jugeant inutile dans ces conditions l'insertion des clauses spéciales visant la ligne Taonanfu-Jehol et son embranchement vers la mer, se déclare prêt à accorder son appui à la conclusion entre les groupes financiers intéressés de l'arrangement reconstitutant le Consortium financier en Chine. Le Ministére des Affaires Etrangères a l'honneur de faire savoir à l'Ambassade du Japon qu'il s'associe volontiers aux assurances générales fournies par le Government américain. Il est heureux de pouvoir se féliciter avec elle de la conclusion d'un accord qui assure, pour le plus grand bien de la Chine, la collaboration amicale des Puissances intéressées.

NEW CONSORTIUM AGREEMENT.

The following is the full text of the new Consortium agreement signed on October 15, 1920.

The Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, having its office at 9 Gracechurch Street in the City of London (hereinafter called "the Hongkong Bank") of the first part,

The Banque de L'Indo-Chine having its office at 15 bis Rue Laffite,

Paris (hereinafter called "the French Bank") of the second part,

The Yokohama Specie Bank Limited having its office at Yokohama in Japan (hereinafter called "the Japanese Bank") of the third part, and,

Messrs J. P. Morgan & Co., Messrs Kuhn Loeb & Co., the National City Bank of New York, the Guaranty Trust Company of New York, Messrs Lee, Higginson & Co. of Boston and the Continental and Commercial Trust and Savings Bank of Chicago (hereinafter called "the American Managers") acting as to the United Kingdom by Messrs Morgan, Grenfell and Co., of 22 Old Broad Street in the City of London and as to France by Messrs Morgan Marjes & Co. of Paris of the fourth part.

Whereas the Hongkong Bank, the French Bank, the Japanese Bank and the American Managers are acting for the purposes of this Agreement as the representatives of the British, French, Japanese and American Groups

respectively.

And whereas the British, French, Japanese and American Groups were formed with the object of negotiating and carrying out Chinese loan business.

And whereas their respective Governments have undertaken to give their complete support to their respective national groups the parties hereto in all operations undertaken pursuant to the agreement hereinafter contained and have further undertaken that in the event of competition in the obtaining of any specific loan contract the collective support of the diplomatic representatives in Peking of the four Governments will be assured to the parties hereto for the purpose of obtaining such contract.

And whereas the said national groups are of the opinion that the interests of the Chinese people can in existing circumstance best be served by the co-operative action of the various banking groups representing the investment interests of their respective countries in procuring for the Chinese Government the capital necessary for a programme of economic re-

construction and improved communications,

And whereas with these objects in view the respective national groups are prepared to participate on equal terms in such undertakings as may be calculated to assist China in the establishment of her great public utilities and to these ends of welcome the co-operation of Chinese capital.

Now it is hereby agreed by and between the parties hereto as follows:—
1.—Each Group reserves to itself the right of increasing or reducing the number of its own members but so that any member of a group dropping out shall remain bound by the restrictive provisions hereof and any

member of a group coming in shall become subject to the restrictive provisions hereof and so that no group shall (without the consent of the others) be entitled to admit into its group a new member who is not of its nationality and domiciled in its market. The admission of any new group shall be determined by the parties hereto subject to the approval of their respective Governments

2.—This agreement relates to existing and future loan agreements which involve the issue for subscription by the public of loans to the Chinese Government or to Chinese Government Departments or to Provinces of China or to companies or corporations owned or controlled by or on behalf of the Chinese Government or any Chinese Provincial Government or to any party if the transaction in question is guaranteed by the Chinese Government or Chinese Provincial Government but does not relate to agreements for loans to be floated in China. Existing agreements relating to industrial undertakings upon which it can be shown that substantial progress has been made may be omitted from the scope of this agreement.

3.—The existing agreements and any future loan agreements to which this agreement relates and any business arising out of such agreements respectively shall be dealt with by the said groups in accordance with the

previsions of this agreement.

4.—This agreement is made on the principle of complete equality in every respect between the parties hereto and each of the parties hereto shall take an equal share in all operations and sign all contracts and shall bear an equal share of all charges in connexion with any business (except stamp duties and any charges of and in connexion with the realization by the parties hereto in their respective markets of their shares in the operations) and the parties herete shall conclude all contracts with equal rights and obligations as between themselves and each party shall have the same rights privileges prerogatives advantages responsibilities and obligations of every sort and kind. Accordingly preliminary advances on account of or in connexion with business to which this agreement relates shall be borne by each of the parties hereto in equal shares and each of the parties hereto shall be entitled to participate equally in the existing agreements and will offer to the other parties hereto an equal participation with itself in any future loan business falling within the scope of this agreement. Should one or more of the parties hereto decline a participation in the existing agreements or any of them or in any such future loan business as aforesaid the party or parties accepting a participation therein shall be free to undertake the same but shall issue on its or their markets only.

5.—All contracts shall so far as possible be made so as not to impose joint liability on the parties hereto but each of the parties hereto shall severally liquidate its own engagements or liabilities. The parties hereto will so far as possible come to an understanding with regard to the realization of the operations but so that such realization in whatever manner this may take place shall be for the separate benefit of each of the parties hereto as regards their respective participations therein and so that each of the parties hereto shall be entitled to realize its participation in the operations only in its own market it being understood that the issues in the respective markets

are to be made at substantial parity.

6.—Any one or more of the parties hereto who shall have accepted its or their participation in any business hereunder shall be entitled by notice in writing to call upon the other or others of the parties hereto who propose to issue their own respective participations to issue for the account of the party or parties giving such notice or notices either all or one-half of the amount which may constitute the participation of the party or parties, giving such notice or notices and the party or parties so called upon shall issue the said amount or amounts (hereinafter called "the Residuary Participations").

tion") specified in such notice or notices upon and subject to the terms and conditions following, viz:—

- (1) Such notice or notices must be received by the other or others of the parties hereto before the execution of the final agreement for the issue of the loan or (in the case of an issue of a part only of the loan) of so much thereof as the parties hereto may from time to time agree to issue.
- (2) The party or parties to whom such notice or notices shall have been given shall be entitled to decide among themselves and without reference to the party or parties giving such notice or notices as to which one or more of them shall issue the Residuary Participation but in default of any such decision they shall issue the same equally between them.
- (5) In issuing the Residuary Participation no distinction shall be made between the Residuary Participation and the amount or amounts issued on its or their own account by the party or parties issuing the Residuary Participation which shall in all respects be subject to the conditions of the respective Syndicates which may be formed for the purpose of effecting the issue.

(4) Each of the parties issuing the Residuary Participation shall be entitled to decide for itself and without reference to the party or parties giving such notice or notices as to what expenses shall be incurred in relation to the issue of the total amount issued by such party.

(5) The party or parties issuing the Residuary Participation shall be entitled between them to charge the party or parties giving such notice or notices with a commission or not exceeding 1½ per cent. on the nominal amount of the Residuary Participation and also with a pro rata share of the expenses which the issuing party or parties may in their sole discretion incur in relation to the whole issue and being in the proportion which the Residuary Participation bears to the total nominal amount of the issue.

(6) The party or parties issuing the Residuary Participation shall not by virtue of this Agreement incur any responsibility to subscribe for the Residuary Participation or to cause the same to be subscribed.

- (7) Each party issuing the Residuary Participation shall apply all subscriptions received by it pro rata between the Residuary Participation issued by it and the amount issued by such party on its own account.
- (8) Each of the parties issuing the Residuary Participation will apply for and use its best endeavours to obtain a quotation on its market for the total amount issued by it.
- (9) No issue of the Residuary Participation or any part thereof shall be made by the party or parties giving such notice or notices unless mutually agreed by the parties hereto.

7.—No participation shall be given by any one of the parties hereto outside its own market. Any participation given in its own market by any one of the parties hereto shall be for its own market only or in the event of the issue including any of the Residuary Participation for the accounts pro rata of the issuing Bank and the party or parties giving such participation, the party giving the same shall use its best endeavours to secure that no part of such participation shall be transferred to parties outside the market of the party giving the same. Any other participation shall be given only with the consent of all parties hereto and shall be borne in equal shares by the parties hereto.

8.—This agreement shall remain in force for the period of five years from the date hereof provided nevertheless that a majority of the parties hereto may by twelve months' previous notice in writing addressed to the other parties hereto determine this agreement at any time.

In witness whereof the duly authorized representatives of the respective parties hereto have set their hands the day and year first above writ-

ten.

For the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation. On behalf of the British Group:

C. S. ADDIS.

For the Banque de L'Indo-Chine. On behalf of the French Group:

TH. DE LA CHAUME.

For the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd. On behalf of the Japanese Group:

K. TAKEUCHI.

For and on behalf of the American Group:

J. P. Morgan & Co. Kuhn, Loeb & Co.

The National City Bank of New York

by J. A. STILLMAN.

President.

The Guaranty Trust Company of New York

by J. R. Swan.
Vice-President.

Continental & Commercial Trust & Savings Bank, Chicago.

by John Jay Abbott,

Vice-President.

Chase National Bank, New York City

by A. H. Wiggin, Chairman.

LEE, HIGGINSON & Co.

THE CONSORTIUM

THE AMERICAN GROUP.

Office: 23 Wall St., New York.

Managing Committee:

J. P. Morgan & Co., New York; Kuhn. Loeb & Co., New York; The National City Bank of New York; Guaranty Trust Company of New York; The Chase National Bank, New York; Lee, Higginson & Co., New York; Continental and Commercial Trust and Savings Bank, Chicago.

Other Members:

New York: National Bank of Commerce; Bankers Trust Company; Central Union Trust Company; The Equitable Trust Company; Harris, Forbes & Company; Brown Brothers & Company; Halsey, Stuart & Company.

Boston: Kidder, Peabody & Company; The First National Bank; The National Shawmut Bank.

Chicago: First Trust and Savings Bank; Illinois Trust & Savings Bank; The Northern Trust Co.; Harris Trust and Savings Bank.

Philadelphia: Commercial Trust Co.; Girard Trust Co.

Pittsburgh: Mellon National Bank; The Union Trust Company.

St. Louis: Mercantile Trust Co.; Mississippi Valley Trust Co.; St. Louis Union Trust Co.

New Orleans: Whitney Central National Bank.

San Francisco: Anglo & London Paris National Bank; The Bank of California, N.A.; Wells Fargo Nevada National Bank.

Los Angeles: Security Trust and Savings Bank; The First National Bank.

Portland: Ladd & Tilton Bank; The First National Bank.

Seattle: The Seattle National Bank.

BRITISH GROUP.

Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation; Messrs Baring Bros & Co., Ltd.; London County Westminster and Parr's Bank. Ltd.; Messrs J. Henry Schröder & Co.; The Chartered Bank of India Australia and China; Messrs N. M. Rothschild & Sons; The British Trade Corporation.

FRENCH GROUP.

Banque de l'Indo-Chine; Banque de Paris et des Pays-Bas; Banque de l'Union Parisienne; Banque Française pour le Commerce et l'Industrie; Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris; Crédit Industriel et Commercial; Crédit Lyonnais; Crédit Mobilier Français; Société Générale.

JAPANESE GROUP.

First Bank, Ltd.; One Hundredth Bank, Ltd.; Yasuda Bank, Ltd.; Bank of Taiwan, Ltd.; Yamaguchi Bank, Ltd.; Third Bank, Ltd.; Mitsui Bank, Ltd.; Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd.; Bank of Chosen, Ltd.; Sumitomo Bank, Ltd.; Kajima Bank, Ltd.; Fifteenth Bank, Ltd.; Mitsubishi Bank, Ltd.; Industrial Bank of Japan, Ltd.; Thirty-fourth Bank, Ltd.; Kenoike Bank, Ltd., Ohmi Bank, Ltd.

CHAPTER XVI.

PUBLIC JUSTICE.

Old and New Laws.

The judicial administration of China is in a state of transition. Many new laws modelled more or less after Western, particularly Japanese, jurisprudence have been passed under the Republic, but the old laws, except in so far as they have been abrogated or modified by recent legislation, remain the law of the land. While it is true that owing to local conditions not all of these new laws have been uniformly applied throughout the country, it cannot be denied that they constitute a marked advance along the path of legal reform. Among these laws the following may be specially mentioned:—

CRIMINAL LAW.

Provisional Criminal Code.* Promulgated on March 10, 1912. Amended on December 24, 1914.

Law relating to Morphia. Promulgated on April 11, 1914. Amended

on December 31, 1920.

Law relating to Offences against the Government Salt Monopoly. Promulgated on December 22, 1914.

Law relating to Offences against the Credit of Government Bonds. Pro-

mulgated on November 29, 1914.

Law governing Military Criminal Cases.+ Promulgated on April 16, 1918.

Law governing Naval Criminal Cases.+ Promulgated on May 21, 1918.

COMMERCIAL LAW.

Law governing Traders. Promulgated on March 2, 1914.

Law concerning Commercial Associations.‡ Promulgated on January 13, 1914. Amended on September 21, 1914.

Law governing Registration of Commercial Associations. Promulgated

on July 19, 1914.

Regulations governing Commercial Arbitration Courts.‡ Promulgated on January 28, 1913.

NATURALIZATION LAW.

Law of Nationality and Naturalization. Promulgated on November 18, 1912. Amended on December 30, 1914.

MINING LAW.

Law relating to Mining. Promulgated on March 11, 1914. Amended on March 31, 1914 and on August 18, 1916.

Law relating to Registration of Mining Enterprises. Promulgated on May 3, 1914.

^{*}English translation published by the Ministry of Justice, will be found at the end of this Chapter.

[†] English translation in The Chinese Social and Political Science Review, vol. III. No. 2. June, 1918.

[‡] English translation published by the Ministry of Justice.

COPYRIGHT LAW.

Law relating to Copyrights. Promulgated on November 7, 1915.

Law relating to Registration of Copyrights. Promulgated on February 1, 1916.

COURTS AND PROCEDURE.

Law of the Organization of the Judiciary. †* Promulgated on February 7, 1910.

Provisional Regulations of the High Courts and the Lower Courts. †*
Promulgated on the 29th day of the 12th month, 1907. Amended on October 2, 1915 and on December 3, 1915.

Provisional Regulations concerning Jurisdiction in Civil and Criminal

Cases. Promulgated on April 7, 1912.

Provisional Regulations concerning Withdrawal of Judges from the Trial of Cases. Promulgated on April 18, 1919.

Provisional Law relating to Summary Procedure in Criminal Cases.

Promulgated on October 28, 1920. In force since January 1, 1921.

Provisional Law relating to Sentence by Penal Order. Promulgated on

October 28, 1920. In force since January 1, 1921.

Provisional Law relating to Summary Procedure in Civil Cases. Promulgated on November 18, 1920. In force since January 1, 1921.

PRISONS.

Rules for the Government and Administration of Prisons. Promulgated on December 1, 1913.

Provisional Regulations for Detention Houses.‡ Promulgated on January

28, 1913

Provisional Regulations concerning Conditional Release. Promulgated on December 7, 1920.

PRIVATE INTERNATIONAL LAW.

Law concerning the Application of Foreign Laws.++ Promulgated on August 5, 1918.

LEGISLATION CONCERNING CASES TO WHICH ALIENS ARE PARTIES.

Law relating to Procedure in the Trial of Cases to which Aliens are Parties. Promulgated on March 6, 1913.

Regulations governing Jurisdiction over Aliens of Non-treaty Countries.**

Promulgated on June 22, 1919

Law concerning Criminal Cases to which Aliens of non-Treaty Countries are Parties. Promulgated on May 23, 1919. Amended on October 30, 1919 so as to apply to aliens not subject to foreign consular jurisdiction in China.

CODIFICATION.

That China is sincere in her attempt to bring her legal system as far as possible into accord with the laws and practices of other lands is evidenced by the work of the Law Codification Commission, in collaboration with the Ministry of Justice. That Commission has been sitting uninterruptedly since 1914. It has been twice re-organized by additions to its staff from the Supreme Court and from among other members of the

^{*} English and French translations published by the Ministry of Justice.

[‡] English translation published by the Ministry of Justice.

[†] French translation with commentary by G. Padoux in La Politique de Pékin, 1920. For English translation see Annex 1. to Chapter on "the Russian Problem in China."

^{**} English translation by Huang Tzon-fah in the Chin. Soc. and Pol. Sci. Review, vol. V. No. 2 June, 1919.

judiciary. The chairmanship has been held by Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, and Mr. Tung Kang, Minister of Justice, and is now held by Mr. Chiang Yung, Ex-Minister of Justice. The main work of the Commission is the investigation of local customs and usages, and the revision of the draft codes prepared towards the end of the Manchu régime, viz. the criminal, civil, commercial, and procedural (civil and criminal) codes. An intensive study of this subject is being made with the assistance of Japanese and French experts, and the work is necessarily slow. The Commission has just announced the final drafting, after several revisions, of the Criminal Code,* the Criminal Procedure and Civil Procedure Codes. These will, it is understood, be promulgated in the early part of this year.

WAR LEGISLATION.

China's entry into the war necessitated the promulgation of new laws and the creation of special courts to meet the changed situation. Detailed regulations were passed concerning the protection of German subjects in China, the disposal of public and private enemy property convertible to military uses, the taking over of the German and Austrian concessions in the various treaty ports, and the trial of enemy subjects in civil and criminal cases.

The attitude of China in regard to the status of enemy subjects to-day is, that the treaties between China and the belligerent Powers having been ipso facto abrogated by the declaration of war, they are on an equal footing with the nationals of those countries which have no treaty relations with

China, and hence are subject to Chinese law and jurisdiction.

A Prize Law entitled "Regulations governing Capture at Sea" was enacted on October 30th, 1917 and a Local Prize Court in Shanghai and a High Prize Court in Peking were established. Enemy ships which had been lying idle since 1914 in Chinese ports were, upon China's declaration of war, seized by authority of the Government, and the judgments of the Local Prize Court condemning these ships were, on appeal, confirmed by the High Prize Court on the ground that the Sixth Hague Convention of 1907 conferring immunity on certain classes of merchant ships did not protect the ships in question, because the object of the Convention, as set forth in the preamble, is "to ensure the security of international commerce against the surprises of war and, in accordance with modern practice, to protect as far as possible operations undertaken in good faith and in process of being carried out before the outbreak of hostilities;" that the ships having ceased to be engaged in trade and having taken refuge in Chinese ports in order to escapt capture by the belligerents were not merchant ships bona fide engaged in trade; and that they could not therefore be privileged under the said Convention.

LEGISLATION CONCERNING RUSSIANS.

A Presidential Mandate of September 23rd, 1920, which suspended the exercise of functions by the Russian diplomatic and consular officers in China until such time as a united government shall have been established in Russia, has created new conditions in Sino-Russian relations, particularly as regards Russian consular jurisdiction in China. As a modus vivendi the Chinese Government has created a separate judicial district in the Far Eastern Railway zone, in which special District Courts and a special High Court have been established for the trial of cases to which Russians are parties. Russian jurists have been attached to these courts in the capacity

^{*}The second revised draft of this Code was published in English in 1919, and in French with a short historical introduction in 1920. The official translation appears at the end of this Chapter.

of counsellors or legal investigators. Russian lawyers are allowed to plead in the Courts. The privilege of pleading in Chinese courts has been recently extended to the nationals of all non-treaty Powers. Questions arising from the presence of Russians in other parts of China are now under consideration by a special Commission for the Study of Judicial Affairs, created jointly by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Justice.

COURTS.

Under the old system practically every provincial official, except those having territorial jurisdiction, exercised judicial as well as administrative functions. This, to a large extent, accounts for the hopeless inefficiency and maladministration of the law courts. Bribery and torture were the rule rather than the exception, and it was difficult, if not impossible, to obtain justice. The cruelties practised in the yamens, and the inhumane methods of punishment employed in the prisons, forced the Treaty Powers to claim exterritorial rights over their own nationals. The new system in force since 1910 provides for officials with purely judicial powers. These officials have for the most part had a regular course of legal training in foreign countries.

There were originally four grades of courts, which were subsequently

reduced to three.*

District Courts (Ti Fung Shen Pan Ting) in each Fu (Prefecture), which deal with ordinary civil and criminal cases, as well as appeals from trials of first instance. The bench consists of three judges for appeals, and of from one to three, but generally one, for cases of first instance.

(2) High Courts (Kao Teng Shen Pan Ting) in each Provincial capital,

which decide civil and criminal cases, and also appeals from the District

Courts. The Bench consists of from three to five Judges.

The Supreme Court (Ta Li Yuan) at Peking, which is the highest Court of Appeal for the whole of China. It is divided into four civil and two criminal divisions, each of which is presided over by a bench of five Judges. Over 4,000 cases were decided by this court last year.

There are procuratorates of corresponding rank attached to each of these Courts. It is the duty of the procurators to prosecute offences and

to represent the State in certain specified civil cases.

A table of the number of courts in each province appears on page 367. Primary election petitions are heard by the District Courts, and final

election petitions by the High Courts.

It is not intended, for the present, to establish trial by jury, although there were one or two jury trials in Shanghai in the early days of the Republic. Criminal and civil cases which in other countries would be tried with juries, are heard by a bench of from three to five Judges.

The prerogative of pardon and reprieve, formerly exercised by the Emperor, is now vested in the President. He exercises this power upon

application by the Ministry of Justice.

No legal reform can be made practicable by the mere promulgation of laws There must be a body of men who are competent to interpret and apply the laws. In order to provide an efficient judiciary, the Ministry of Justice a few year ago established in Peking a College for the Training of Judicial Officers. The faculty consists of members of the courts and some foreign instructors. The curriculum is a two years' course in practical court work. No one is admitted as a student unless he holds a diploma from a Chinese or foreign law school of recognized standing. Those who

^{*} The Courts of First Instance (Chu Chi Shen Pan Ting) were abolished in 1914. Cases of first instance are new tried by the District Courts, and by the magistrates where there are no District Courts.

graduate from the College are assigned to the District Courts as prospective officers.

Prisons.

Prison reform has engaged the attention of the Government since 1906 when Mr. Tai Hung-tzu, who had been studying Constitutional government in Europe, centralised the prison administration of the country in one supreme authority, by constituting a prison department in the Ministry of Justice. China's interest in penology was further intensified by her participation in the International Prisons Conference in Washington D.C. in 1910. The first modern prison was opened in Peking in 1912, and a number of similar institutions have since been established in the provinces. It is through lack of funds rather than from inertia that a complete system of modern prisons does not exist throughout the Republic.

The management of these modern prisons is stated to be quite satisfactory. The work assigned to convicts is of such nature as will better qualify them for earning their livelihood than when they were sentenced to imprisonment. A list of these modern prisons will be found on pp. 368-9.

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Kie. Paris, 1920.

LAW COURTS.

	Supreme Court	High Courts	Branch High Courts	District Courts	Branch District Courts	Special Courts	Total of Courts established
Chihli	1	2	1	4			8
Fengtien		1		10			11
Kirin		1		4	1		6
Heilungkiang		1		2			3
Shantung		1		2			3
Honan		1	1	2			4
Shansi		1	2	1			4
Kiangsu		1	1	2			4
Anhui		1	1	2			4
Kiangsi		1	1	2			4
Fukien		1		2			3
Chekiang		1	2	4			7
Hupeh		1	2	2			5
Hunan		1	1	2			4
Shensi		1	1	1			3
Kansu		1	2	1			4
Szechuan		1	4	2	3		10
Kwangtung		1		2			3
Kwangsi		1	1	2			4
Yunnan		1		1			2
Kweichow		1		3			4
Manchuria		1		1	7		9
Special Administrative							
Districts						13	13
					To	otal	122

Total 122

LIST OF MODERN PRISONS.

CITY NAME OF PRISON Peking First Prison
// Peking Second Prison Johsien King Hsiu First Prison King Hsiu Second Prison King Hsiu Second Prison Chihli First Prison Paotingfu Paoting Divisional Prison
Mukden Fengtien First Prison Liaoyang Fengtien Second Prison Tehliang Fengtien Third Prison Newchwang Fengtien Fifth Prison Changtufu Fengtien Fifth Prison Chinhsicn
Kirin Kirin First Prison Changchun Kirin Second Prison Harbin Kirin Third Prison
Tsinan Shantung First Prison Chefoo Shantung Second Prison Tsining Shantung Third Prison Yitu Shantung Fourth Prison
Taiyuan Shansi First Prison Yuancheng Shansi Second Prison Tatung Shansi Third Prison Taiku Shansi Fourth Prison
Nanking Shanghai Kiangsu First Prison Shanghai Kiangsu Third Prison Kiangsu Third Divisional Prison

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LIST

	-					STREET, STREET
Anhui · · ·	1	Hweining Wuhu	Anhui First Prison Anhui Second Prison	1916 1918	500	61
Kiangsi		Nanchang	Kiangsi First Prison	1913	300	1
Chekiang	٠	Hangchow	Chekiang First Prison	1914	009	1
Fukien		Foochow	Fukien First Prison	1913	200	1
Hupeh		Wuchang Yichang	Hupeh First Prison Hupeh First Divisional Prison Hupeh Second Prison	1913 1913 1913	600 300 200	1.0
Shensi	•	Changan Nancheng Yilin Ankang Fenghsiang Chienhsien	Shensi First Prison Shensi Second Prison Shensi Third Prison Shensi Fourth Prison Shensi Fifth Prison Shensi Sixth Prison	1915 1917 1917 1917 1917	500 200 200 200 200 200	9
Kansu	2	Kaofan Wuyi	Kansu First Prison Kansu Second Prison	1915 1919	200	22
Kweichow	r	Kweiyang Chinyuan	Kweichow First Prison Kweichow Second Prison	1914	500	63
Kwangsi		Kweilin	Kwangsi First Prison	1913	700	1
Special Administrative Districts	ive	Jehol ",	Chengteh Prison Chifeng Prison	1914	300	61
		A DESCRIPTION OF THE PROPERTY	A THE PARTY OF THE	Management of the Control of the Con		

EXTRATERRITORIALITY.

The principle of exterritoriality, by which foreigners are subject to the jurisdiction of officials of their own nationality, has been accepted by China from the earliest days of intercourse with the outside world. Thus the Treaty between Russia and China, signed in 1689, stipulated (Article II) that the subjects of either nation guilty of breaches of the frontier should be handed over to their respective officials for punishment. In the Treaty signed October 21, 1727, Article X read: "Ceux qui passe la frontière et qui volent des chameaux ou d'autre bétail seront remis à leurs juges naturels," but from October 18, 1768, this Article was superseded by a more explicit arrangement, in which appeared the words: "Subjects of the Middle Kingdom (China) who shall have committed acts of brigandage shall be handed over, without distinction of persons, to the tribunal governing the outer provinces, to be punished with death; and subjects of the Oros (Russians) shall be handed over to the senate, to undergo the same penalty."

The Treaty of Nanking between Great Britain and China made no specific mention of exterritoriality, but provided (Article II) for the appointment of Consular officers to reside at the five open ports, "to be the medium of communication between the Chinese authorities and the said merchants, and to see that the just duties and other dues of the Chinese Government are duly discharged by Her Britannic Majesty's subjects." General Regulations for the British trade at the five open ports were drafted in July, 1843, and No. 13 enacted that provision was to be made for the punishment of English and Chinese criminals according to the laws of their respective countries and at the hands of their respective officials. By the Treaty of Tientsin, 1858, this Regulation was amended, and the subject was dealt with in Articles XV, XVI, and XVII. Article XV read "All questions in regard to rights, whether of property or person, arising between British subjects, shall be subject to the jurisdiction of the British authorities." Article XVI read: "Chinese subjects who may be guilty of any criminal act towards British subjects shall be arrested and punished by the Chinese authorities, according to the laws of China. British subjects who may commit any crime in China shall be tried and punished by the Consul, or other public functionary authorized thereto, according to the laws of Great Britain."

In 1844, however, the principle of exterritoriality was clearly laid down in the Treaty between the United States and China in the wording subsequently followed in the Treaty of Tientsin above quoted, and a similar clause has since been inserted in the treaties of other Powers.

The principle was more elaborately worded in the Supplementary Treaty between the United States and China, signed at Peking, November 17, 1880. Article 1V of this Treaty reads:—

"When controversies arise in the Chinese Empire between citizens of the United States and subjects of His Imperial Majesty, which need to be examined and decided by the public officers of the two nations, it is

agreed between the Governments of the United States and China that such cases shall be tried by the proper official of the nationality of the defendant. The properly authorized official of the plaintiff's nationality shall be freely permitted to attend the trial, and shall be treated with the courtesy due to his position. He shall be granted all proper facilities for watching the proceedings in the interests of justice..........If he so desires, he shall have the right to present, to examine and to cross-examine witnesses. If he is dissatisfied with the proceedings he shall be permitted to protest against them in detail. The law administered will be the law of the nationality of the officer trying the case."

The principles set forth in the above clauses form the basis of the procedure in vogue at the Mixed Courts in China. The Mixed Court at Shanghai, however, had already been established, its rules of procedure having been promulgated by the British Consul of that port on April 20, 1869.

Treaty Powers.

The countries that have treaty rights in China are Belgium, Brazil, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, Peru, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden and the United States.

Sweden agreed in her Commercial Treaty with China, signed in 1908 (Art. X) to relinquish Consular jurisdiction "as soon as all other Powers

have agreed to relinquish their extraterritorial rights."

Bolivia has agreed, in an exchange of Notes, that the "most favoured nation" clause in Art. II of the Treaty of 1919 does not imply that Bolivia is entitled to extraterritorial rights in China.

Persia also, in a Treaty concluded with China in 1920, agreed, in Art. IV that "in all civil and criminal cases to which Persian subjects are

parties, they shall be subject to Chinese law and jurisdiction."

Germany and Austria-Hungary lost their extraterritorial rights when China declared War upon the Central Powers in 1917, and citizens of these

States are now subject to Chinese jurisdiction.

It is unlikely that China will concede extraterritorial rights in any future Treaties, and there has been a tendency of late to resist the claims of Consuls of Treaty Powers to enforce them in respect of subjects of non-Treaty States who are registered as protegés.

British Jurisdiction.

Great Britain and the United States have established in China separate Courts outside Consular jurisdiction. His Majesty's Supreme Court for China was established by Order in Council, 1865. By Order in Council,

dated October 24, 1904, it is enacted :-

Article 17 .- The Supreme Court shall ordinarily sit at Shanghai; but may, if it seems expedient, sit at any other place within the limits of this Order, and may at any time transfer its ordinary sittings to any such place as the Secretary of State approves. Under this Article the Judges may sit at the same time at different places, and each sitting shall be deemed to be a sitting of the Supreme Court.

Article 18.—The Judge, or, under his direction, an Assistant Judge may visit, in a magisterial or judicial capacity, any place in China..... and there inquire of, or hear and determine, any case, civil or criminal and may examine any records or other documents in any Provincial Court,

and give directions as to the keeping thereof.

Article 19.—Every commissioned Consular officer, with the exception of those at Shanghai and with such other exceptions (if any) as the Secretary of State thinks fit to make, shall for and in his Consular district, hold and form a Court, in this Order referred to as a Provincial Court.

Article 21. - All His Majesty's jurisdiction, civil and criminal, including any jurisdiction by this Order conferred expressly on a Provincial Court, shall for and within the district of the Consulate of Shanghai be vested exclusively in the Supreme Court as its ordinary original jurisdiction.

Article 22.—All His Majesty's jurisdiction, civil and criminal, not under this Order vested exclusively in the Supreme Court, shall to the extent and in the manner provided by this Order be vested in the Provincial Courts.

Article 23.—The Supreme Court shall have in all matters, civil and criminal, an original jurisdiction, concurrent with the jurisdiction of the several Provincial Courts, to be exercised subject and according to the provisions of this Order.

Article 24.--The Registrar of the Supreme Court shall, subject to any directions of the Judge, hold preliminary examinations, and shall hear and determine such criminal cases in that Court as are not, under this Order,

required to be heard and determined on a charge.

The British Supreme Court now has limited jurisdiction in Divorce.*

His Majesty's High Court of Weihaiwei was established by Order in Council, July 24, 1901.

American Jurisdiction.

The United States Court for China was established by Act of Congress, June 30, 1906, and the first term began on January 2, 1907. All judgments of U. S. Consular Courts in China are subject to review by this Tribunal, from which appeal lies to the Court of Appeals at San Francisco.

Extradition.

Limited provisions for extradition have been inserted in the treaties made by the Powers with China, and more specific clauses deal with extradition as between China and Burma, Hongkong, Indo-China and Siberia. But China is without extradition treaties and extradition laws such as apply in other large countries.

By the Order in Council of October 24, 1904, the Fugitive Offenders Act, 1881, and the Colonial Prisoners Removal Act, 1884, are made to apply to China, "as if those places were a British possession and part of

His Majesty's dominions."

THE PROVISIONAL CRIMINAL CODE OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA.

Translated by The Law Codification Commission, Published by
The Ministry of Justice.

Part I.

GENERAL PROVISIONS.

CHAPTER I.

RULES OF APPLICATION.

Article 1. This Code shall apply to any offence committed after its promulgation. †

This Code shall also apply to any offence committed before its promulgation, provided that the case has not been subjected to a final judgment;

^{*}An Order in Council dated November 9, 1920, repealed the words "except the jurisdiction relative to dissolution, or nullity, or jactitation of marriage" in the Principal Order of 1904. Rules of Court issued on May 7, 1921 set forth the procedure in Divorce and Matrimonial Causes.

^{**} The date of promulgation is 10th March, 1912; as to its enforcement see Presidential Order 8th June, 1912.

this provision shall not apply where the act has not been specifically made punishable under any law in force at the time it was done.

Article 2. This Code shall apply to any person soever who commits

any offence within the territory of the Republic.

This Code shall also apply to any offence committed on any ship flying the flag of the Republic beyond the territorial limits of the Republic.

Article 3. This Code shall apply to any offence within the following Articles committed by any person soever beyond the territorial limits of the Republic against the Republic;

- 1. (Repealed).
- 2. Articles 101 and 104.
- 3. Articles 108 and 110 to 112.
- 4. Article 125.
- 5. Articles 153 and 155.
- 6. Article 229 and section 1 of Article 231.
- 7. Articles 239, 241 and 242.
- 8. Article 403.

Article 4. This Code shall apply to any offence within the following Articles committed by a citizen of the Republic beyond the territorial limits of the Republic:—

- 1. Articles 118 to 124.
- 2. Articles 133 and 135.
- 3. Articles 140 and 142.
- 4. Articles 144 and 143.
- 5. Article 172.
- 6. Article 217.
- 7. Article 226.
- 8. Article 240, Section 1.

Article 5. This Code shall apply to any offence within the following Articles committed beyond the territorial limits of the Republic by a citizen of the Republic against any person or by an alien against a citizen of the Republic:—

- 1. Articles 181 to 183.
- 2. Articles 186 to 188, 192 and 193.
- 3. Articles 211 to 216.
- 4. Article 240, section 2; Articles 241 and 243 to 245.
- Articles 258 to 263.
- 6. Articles 283 to 287 and 291.
- 7. Articles 311 to 314 and 320 to 326.
- 8. Articles 334, 335 and 337, section 1.
- 9. Articles 339 and 340.
- 10. Articles 344 to 346.
- 11. Articles 349 to 353.
- 12. Articles 357 to 361.
- 13. Articles 367 to 377.
- 14. Articles 382 to 386
- 15. Articles 391 to 393.
- 16. Article 397.
- 17. Articles 404 and 405.

Article 6. An offender may be punished under the provisions of this Code notwithstanding that a final judgment has been passed thereon by a foreign tribunal. When the sentence of such foreign tribunal has been executed or remitted, the punishment as prescribed under this Code may be remitted or reduced.

Article 7. When either the act of an offence is committed, or its result takes effect, within the Republic or on board any ship flying the flag of

the Republic, such offence shall be deemed to have been committed within the Republic.

Article 8. The provisions of Articles 2, 3, 5 and 6 of this Code shall

not apply to cases governed by international usage.

Article 9. The general provisions of this Code shall apply to any penal law or ordinance, in the absence of any provisions to the contrary.

CHAPTER II.

GENERAL EXCEPTIONS.

Article 10. No act constitutes an offence unless the same is specifically made so by law.

Article 11. No act done by a person under twelve years of age constitutes an offence; such person may according to the nature and circumstances of the case be sent to a reformatory.

Article 12. No act done by an insane person constitutes an offence; such person may, on account of the nature and circumstances of the case,

be subjected to confinement.

The provision of the last preceding section shall not apply when the act was done either during lucid intervals or in a state of intoxication.

Article 13. No unintentional act constitutes an offence except where

negligence is specifically made punishable by law.

Ignorance of law does not render an act unintentional; but the prescribed punishment may, an account of the nature and circumstances of the case, be reduced by one or two degrees.

When the offence committed differs from the offence intended the offender

shall be punished as follows :--

1. When the offence committed is equal to or more serious than the offence intended, he shall be punished for the offence intended.

When the offence committed is less serious than the offence intended, he shall be punished for the offence actually committed.

Article 14. No act constitutes an offence which is done in accordance with any law or ordinance or in the carrying on of any lawful occupation,

or which is not contrary to public order or good morals.

Article 15. No act constitutes an offence which is done for the defence of the person or property of oneself or of another against an imminent unlawful attack; provided that where the means employed in the defence was in excess of what was necessary only the punishment prescribed may be reduced by one to three degrees.

Article 16. No act done out of necessity to avoid an imminent danger constitutes an offence unless the means employed caused a disproportionate injury, in which case only the punishment prescribed may be reduced by

one to three degrees.

The provisions of the last preceding section shall not apply to acts done by persons under special obligations by virtue of their public functions or private occupations.

CHAPTER III.

OF ATTEMPT.

Article 17. When any act is done in the commission of an offence but the consummation of such offence is prevented by unexpected circumstances such act constitutes an attempt. Impossibility of consummation does not prevent the act from being an attempt.

An attempt is punishable only in cases specifically provided for in Part

II of this Code.

The punishment for an attempt may be one or two degrees lower than that prescribed for the offence, when consummated.

Article 18. When any act is done in the commission of an offence and the offender of his own accord desists from the completion of the offence, such act shall be deemed to be an attempt, and the prescribed punishment may be remitted or reduced.

CHAPTER IV.

OF RECIDIVE.

Article 19. Whoever, after having served a sentence of imprisonment, commits an offence the punishment for which is not lighter than imprisonment, commits recidive and shall be liable to the punishment prescribed for the offence increased by one degree, except where the offence is committed five years after a period had been wholly served, or after the remission of a sentence of imprisonment for life or for a period partially served.

Article 20. Whoever is found guilty of recidive more than once shall be liable to the punishment prescribed for the offence he has committed increased by two degrees; and the provisions of the last preceding Article

shall nevertheless apply.

Article 21. When during the execution of a sentence under final judgment it is discovered that the offender is guilty of recidive, his punishment shall be re-fixed in accordance with the provisions of the last two preceding Articles.

Article 22. A previous conviction under military law, or by a foreign

tribunal, is not a ground for increase of punishment for recidive.

CHAPTER V.

OF CONCURRENCE OF OFFENCES.

Article 23. It is a concurrence of offences when an offender is found guilty of two or more offences committed prior to any final judgment; in such case there shall be punishment for each offence, and the execution of such punishments shall be in accordance with the following rules:

 If the offender has been sentenced to death for one offence, there shall be no execution of any other punishment; if the offender is subject to more than one sentence of death, only one such sentence

shall be enforced.

If the offender has been sentenced to imprisonment for life for one offence, there shall be no execution of any other punishment; when the offender is subject to more than one sentence of imprisonment

for life, only one such sentence shall be enforced.

3. If the offender has been sentenced to several periods of imprisonment, the period of imprisonment to be inflicted shall be not longer than all the periods combined nor shorter than the longest of such periods; provided that in no case shall such period exceed twenty years.

 If the offender has been sentenced to several periods of detention, the period for which he shall be detained shall be fixed in accord-

ance with the rule set forth in the preceding subsection.

If the offender has been sentenced to pay several fines, the sum payable shall be not more than the total amount, nor less than the

largest amount, of such fines.

6. The execution of the punishments of imprisonment for a period, detention, and fine, fixed in accordance with sub-sections 3 to 5 shall be cumulative, and the same rule shall apply where the offender has been sentenced to imprisonment for a period for one offence, to detention for another, and to a fine for a third.

7. Deprivation of civil rights and forfeiture shall be cumulatively en-

forced with the principal punishment.

Article 24. Where a person, after he has been found guilty of one offence under a final judgment, is discovered to have committed other offences, or where a person is convicted of several offences under separate final judgments, the punishment to be inflicted shall be re-fixed in accordance with the provisions of the last preceding Article.

The same rule shall apply to such other offences committed by the offender as remain unpunished when punishment for the most serious offence

is no longer possible.

Article 25. When the offender is guilty both of concurrence of offences and of recidive, the punishment for concurrence shall be fixed in accordance with the provisions of the last two preceding Articles, and shall be executed cumulatively with the punishment for recidive.

Article 26. Where the means employed in committing an offence, or the results arising from the commission of such offence, constitute any other offence, the offender shall be punished for the severer offence, unless it is

otherwise provided in Part II of this Code.

Article 27. The gravity of different offences shall be determined by the severity of the maximum punishment prescribed for each offence; in case the maximum punishments are equal the gravity of the offence shall be determined by the severity of the minimum punishment prescribed for each offence.

When both the maximum and the minimum punishments are equal, the gravity of different offences shall be determined by that of the circumstances in which each offence is committed.

Article 28. A continuous offence shall be deemed to constitute one

offence.

CHAPTER VI.

OF JOINT-OFFENCE.

Article 29. When two or more persons jointly commit an offence, every such offender is a principal, severally liable to the punishment prescribed for the offence.

Whoever aids a principal in committing an offence shall be deemed

to be a principal.

Article 30. Whoever instigates any person to commit an offence is an instigator, and shall be punished as a principal.

The instigator of an instigator shall be deemed to be an instigator.

Article 31. Whoever aids a principal before the commission of an offence is an accessory, and shall be liable to the punishment prescribed for the principal of such offence decreased by one or two degrees.

Whoever instigates or aids an accessory shall be deemed to be an acces-

sory.

Article 32. Whoever has instigated or aided a principal before the commission of an offence and afterwards participates in it shall be punished for such acts as he has committed in the participation.

Article 33. When an act becomes an offence on account of the status of the offender, his instigators or accessories in spite of the want of such status shall be deemed to be joint-offenders.

If there is an increase or reduction of punishment on account of the status of the offender, any joint-offender without such status shall be liable only to the punishment prescribed for the offence.

Article 34. Whoever joins in the commission of an offence knowing the purpose of the offender shall be deemed to be a joint-offender, notwith-

standing the offender's ignorance of the participation.

Article 35. Whenever negligence is specifically made punishable, persons who are jointly responsible for negligence shall be deemed to be joint-offenders.

Article 36. Whoever at the time of the commission of an offence by any person contributes through negligence to its consummation, shall be deemed to be a joint-principal in the offence, provided that in such case negligence is specifically made punishable.

CHAPTER VII.

OF PUNISHMENTS.

Article 37. Punishments are classified as principal and accessory. Principal punishments are:—

- 1. Death.
- 2. Imprisonment for life.
- 3. Imprisonment for a period.
 - a. in the first degree.

not less than 10 years nor more than 15 years.

b. in the second degree.

more than 5 years but less than 10 years.

c. in the third degree.

more than 3 years but less than 5 years.

d. in the fourth degree.

more than 1 year but less than 3 years.

e. in the fifth degree.

more than 2 months but less than 1 year.

4. Detention.

more than 1 day but less than 2 months.

5. Fine.

not less than one yuan.

Accessory punishments are :-

- 1. Deprivation of civil rights.
- 2. Forfeiture.

Article 38. Sentence of the death shall be executed by strangulation within the precincts of the prison.

Article 39. Any offender who has been sentenced to death shall, until the execution of the sentence, be segregated from the other inmates of the prison.

Article 40. Sentence of death shall not be executed unless confirmed by the Ministry of Justice.

Article 41. Sentence of imprisonment, or detention, shall not be for fractions of a day, nor shall any fine be for fractions of a yuan.

Article 42. Convicts sentenced to imprisonment shall be kept in a prison and ordered to perform labour as provided by law; the mode of imprisonment and the kind of labour shall be in accordance with Prison Regulations.

Article 43. Convicts sentenced to detention shall be kept in a prison and ordered to perform labour as provided by law; provided that exemption from labour may be granted on account of the nature and circumstances of the case.

Article 44. When the execution of a sentence of imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree, or of detention, has become unpracticable, the sentence may be commuted to fine at the rate of one yuan for each day of imprisonment.

Such commutation shall be deemed in law to be an execution of the sentence of imprisonment or detention.

Article 45. Fines shall be ordered to be paid within one month after judgment has become final and in default of payment within the specified period the following rules shall apply:—

Compulsory measures shall be taken against the offender who has
the means of payment.

2. The fine shall be converted into confinement at the rate of one yuan for each day, when the offender is without the means of payment.

Confinement in lieu of fine shall be executed in a special Division of the prison.

The period of confinement shall not exceed three years.

When part of a fine has been paid and the offender is unable to pay the remainder, the unpaid portion shall be converted into confinement in accordance with the provision of sub-section 2 of section 1 of this Article.

Where the number of yuan in a fine exceeds the number of days in a period of three years and a portion of the fine has been paid, the number of days of confinement shall be calculated by deducting from the period of three years such number of days as the part of the fine that has been paid is in proportion to the total amount of the fine.

Confinement in lieu of fine under this Article shall be deemed in law to be an execution of the punishment by fine, except when the offender

escapes.

Article 46. Deprivation of civil rights means the deprivation for life of any or all of the following qualifications:—

- 1. For holding any public office.
- 2. For voting at an election.
- 3. For receiving any decoration.
- 4. For enlisting in the army or navy.
- For holding office in any educational institution either as the principal or an administrative officer or a teacher.
- 6. For practising as a lawyer.

Article 47. Whenever Part II of this Code provides that the offender may be deprived of his civil rights, he may be removed from his present position, or be deprived for a period of all or any of the qualifications specified in the last preceding Article; such deprivation shall apply only to offenders who are liable to imprisonment or some severer punishment.

Article 48. The following articles shall be subject to forfeiture:-

- 1. Objects which are absolutely forbidden or the unauthorized manufacture or possession of which is forbidden.
- Objects used in the commission of an offence or preparation of it.
 Objects which are acquired through the commission of an offence.

Article 49. Only such articles as exclusively belong to the offender shall be subject to forfeiture.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF REDUCTION OF PUNISHMENTS UNDER EXTENUATING CIRCUMSTANCES.

Article 50. Whenever an offence is committed by a person who is dumb, or under the age of sixteen, or has reached the age of eighty, the punishment prescribed for the offence may be reduced by one or two degrees.

CHAPTER IX.

OF VOLUNTARY SURRENDER

Article 51. Whenever before the discovery of the commission of an offence the offender voluntarily surrenders to the authorities for trial, the punishment prescribed for the offence may be reduced by one degree.

The same rule shall apply where the offender in an offence, the prosecution for which can be instituted only on complaint, voluntarily surrenders to any of those persons who have the right to make the complaint in order that he may be tried by the authorities.

Article 52. Whenever any person has committed several offences and, after the discovery of one of such offences, voluntarily surrenders to the authorities with respect to the others, the punishment prescribed for such

others may be reduced by one degree.

Article 53. Whenever preparation is made, or a conspiracy formed, for the commission of an offence punishable under any Article of Part II of this Code, and the offender before the actual commission of such offence voluntarily surrenders to the authorities, the punishment prescribed for the offence may be remitted or reduced, but there shall be no exemption from forfeiture.

CHAPTER X.

OF DISCRETIONARY REDUCTION OF PUNISHMENTS.

Article 54. The punishment prescribed for any offence may be reduced by one or two degrees when the circumstances and the motives of the commission justify such reduction.

Article 55. An increase or reduction of punishment by virtue of any law does not prevent a discretionary reduction under the last preceding Article.

CHAPTER XI.

OF RULES FOR THE INCREASE OR REDUCTION OF PUNISHMENTS.

Article 56. The punishment of death, imprisonment, or detention, shall be increased or reduced in accordance with the orders set out in Article 37.

No punishment of imprisonment shall be increased to the punishment of death.

No punishment of detention, shall be reduced to a fine or remitted.

No fine shall be increased to detention or imprisonment.

Article 57. Where two or more principal punishments are prescribed in Part II of this Code for one and the same offence, any increase or reduction of such punishments shall be made in accordance with the orders set out in Article 57.

When the severest principal punishment is death, only the punishment of imprisonment shall be increased; when the severest principal punishment is imprisonment for life, only the punishment of imprisonment for a period shall be increased.

When the lightest principal punishment is detention, only the punishment of imprisonment shall be reduced, when punishment of imprisonment becomes impossible by virtue of reduction the offender shall be liable to detention only.

Article 58. An increase or reduction of a fine by one degree means an increase or reduction by one-fourth of the sum prescribed for such case in Part II of this Code.

Any increase or reduction of a fine means the increase or reduction of both the maximum and the minimum sums. Where only the maximum sum has been prescribed, only such sum shall be increased or reduced.

Article 59. When in accordance with the provisions of Part II of this Code a fine is imposed with imprisonment, any increase or reduction in the period of imprisonment shall likewise increase or reduce the fine.

Where imprisonment has been commuted to a fine and there ought to have been a reduction in the period of punishment the fine shall likewise be reduced.

Article 60. Where there is a concurrent increase and reduction of pun ishment such increase and reduction shall cancel each other pro tanto.

Article 61. Where there are two or more extenuating circumstances for reduction of punishment, reduction shall be made for each of such circumstances.

Article 62. An increase or reduction in the principal punishment shall not affect the accessory punishment.

CHAPTER XII.

OF SUSPENSION OF SENTENCE.

Article 63. Any sentence of imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, or of detention, may, by order of the court, be suspended for not more than five nor less than three years, from the day on which judgment becomes final, provided that:—

1. The offender has not previously been sentenced to any punishment

severer than detention; or that

- 2. If the offender has previously been sentenced to imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, at least seven years has elapsed since the execution or remission of the sentence; or if the offender has previously been sentenced to detention, at least three years have elapsed since the execution or remission of the sentence; and that
- 3. The offender has a fixed abode and regular occupation; and that

 There are relatives or friends of the offender who will supervise him during suspension of sentence.

Article 64. An order for the suspension of sentence shall be cancelled

in any of the following cases :-- .

- 1. Where during the period of suspension, the offender commits any offence for which he is sentenced to a punishment not lighter than detention.
- 2. Where the offender is sentenced to a punishment not lighter than detention for an offence committed before suspension.
- Where after suspension has been granted it is discovered that the
 offender did not satisfy the requirements specified in sub-section 2
 of the last preceding Article.

4. Where the offender has lost his fixed abode or regular occupation.

Where the persons who are supervising the offender apply with good reasons for the execution of sentence.

Article 65. The sentence becomes inoperative on the expiration of the period of suspension without cancellation.

CHAPTER XIII.

CONDITIONAL RELEASE.

Article 66. When there is sufficient evidence of amendment on the part of a prisoner who has served a sentence for more than ten years in case of imprisonment for life, or for more than half the term in case of imprisonment for a period, he may be granted conditional release on application of the administrative authorities of the prison to the Ministry of Justice provided that in case of imprisonment for a period he must have served his sentence for at least three years.

Article 67. The conditional release shall be revoked and the period during which the prisoner has been released shall not be reckoned in the

period of the following cases :-

1. Where during the period of conditional release he commits an offence for which he is sentenced to a punishment not lighter then detention.

2. Where he is found to have committed prior to his conditional release some other offence for which he is sentenced to a punishment not lighter than detention.

Where he has been sentenced prior to his conditional release for another offence to a punishment not lighter than detention which

sentence ought to be executed.

4. Where he violates any of the terms of the conditional release whereby the grant is revoked.

If a conditional release is not revoked the period during which the prisoner has been released shall be reckoned in the period of imprisonment.

CHAPTER XIV.

PARDON.

Article 68. Pardons shall be granted in accordance with the regulations for pardons in force at the time.

CHAPTER XV.

PRESCRIPTION.

Article 69. The periods of prescription for instituting prosecutions are:—

1. Fifteen years for offences punishable with death.

2. Ten years for offences punishable with imprisonment for life or for a period in the first degree.

 Seven years for offences punishable with imprisonment for a period in the second degree.

4. Three years for offences punishable with imprisonment for a period in the third degree.

5. One year for offences punishable with imprisonment for a period

in the fourth degree.

6. Six months for offences punishable with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree, or with detention, or fine.

The aforesaid periods begin to run from the day of the completion of the offence and the right to institute prosecution shall be extinguished

if no prosecution is instituted within the said periods.

Article 70. When two or more offences have been committed by one and the same person the period of prescription for instituting a prosecution shall be determined by the severest punishment prescribed for the most serious offence in accordance with the provisions of the last preceding Article.

Article 71. When the prescribed punishment ought to be increased or reduced, the period of prescription for instituting prosecution shall nevertheless be determined by the punishment prescribed for the offence,

irrespective of any increase or reduction.

Article 72. The period of prescription for instituting prosecutions shall be interrupted by the taking of any of the following steps and shall be reckoned de novo from the cessation thereof:—

- Any compulsory measures taken in investigation or preliminary examination.
- 2. Proceedings in a trial.

The taking of any of the steps mentioned in the last preceding section against one joint-offender shall affect the rest.

Article 73. The period of prescription for instituting prosecution shall not run when proceedings in court are suspended on account of insanity or serious illness on the part of the accused.

Article 74. The periods of prescription for execution of sentence are :-

1. Thirty years for a sentence of death.

2. Twenty-five years for a sentence of imprisonment for life.

- Twenty years for a sentence of imprisonment for a period in the first degree.
- Fifteen years for a sentence of imprisonment in the second degree.
 Ten years for a sentence of imprisonment for a period in the third

Ten years for a sentence of imprisonment for a period in the third degree.

Five years for a sentence of imprisonment for a period in the fourth degree.

 Three years for a sentence of imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree.

aegree.

8. One year for a sentence of detention or fine.

The aforesaid periods begin to run from the day on which the sentence becomes final, and the right to execute the sentence shall be extinguished if there has been no execution within the said periods.

Article 75. The periods of prescription for the execution of sentence shall be interrupted when the offender is arrested for the purpose of executing the sentence; provided that other sentences unconnected therewith shall not be affected by such interruption.

The period of prescription for the execution of a sentence of fine or forfeiture shall be interrupted by any step taken in the execution of the

sentence.

Article 76. The periods of prescription for the execution of sentence shall be suspended whenever such execution is suspended by law.

CHAPTER XVI.

RULES FOR COMPUTATION OF TIME.

Article 77. A day consists of twenty-four hours, a month of thirty

days, a year of twelve calendar months.

Article 78. Any part of the first day of a period shall be considered as one day but the last day of a period must be a complete day; the liberation of a prisoner who has served a sentence of imprisonment for a period, or of detention, shall take place before noon on the day following the last day of his sentence.

Article 79. The period of punishment shall be reckoned from the day

on which judgment becomes final.

The days that have elapsed before actual imprisonment of the offender shall not be reckoned in the period of imprisonment notwithstanding that judgment has become final.

Article 80. Every two days of confinement before judgment becomes final may be reckoned as one day of imprisonment, or detention, or as one yuan of fine.

CHAPTER XVII.

GENERAL INTERPRETATIONS.

Article 81. (Repealed).

Article 82. The word "Ascendant" denotes any of the following persons:—

- 1. Paternal grand-father and grand-mother, father and mother of paternal grand-father, paternal grand-father and grand-mother of paternal grand-father.
- 2. Father and mother.

The ascendants of the husband are deemed to be the ascendants of the .wife.

The word "Relative" denotes any ascendant as well as any of the following persons:—

1. Husband and wife

2. Paternal relatives within the degree of mourning for a period of not more than one year, as set forth in the Table of Mourning.

3. Maternal relatives within the degree of mourning for a period of not more than five months, as set forth in the Table of Mourning.

4. Relatives on the wife's side within the degree of mourning for a period of not more than three months, as set forth in the Table of Mourning.

5. Relatives on the husband's side within the degree of mourning for a period of not more than one year, as set forth in the Table of

Mourning.

6. A married daughter's paternal relatives within the degree of mourning for a period of not more than nine months, as set forth in the Table of Mourning.

Article 83. The words "Public Officer" denote any person in the government service as well as any member of a deliberative assembly, or delegate, or any officer, who is engaged in any public service under any law or ordinance.

The words "Public Office" denote any building where any public officer

performs his official duties.

The words "Public Document" denote any document which ought to be drawn up by a public officer in his official capacity, or by a Public Office.

Article 84. The words "Deliberative Assembly" denote any assembly, national or local, established by law or ordinance for political discussions and the word "Election" denotes any election of the members of a deliberative assembly.

Article 85. The words "Buddhist" and "Taoist" denote a priest as well as priestess of the Buddhist and the Taoist persuasions respectively

and all other ordained persons.

Article 86. Whenever in Part II of this Code one Article applies another Article the offence under which is punishable in attempts, preparations, or conspiracies, the provisions that render such attempts, preparations, or conspiracies punishable shall also apply to attempts, preparations, or conspiracies to commit the offence under the Article first mentioned.

The same rule shall apply to instigators and accessories.

Article 87. The expressions "not severer than," "not more than," "not lighter than," "not less than," and "within" include the number stated in each case in the computation.

Article 88. The words "Grievous harm" denote :-

- 1. Permanent deprivation of the power of sight.
- 2. Permanent deprivation of the power of hearing.

3. Permanent deprivation of the power of speech.

- 4. Destruction, or permanent deprivation of the power of movement, of any limb.
- 5. Serious incurable injury to health or body.
- 6. Disfiguration with any serious incurable injury.
- 7. Destruction of the genital organ.

The word "Infirmity" denotes :-

- 1. Impairing of the power of sight.
- 2. Impairing of the power of hearing.
- 3. Impairing of the power of speech.
- 4. Impairing of the powers of movement of any limb.

Any injury to health or body causing the sufferer to be ill for not less than thirty days.

6. Any illness which renders the sufferer unable to follow his occupa-

tion for not less than thirty days.

The words "Slight injury" denote any illness or injury not defined in the two preceding Sections of this Article.

PART II.

SPECIFIC OFFENCES AND PUNISHMENTS.

CHAPTER I.

OF OFFENCES AGAINST THE IMPERIAL FAMILY.

Articles 89 to 100. (Repealed).

CHAPTER II.

OF OFFENCES AGAINST THE INTERNAL SECURITY OF THE STATE.

Article 101. Whoever commits any violence with intent to overthrow the Government, or seize the territories or subvert the constitution of the State, commits an offence against the internal security of the State, and shall be liable to any of the following punishments:—

1. Death or imprisonment for life when the offender is a ringleader;

2. Death or imprisonment for life, or for a period in the first degree when the offender has taken an important part in the commission of the offence;

3. Imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree

when the offender has merely joined the offending crowd.

Whenever several persons with intent to disturb the internal security of the State gather together and seize by force any arms, ammunition, vessels, provisions, or other articles required for military purposes belonging to any public office, or openly occupy with arms any city, town, fortress, or any other place employed for military purposes, they shall be deemed to have committed an offence against the internal security of the State.

Article 102. An attempt to commit any offence under Article 101, shall

be punishable.

Article 103. Whoever conspires or makes preparation to commit any offence under Article 101, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period

from the first to the third degree.

Article 104. Whoever, knowing of any preparation being made for the commission of an offence against the internal security of the State, supplies arms, ammunition, vessels, provisions, or other articles required for military purposes shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

Article 105. Whoever participating in acts of violence commits the offence of homicide or causing injury, arson, inundation, spoliation, or any other offence contrary to international usage relating to war, shall be liable to the punishment specifically prescribed for each of such offences and be

punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 106. Whoever for committing an offence under this Chapter has been sentenced to a punishment not lighter than imprisonment for a period in the second degree, shall be deprived of his civil rights; if he has been sentenced to a lighter punishment he may be deprived of his civil rights.

Article 107. Whoever having committed any offence under Article 102 to 104 voluntarily surrenders to the authorities before any act of violence

is committed shall be exempted from punishment.

CHAPTER III.

OF OFFENCES AGAINST THE EXTERNAL SECURITY OF THE STATE.

Article 108. Whoever having been commissioned by the Government to negotiate with any foreign Government, intentionally concludes a treaty to the detriment of the Republic with intent to benefit either himself or any other person, or any foreign Government, shall, irrespective of ratification, be punished with imprisonment for life, or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

Article 109. Whoever, being a citizen of the Republic, negotiates with any foreign Government with intent to cede to any foreign Government any territory of the Republic, shall be punished with death or with im-

prisonment for life, or for a period in the first degree.

Article 110. Whoever intrigues with any foreign Government with intent that such foreign Government shall wage war against the Republic, or joins any enemy Government by taking up arms against the Republic shall be punished with death.

Article 111. Whoever, with intent to cause detriment to the Republic,

or to benefit the enemy, commits any of the following offences:-

1. Surrendering to the enemy, destroying, or rendering useless, by fire or any other means, any fortress, naval base, troops, vessels or other structures used for military purposes, or any arms, ammunition, provisions, means of communication, or any other articles required for military purposes.

Instigating persons in the army or navy to mutiny, or otherwise exciting feelings of disaffection among such persons, or inducing deser-

tions, by fraud or by any other means.

 Delivering to the enemy any document, sketch or map relating to military dispositions;

 Committing acts of espionage for the enemy, or rendering aid or assistance to enemy spies.

5. Conducting any enemy troops or vessels into or near the territories of the Republic.

Shall be punished with death or imprisonment for life or for a period

in the first degree.

Article 112. Whoever, during a state of war between the Republic and any foreign Power fraudulently, or by any other improper means, obtains a contract to supply articles required for military purposes, or after making such contract fails to fulfil the terms thereof, shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

Whoever derives any profit from the commission of the offence under the last preceding section shall, in addition to the punishment therein prescribed, be fined a sum not more than twice, nor less than the total amount of the profit received; if twice the amount received is less than three hundred yuan the fine shall be not more than three hundred yuan nor less than the total amount received.

Article 113. Whoever, by any means other than those mentioned in the last two preceding Articles gives any military advantage to the enemy or causes the Republic to suffer any military disadvantage, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

Article 114. An attempt to commit any offence under this Chapter

shall be punishable.

Article 115. Whoever makes preparation or conspires to commit any offence under Articles 108, 109 and 113, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree ,or detention, or fine of not more than one thousand yuan.

Whoever makes preparation or conspires to commit any offence under Articles 119 and 111 shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree.

Whoever voluntarily surrenders to the authorities before commencing to commit any offence under this Article shall be exempted from punish-

ment.

Article 116. Whoever being a citizen of the Republic commits any offence under this Chapter shall be deprived of his civil rights; in case the offender is not a citizen of the Republic he may be deprived of his civil rights.

Article 117. The provisions of this Chapter shall apply to any violation thereof committed against an ally of the Republic during a state of war.

CHAPTER IV.

OF OFFENCES AGAINST FRIENDLY RELATIONS WITH FOREIGN STATES.

Article 118. Whoever inflicts any dangerous injury upon the Sovereign or President of a foreign state shall be punished with death.

Article 119. Whoever through negligence causes any dangerous injury to the Sovereign or President of a foreign state, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree, or with fine of not more than two thousand yuan nor less than two hundred yuan.

Article. 120. Whoever offers insults to the Sovereign or President of a foreign state, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree, or with fine of not more than two thousand yuan nor less than two hundred yuan

Article 121. Whoever commits homicide against a diplomatic representative of any foreign state shall be punished with death or imprison-

ment for life.

Article 122. Whoever commits any injury against a diplomatic representative of any foreign state, shall be punished with:—

 Death, or imprisonment for life or for a period in the first degree, when death or grievous harm results;

Imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree, when infirmity results;

degree, when infility results

 Imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree, when slight injury results.

Article 123. Whoever commits violence or uses threats to a diplomatic representative of any foreign state, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or with fine of not more than one thousand yuan nor less than one hundred yuan.

Article 124. Whoever offers insults to a diplomatic representative of any foreign state, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than five

hundred yuan.

Article 125. Whoever commits homicide, injury, or violence against, or uses threats or offers insults to, a diplomatic representative of the Republic accredited to any foreign state, shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Articles 121 to 124.

Article 126. Whoever with intent to bring any foreign state into contempt, destroys, pulls down, or otherwise dishonours the flag or other national emblem of such state, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 127. Whoever without authority commits any hostile act against any foreign state shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree.

Article 128. Whoever, during a state of war between two or more foreign states commits any infraction of any order of neutrality issued by the Republic, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer

than the fourth degree or detention.

Whoever derives any profit from the commission of the offence under the last preceding section, shall, in addition to the punishment therein prescribed, be fined a sum not more than twice nor less than the total amount of the profit received; if twice the amount received is less than three hundred yuan the fine shall be not more than three hundred yuan nor less than the total amount received.

Article 129. An attempt to commit any offence under Articles 118, 121,

122, 127 and 128 shall be punishable.

Article 130. Whoever makes preparation or conspires to commit the offence under Article 118, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period

from the second to the fourth degree.

Whoever makes preparation or conspires to commit any offence under Articles 121 and 127, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Whoever voluntarily surrenders to the authorities before commencing to commit the offence under Article 127, shall be exempted from punish-

ment.

Article 131. Whoever for committing an offence under this Chapter has been sentenced to a punishment not lighter than imprisonment for a period in the second degree shall be deprived of his civil rights; if he has been sentenced to any lighter punishment he may be deprived of his civil rights.

Article 132. Prosecution for any offence under Articles 120 and 126 shall be instituted only at the request or with the consent of the foreign

state concerned.

Prosecution for the offence under Article 124 shall be instituted only on the complaint of the injured party.

CHAPTER V.

OF DISCLOSURE OF OFFICIAL SECRETS.

Article 133. Whoever discloses any matter of a confidential character relating to the internal administration or foreign relations of the Republic, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, and if such disclosure is secretly communicated to a foreign Government the punishment shall be imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

When the offence results in diplomatic complications or in a state of war with any foreign state, the offender shall be punished with imprison-

ment for life, or for a period in the first degree.

Article 134. Whoever knowing any matter, map, sketch, document or any other object to be of a confidential character relating to the military affairs of the Republic, secretly seeks information thereof or collects the same, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than five hundred yuan nor less than fifty yuan.

Article 135. Whoever having knowledge or possession of any matter, map, sketch, documents, or any other object of a confidential character relating to the military affairs of the Republic discloses or publishes the same shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second or

third degree.

Whoever, by virtue of his office, is possessed, or has knowledge of, such confidential matters aforesaid and discloses or publishes the same,

shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the first or second

degree

Article 136. Whoever, without permission surveys, sketches, photographs, or makes notes of any naval base, important or defended harbour, fortification, fort, or submarine, mine, or any other structure made for defensive purposes shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than five hundred yuan nor less than fifty yuan.

Whoever, without permission from the authorities, or having obtained such permission by fraud, enters upon any fortification, fort, or submarine mine, or any other structure made for defensive purposes, shall be liable

to the same punishment.

Article 137. An attempt to commit any offence under Article 133 section 1, and Articles 134 to 136 shall be punishable.

Article 138. Whoever commits any offence under this Chapter may

be deprived of his civil rights.

Article 139. Any profit derived by the offender from the commission of any offence under this Chapter shall be subject to forfeiture, and if such profit has been disposed of, measures shall be taken against the offender for the recovery of the amount thereof.

CHAPTER VI.

OF MALFEASANCE IN OFFICE.

Article 140. Whoever, being a public officer or arbitrator, demands, agrees to accept, or accepts any bribe relating to the performance of his official duties, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

When in consequence of the bribe he does any improper act, or fails to do any act which he ought to have done, he shall be punished with

imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree.

Article 141. Whoever, being a public officer or arbitrator, demands, agrees to accept, or accepts any bribe relating to any official duty that he has performed, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention.

Whoever, being a public officer or arbitrator, after having done any improper act or having failed to do any act which he ought to have done in the performance of his official duties demands, agrees to accept, or accepts any bribe in consideration thereof, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Article 142. Whoever offers, agrees to deliver, or delivers any bribe to any public officer or arbitrator, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more

than three hundred yuan.

Article 143. Whoever offers, agrees to deliver, or delivers any bribe to any public officer or arbitrator relating to any official duty that he has performed, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth

degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 144. Whoever, being a judge, Procurator, police officer, jailer, administrative officer, or assistant officer, commits, in the performance of his official duties, any act of violence or cruelty against the defendant or accused, or any person implicated in or connected with a case, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

When death or injury results from such act the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing injury shall apply, and the offender

shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 145. Whoever being a Procurator, police officer, or an assistant officer, on complaint of any person that his rights are being infringed,

fails to render the necessary protection, forthwith, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, or with

detention.

Article 146. Whoever being a Procurator or police officer who, on a criminal information or complaint being made to him, or on the offender voluntarily surrendering to him, does not dismiss the case where it should be dismissed or dismisses the case or refuses to take any necessary step in it where it should not be dismissed, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Whoever being a judge, on a civil action being brought or on a prosecution being instituted, does not dismiss the case where it should be dismissed, or dismisses the case or refuses to try it, shall be liable to the same

punishment.

Article 147. Whoever, being a public officer entrusted with the collection of taxes, duties, or other revenue, collects, with intent to benefit any person or the Treasury, any money, corn, or other article in excess of what is due, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

When such offence is committed by the offender with intent to benefit himself, he shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second

or third degree, and fine equal to the amount collected in excess.

Article 148. Apart from cases specified in the last four preceding Articles, whoever, being a public officer, abuses his authority by making any person do anything which that person is not legally bound to do, or restraining any person from doing anything which that person is legally entitled to do, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 149. An attempt to commit the offence under Article 147, shall

be punishable.

Article 150. Whoever commits any offence under Articles 140 and 141 and Article 147, section 2, shall be deprived of his civil rights; for committing any other offence under this Chapter he may be deprived of his civil rights.

Whoever commits any offence under Articles 144 to 148 shall also be

removed from office.

Article 151. Any bribe accepted in committing any offence under Article 140 or 141 shall be subject to forfeiture; in case such bribe has been disposed of measures shall be taken against the offender for the recovery of the amount thereof.

Article 152. Whoever having committed any offence under Articles 142 and 143 voluntarily surrenders to the authorities may be exempted from punishment.

CHAPTER VII.

OF INTERFERING WITH THE EXERCISE OF PUBLIC FUNCTIONS.

Article 153. Whoever employs any threats, or commits any violence or fraud, against a public officer who is performing his official duties shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Whoever employs any threats, or commits any violence or fraud, against a public officer with intent to make him deal, or not deal, with a matter

in a certain way or resign, shall be liable to the same punishment.

When death or injury to any person results from committing such offence, the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing injury

shall apply, and the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 154. Whoever breaks, removes, disfigures, or otherwise renders ineffective, any seal or any ticket of attachment affixed by a public officer shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 155. Whoever offers any insults to any public officer while he is exercising his functions, or openly makes any insulting attack on his functions, shall, irrespective of the truth or falsity of his statements, be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Whoever openly makes any insulting attack on any public office shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 156. An attempt to commit the offence under Article 154 shall be punishable.

Article 157. Whoever commits any offence under this Chapter may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF INTERFERENCE IN ELECTIONS.

Article 158. Whoever, by fraudulent or other dishonest means, causes to be made in an election-register any entry or alteration which is material to the qualifications of a voter or of a person to be elected, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan. Whoever votes at an election without possessing the requisite qualifications, shall be liable to the same punishment.

Whoever, being a public officer, knowingly makes any entry or alteration as specified in the last preceding section, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not less than fifty nor more the five hundred yuan.

Article 159. Whoever commits any of the following offences at an election:-

1. Circulating rumours, committing fraud, or damaging the reputation of the candidate, with intent to procure votes for himself, or for any other person, or to reduce the number of votes that may be received by such candidate.

2. Before or after an election, offering, agreeing to pay, or paying, any travelling expenses or bribes to any person connected with the election; or acting as intermediary in such transactions or, being himself a voter or a person connected with the election, demanding, agreeing to accept, or accepting any travelling expenses or bribe;

3. Influencing any voter through any right in personam or obligation or any other interest which concerns such voter or any of his relatives, or any temple, school, company, partnership, guild, city, town, or village with which he is connected; or acting as intermediary in any such transaction; or being a voter yielding to such influence:

Shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree, or detention, or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Any money or property obtained by the offender through the commission of any offence under this Article shall be subject to forfeiture; in case such money or property has been disposed of, measures shall be taken against the offender for the recovery of the amount thereof.

Article 160. Whoever commits any of the following offences at an election:-

- Committing any violence, or employing any threats, against any voter or any of his relatives, or any person connected with an election;
- 2. Committing any violence, or employing any threats, and so preventing any voter from entering or leaving a polling booth or exercising his rights in connection with an election;

Shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not less than thirty yuan nor more than three hundred yuan.

Article 161. Whoever commits any of the following offences at an election:—

- 1. Committing any violence, or employing any threats, against any public officer or assistant officer in connection with an election;
- Making a disturbance at any place used for election purposes, at the polling booth, or at the place where the ballot-boxes are opened;
- Detaining, destroying or snatching any ballot-paper, ballot-box, or other public documents connected with an election;

Shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to

the fifth degree.

Article 162. Whoever without lawful excuse interferes with the casting of votes at the polling booth, or secretly seeks information of the names of the persons to be elected at the polling booth or the place where the ballot-boxes are opened, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention, or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Whoever, being a public officer or assistant officer connected with an election, commits any offence under the last preceding section, or wrongfully discloses the name of any person to be elected, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 163. Whoever commits any offence under this Chapter may be

deprived of his civil rights.

Whoever, for committing any offence under this Chapter, has been sentenced to a punishment not lighter than imprisonment for a period in the third degree shall within a period of not more than ten years nor less than two years after the termination of the sentence be disqualified for voting or being elected at any election.

CHAFTER IX.

OF RIOTS.

Article 164. Whoever knowingly continues in an assembly of persons who have come together with intent to commit violence or employ threats, after such assembly has been commanded by the competent authorities to disperse, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan. Whoever has merely increased the commotion by joining the offending crowd shall be punished with detention, or fine of not more than fifty yuan.

Article 165 Whenever violence has been committed, or threats have been employed, by an assembly of persons, the punishments for the offenders shall be as follows:—

1. Imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree when the offender is a ringleader;

2. Imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree, or fine of not more than one thousand yuan nor less than one hundred yuan

when the offender has taken an important part in the commission of the offence;

3. Imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan when the offender has merely increased the commotion by joining the assembly.

Article 166. Whenever any person taking part in a riotous assembly as described in the last preceding Article commits the offence of homicide or causing injury, arson, mundation, or damage to property, or other offences, the provisions of the Articles relating to such offences respectively shall apply with the distinction between ringleaders, instigators, and principal offenders and he shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 167. Whoever for committing an offence under Article 165 has been sentenced to a punishment not lighter than imprisonment for a period in the second degree, shall be deprived of his civil rights; when he has been sentenced to a lighter punishment he may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER X.

OF ESCAPE OF PERSONS UNDER ARREST AND PRISONERS.

Article 168. Any prisoner, whether convicted or unconvicted, or any person, held under lawful arrest or kept in lawful confinement, who escapes, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the

fourth degree or detention.

Article 169. Any prisoner, whether convicted or unconvicted, or any person, held under lawful arrest or kept in lawful confinement who escapes, by committing violence or employing threats or damaging any instrument with which he is held in the jail, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

When such prisoners or persons gather together and effect their escape by committing violence or employing threats, the ringleader and instigator shall be punished with death or imprisonment for life; all others concerned in the offence shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period

not lighter than the second degree.

Article 170. Whoever kidnaps any prisoner whether convicted or unconvicted or any person held under lawful arrest or in lawful custody shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Where any damage is done, violence committed, or threat employed by the offender, he shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of the

last preceding Article.

Article 171. Whoever does any act to facilitate the escape of any prisoner, whether convicted or unconvicted, or any person held under lawful arrest or kept in lawful confinement and thus causes him to escape, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Where any damage is done, violence committed, or threat employed by the offender, he shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of

Article 169.

Article 172. Whoever being a gaoler, guardsman, or assistant officer, suffers any prisoner, whether convicted or unconvicted, or any person held under lawful arrest on kept in lawful confinement to escape, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Article 173. An attempt to commit any offence under this Chapter shall

be punishable.

Article 174. Whoever makes preparation or conspires to commit the offence under section 2 of Article 169, or any offence punishable under the

provisions of that section, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period

not severer than the fourth degree, or detention.

Article 175. Whoever in committing any offence under Articles 165 to 171 causes death or injury to any person, the provisions of the Article relating to causing injury shall apply and the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 176. Whoever commits any offence under Articles 169 to 172

may be deprived of his civil rights.

Whoever commits the offence under Article 172 shall also be removed from office.

CHAPTER XI.

OF CONCEALMENT OF OFFENDERS AND DESTRUCTION OF EVIDENCE.

Article 177. Whoever harbours or conceals any person who is under order of arrest, or who has escaped from lawful arrest or confinement, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Whoever, with intent to commit the offence under the last preceding section, voluntarily surrenders to the authorities, personating the offender,

shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 178. Whoever destroys any evidence relating to the accused in a criminal case or forges any evidence or makes use of such forged evidence, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 179. Whoever commits any offence under this chapter may be

deprived of his civil rights.

Article 180. Whoever being a relative of an offender or of a prisoner who has escaped from lawful arrest or confinement, commits any offence under this Chapter for the benefit of such offender or prisoner, shall be exémpted from punishment.

CHAPTER XII.

OF GIVING FALSE EVIDENCE AND MALICIOUS ACCUSATION.

Article 181. Whoever being called in accordance with any law or ordinance as a witness before a judicial or administrative public office, makes a false statement, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Whoever being called in accordance with any law or ordinance as an expert or interpreter before a judicial or administrative public office, gives a false opinion or interpretation shall be liable to the same punishment.

Whoever, having committed an offence under the two last preceding sections, confesses before judgment becomes final, may be exempted from

punishment.

Article 182. Whoever lays false information or makes false complaint, with intent to cause any person to be liable to punitive or disciplinary measures, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Whoever, having committed any offence under the last preceding section, confesses before judgment or disciplinary decision becomes final, may be

exempted from punishment.

Article 183. Whoever lays false information or makes false complaint with intent to cause any of his ascendants to be liable to punitive or disciplinary measures, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the first or second degree.

Article 184. Whoever makes a false complaint that some offence has been committed without stating the name of the offender, shall be punished

with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of

not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 185. Whoever commits any offence under Articles 181 to 183 may be deprived of his civil rights, and if the offender is a public officer he shall also be removed from office.

CHAPTER XIII.

OF ARSON, INUNDATION, AND INTERFERENCE WITH IRRIGATION.

Article 186. Whoever destroys by fire any of the following properties telonging to another person:—

1. A structure located in a city, town, or any other densely populated

place;

 A structure where valuable books, drawings, maps, or other valuable articles, of a religious, scientific, artistic, or industrial nature are exhibited or kept;

3. A valuable structure of religious or historical interest.

 A magazine in which gunpowder, munitions, or other articles required for military purposes are stored; or any other structure used for similar purposes;

5. A mine, camp, school, hospital, almshouse, factory, dormitory, prison, or other structure, where a number of persons work or lodge;

 A church, temple, theatre, inn, hotel or other structure where a number of persons assemble;

7. A vessel on which a number of persons are being conveyed;

Shall be punished with death or imprisonment for life or for a period in the first degree.

Article 187. Whoever destroys by fire any structure, mine, or vessel belonging to another person, other than those specified in the last preceding Article, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

When the fire endangers any property specified in the last preceding Article, the punishment shall be imprisonment for a period in the first or second degree; when the fire actually damages such property the punishment

shall be as prescribed in the aforesaid Article.

Article 188. Whoever destroys by fire any property belonging to another person, other than a structure, mine, or vessel, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than one thousand yuan.

When the fire endangers any property specified in section 1 of the last preceding Article, the punishment shall be imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree; when the fire actually damages such property

the punishment shall be as prescribed in the aforesaid section.

When the fire endangers any property specified in Article 186, the punishment shall be imprisonment for a period in the first or second degree; when the fire actually damages such property the punishment shall be as prescribed in the aforesaid Article.

Article 189. Whoever destroys by fire any structure, mine, vessel, or

other property of his own shall be punished with :-

1. Imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan, when the fire endangers any property specified in section 1 of the last preceding Article; and the punishment shall be as prescribed in the aforesaid section, when the fire actually damages such property;

Imprisonment for a period not severer than the third degree when the fire endangers any property specified in section 1 of Article 187; and the punishment shall be as prescribed in the aforesaid section,

when the fire actually damages such property.

3. Imprisonment for a period not lighter than the second degree when the fire endangers any property specified in Article 186: and the punishment shall be as prescribed in the aforesaid Article, when the fire actually damages such property.

Article 190. Whoever through negligence causes damage by fire to any property specified in Article 186, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention, or fine of not more than one

When the fire actually damages any property specified in section 1 of Article 187, the punishment shall be detention, or fine of not more than

five hundred yuan.

When the fire actually damages any property specified in section 1 of Article 188, the punishment shall be fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Whoever through negligence destroys by fire any structure, mine, vessel, or other property of his own, and thereby endangers any property specified in any one of the last three preceding sections, shall be punished with fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 191. Whoever by explosives, gas, electricity, steam, or any other means, destroys any structure, mine, vessel or other property, shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of the Articles relating respectively to the offences of intentionally or negligently causing damage to or endangering property by fire.

Article 192. Whoever by inundation causes any damage to any structure or mine specified in Article 185, or any field, garden, pasture, or any useful land, belonging to another person, shall be punished with death or imprison-

ment for life or for a period in the first degree.

Article 193. Whoever by inundation causes any damage to any structure, mine, or land, belonging to another person, other than those specified in the last preceding Article, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than one thousand yuan nor less than one hundred yuan.

When the mundation endangers any property referred to or specified in the last preceding Article, the punishment shall be imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree and the punishment shall be as prescribed in the aforesaid Article, when the inundation actually damages such

property.

Article 194. Whoever by inundation causes damage to his own land and thereby endangers any property specified in section 1 of the last preceding Article, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan; when the inundation actually damages any property specified in section 1 of the last preceding Article, the punishment shall be as prescribed in the aforesaid section.

When the inundation endangers property specified in Article 192, the punishment shall be imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree; and the punishment shall be as prescribed in the aforesaid Article,

when the inundation actually damages such property.

Article 195. Whoever through negligence causes an inundation and thereby damages any property specified in Article 192, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree, or detention or fine of not more than one thousand yuan.

When the inundation damages any property specified in Article 193, the punishment shall be detention, or fine of not more than five hundred yuan.

When the inundation endangers any property specified in the last two preceding sections, the punishment shall be a fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 196. Whoever, during a fire or flood, conceals or destroys any instrument or apparatus used in extinguishing fires or checking inundations,

prevents any person from taking preventive measures, or hinders by other means the work of rendering aid in such disaster, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than one thousand yuan nor less than one hundred yuan.

Whoever hinders the work of rendering aid in the disaster as specified

in Article 191, shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 197. Whoever interferes with the irrigation of the land of another shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan. If the interference consists in causing inundation, the punishment shall be as provided by the Article relating to the offence of causing inundation.

Whoever intentionally causes the land of another to become barren, by interfering with its irrigation shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Whoever causes the land of another to become barren through interference with its irrigation shall be punished with punishment for a period

from the third to the fifth degree.

Article 198. Whoever commits any offence under this Chapter against his own property, while such property is held under attachment or encumbered with any real right or held by another person under a lease, shall be deemed to have committed such offence against the property of another person.

Article 199. An attempt to commit any offence under Article 186, Article 187, section 1, Article 188, section 1, Article 192, Article 193, section 1, Article 196 and Article 197, sections 1 and 2, shall be punishable.

Article 200. Whoever makes preparation or conspires to commit arson or cause explosion or inundation to the property of another person, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention, or fine of not more than one hundred yuan; but on account of the circumstances and nature of the case the offender may be exempted from punishment.

Article 201. When death or injury to any person results from committing any offence by fire, explosion, or inundation, the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing injury shall apply, and the offender

shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

When death or injury to any person results from causing fire, explosion, or inundation, through negligence, the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing death or injury through negligence shall apply, and the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 202. Whoever commits any offence under Articles 186 and 192 shall be deprived of his civil rights; as regards any other offence under this Chapter, the offender may be deprived of his civil rights, only when the offence is intentionally committed.

CHAPTER XIV.

OF OFFENCES RELATING TO DANGEROUS THINGS.

Article 203. Whoever manufactures, keeps, or imports from a foreign country, any dynamite, guncotton, fulminating mercury, or other explosives, with intent to use the same in the commission of any offence, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

Whoever manufactures, keeps, or imports any of the above mentioned articles, with intent to supply the same to some other person for the purpose of committing any offence, shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 204. Whoever, without order, permission, or authority from a public office, or, without being able to give good reasons, manufactures,

keeps, or imports from a foreign country, anything specified in the last preceding Article, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Where good reasons are given the punishment shall be detention or fine

of not more than fifty yuan.

Article 205. Whoever without order, permission, or authority from a public office manufactures, keeps, or imports from a foreign country, any gun or cannon used for military purposes or any explosives other than those specified in Article 203, used for military purposes, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 206. Whenever being a police or custom officer, and knowing that any person is manufacturing, keeping, or importing from a foreign country, any explosives specified in Article 203, without order, permission, or authority from a public office, fails to take due measures concerning the matter, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the

first to the third degree.

If he is in conspiracy with the offender he shall be liable to the same

punishment.

Article 207. Whoever allows any gas, electricity, or steam to escape, or prevents it from escaping, and thereby endangers the person or property of another, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

When death or injury results from committing such offence, the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing injury shall apply, and the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of

Article 23.

Article 208. An attempt to commit any offence under Article 203, Article 204, section 1, Article 205 and Article 207, section 1, shall be punishable.

Article 209. Whoever commits any offence under Article 203 shall be deprived of his civil rights; whoever commits any offence under Article 204, section 1, and Article 206 may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XV.

OF OFFENCES RELATING TO PUBLIC COMMUNICATIONS.

Article 210. Whoever damages or obstructs any public way, or line of navigation or bridge, and thereby renders such means of communication dangerous, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

When an important line of communication is so damaged that a large outlay is necessary for repairs, the punishment shall be imprisonment for a

period in the second, or third degree.

When death or injury to any person results from committing any offence under this Article the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing injury shall apply, and the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 211. Whoever damages any railroad, lighthouse, or signal, or does any act endangering the passage of any train, car, or vessels, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth

degree.

Article 212. Whoever causes any train, electric car, or vessel conveying persons, to collide, turn over, be destroyed, run aground or sink, shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

When death of any person or injury to a number of persons results from committing the offence, the punishment shall be death or imprisonment for life or for a period in the first degree.

Article 213. Whoever, by committing the offence under Article 211, causes any train, electric car, or vessel conveying persons, to collide, turn over, be destroyed, run aground or sink, shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of the last preceding Article.

Article 214. Whoever through negligence endangers the passage of any train, electric car, or vessel conveying persons, shall be punished with fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Whoever through negligence causes any train, electric car, or vessel conveying persons, to collide, turn over, be destroyed, run aground, or sink, shall be punished with fine of not more than five hundred yuan.

Whoever being employed on such train, electric car, or vessel, commits the offence under section 1 of this Article, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than one thousand yuan; when such person commits the offence under section 2 of this Article, he shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than one thousand yuan nor less than one hundred yuan.

When death or injury to any person results from committing any offence under this Article, the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing death or injury through negligence shall apply, and the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 215. Whoever, by violence, threats, or fraud, interferes with the despatch, delivery, or receipt of any mail or telegraphic matter, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 216. Whoever damages anything which is exclusively used or is required for the administration of the postal service, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree, detention, or fine of not more one hundred yuan.

Whoever damages any telegraph or telephone wire, or any machinery or structure connected therewith, or obstructs their communications in any manner whatsoever, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than five hundred nor less than fifty yuan.

Whoever through negligence commits any offence under this article, shall be punished with fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 217. Whoever being employed in the postal telegraph or telephone service, commits the offence under Article 215 or Article 216, section 1, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree; when such person commits the offence under Article 216, section, 2, he shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

When any of such offences is committed through negligence the punishment shall be fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 218. An attempt to commit any offence under Article 210, sections 1 and 2, Article 211, Article 212, section 1, Articles 215 and 216, and Article 217, section 1, shall be punishable.

Article 219. Whoever makes preparation, or conspires to commit the offence under Article 212, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 220. Whoever commits the offence under Article 212 shall be deprived of his civil rights; as regards any other offence under this Chapter

the offender may be deprived of his civil rights, only when the offence is intentionally committed.

CHAPTER XVI.

OF OFFENCES AGAINST PUBLIC ORDER.

Article 221. Whoever, by writings, pictures, speeches, or any other means openly incites any person to commit any offence shall be punished with:—

1. Imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than three hundred nor less than thirty yuan, when the severest punishment for the offence incited by him is death or imprisonment for life;

Imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention, or fine of not more than one hundred yuan, when the severest punishment

for the offence incited by him is imprisonment for a period.

When the offence under this Article has been committed by means of a newspaper or any other periodical, or by means of printed books wherein the writings or opinions of other persons have been collected, the editor of such newspaper, periodical, or book shall also be punished in accordance with the provisions of the last preceding section.

Article 222. Whoever, by violence, threats, or fraud, interferes with any lawful meeting, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention, or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 223. Whoever, by violence, threats, or fraud, commits any of the following acts:—

1. Interfering with the conveyance of grains or other articles of food or drink;

2. Interfering with the conveyance of seeds, fertilizers, raw products, or other materials required for agriculture or industry:

3. Interfering with the work of a factory or mine where a number of persons are employed;

Shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than two hundred yuan.

Article 224. When workmen engaged in the same business combine in a strike, the ringleader shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan, and the others shall each be punished with detention or fine of not more than thirty yuan

When such persons gather together and commit violence or employ threats or appear likely to commit violence or employ threats, they shall be

punished in accordance with the provisions of Articles 164 to 167.

Article 225. Whoever, without lawful excuse, enters any dwelling house, structure, or vessel which is guarded or occupied at the time of entrance, or refuses to leave the same when requested to do so, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 226. Whoever falsely pretends to be a public officer, or without authority wears any official dress, any badge, or any domestic or foreign decoration, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three

hundred yuan.

Article 227. An attempt to commit any offence under Articles 221 to

223 and 225, shall be punishable.

Article 228 Whoever commits any offence under Articles 221 to 223, 225 and 226 may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XVII.

OF OFFENCES RELATING TO COIN.

Article 229. Whoever counterfeits any current coin of the Republic, shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

Whoever utters any coin counterfeited by himself or, with intent to utter the same, delivers it to any person, shall be liable to the same punish-

ment.

Any bank-note issued under the order, or with the permission or authority of the Government, shall be deemed to be current coin of the Republic.

Article 230. Whoever counterfeits any foreign current coin which is in circulation in the Republic, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree.

Whoever utters such foreign coin counterfeited by himself, or, with intent to utter the same, delivers it to any person, shall be liable to the same punishment.

Any bank-notes issued by a foreign bank and in circulation in the

Republic, shall be deemed to be foreign current coin.

Article 231. Whoever diminishes the weight of any gold or silver coin with intent to utter the same, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree; whoever utters or, with intent to utter the same, delivers it to any person shall be liable to the same punishment.

Whoever diminishes the weight of any foreign current coin which is in circulation in the Republic shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, or detention; and whoever utters or, with intent to utter the same. delivers it to any person shall be liable to the

same punishment.

Article 232. Whoever, with intent to utter the same, receives, or accepts any current coin counterfeited by any person, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree; whoever after having received or accepted such counterfeit coin utters the same, or, with intent to atter the same, either delivers it to any person or imports it from any foreign country, shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

Whoever, with intent to utter the same, receives or accepts any foreign current coin counterfeited by any person, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second, third, or fourth degree, provided that the genuine coins of that description are in circulation in the Republic.

Whoever, after having received or accepted such counterfeit foreign coin, utters the same, or, with intent to utter the same, either delivers it to any person or imports it from any foreign country, shall be punished with im-

prisonment for a period from the first to the third degree.

Article 233. Whoever, with intent to utter the same, receives or accepts any gold or silver coin the weight of which has been diminished by any person, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, or detention; whoever, after having accepted such coin, utters the same, or, with intent to utter the same, either delivers it to any person or imports it from any foreign country, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Whoever, with intent to utter the same, receives or accepts any foreign gold or silver coin the weight of which has been diminished by any person, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree, or detention, provided that the coins of that description are in circulation in this Republic; whoever having received or accepted such coin, utters the

same, or, with intent to utter the same, either delivers it to any person or imports it from any foreign country, shall be punished with imprisonment

for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention.

Article 234. Whoever, having received or accepted any coin and subsequently discovered that it has been counterfeited or that its weight has been diminished, nevertheless utters the same or, with intent to utter the same, delivers it to any person, shall be punished with fine of not more than three times the value of such coin nor less than its simple value; in case three times its value is less than fifty yuan, the fine shall be not more than fifty yuan nor less than the value of such coin.

Article 235. An attempt to commit any offence under Articles 229 to

233, shall be punishable.

Article 236. Whoever prepares any instrument or materials with intent to counterfeit any current coin or to diminish the weight of any gold or silver coin, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the

third to the fifth degree.

Article 237. Wheever for committing any offence under this Chapter has been sentenced to a punishment not lighter than imprisonment for a period in the second degree, shall be deprived of his civil rights; when the offender has been sentenced to a lighter punishment he may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XVIII.

OF FORGERY OF DOCUMENTS, AND SEALS.

Article 238 (Repealed)

Article 239. Whoever forges any public document, map, or plan shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Whoever utters any forged public document, map, or plan, or with intent to utter the same, delivers it to any person shall be liable to the

same punishment.

Article 240. Whoever being a public officer, makes any public document, map, or plan with reference to matters which he knows to be false, or utters such public document, map, or plan, or with intent to utter the same, delivers it to any person, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Whoever makes to a public officer any statement which he knows to be false and thereby causes such public officer to make any public document, map, or plan in accordance with such statement, or utters a public document, map, or plan or, with intent to utter the same, delivers it to any person,

shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 241. Whoever makes to a public officer any statement which he knows to be false and thereby causes such public officer to deliver to him any certificate, license, or passport, or to make any false entries therein, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 242. Whoever forges any valuable securities shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Whoever utters such forged valuable securities, or, with intent to utter the same, delivers it to any person or imports the same from any foreign country, shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 243. Whoever forges any private document, map, or plan which might be used to prove the rights or obligations of another person, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Whoever utters any forged private document, map, or plan of another person, or with intent to utter the same, delivers it to any person, shall

be liable to the same punishment.

Article 244. Whoever makes false entries in any private document, map, or plan of his own in order to prove certain rights or obligations between himself and any other person, or utters such document, map or plan or, with intent to utter the same, delivers it to any person shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of the last preceding Article.

Article 245. Whoever being a medical man or public officer in charge of autopsies and examination of wounds, makes false entries in any certificate of health, of injuries, or of death shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine

of not more than three hundred yuan.

Whoever requests any person to make such false entries or utters such certificate, or, with intent to utter the same, delivers such certificate to any person, shall be punished with detention or fine of not more than fifty yuan.

Article 246. Whoever forges, or without authority, uses the impression of any public or private seal or any signature, shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of the Articles relating to the offences of forg-

ing public and private documents.

Whoever utters any forged impression of any public or private seal, or any forged signature, or in abuse of authority, uses any genuine impression of any public or private seal, or any genuine signature, shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of the Articles relating to the offences of uttering forged public and private documents.

Article 247. (Repealed).

Article 248. Whoever forges any public seal shall be punished with imprisonment for a period or a fine not severer than three hundred yuan.

Article 249. Whoever forges any private seal shall be punished with imprisonment for a period or a fine not severer than three hundred yuan.

Article 250. An attempt to commit any offence under this Chapter shall

be punishable.

Whoever, with intent to utter the same, receives or accepts any public or private document, the impression of any seal, any signature or any public or private seal, which has been either forged or used by any person without or in abuse of authority, shall be deemed to have committed an attempt to utter the same.

Article 251. Whoever, for committing any offence under this Chapter has been sentenced to a punishment not lighter than imprisonment for a period in the second degree shall be deprived of his civil rights; when the offender has been sentenced to a lighter punishment he may be deprived

of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XIX.

OF OFFENCES RELATING TO MEASURES AND WEIGHTS.

Article 252. Whoever, with intent to use or sell the same, makes any weight or measures not conformable to the standard fixed by law, or alters any weights or measures which are conformable to such standard, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention and also with fine of not more three hundred yuan.

Whoever sells any measures or weights which he knows to be not conformable to the legal standard, shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 255. Whoever having to use measures or weights in his occupation, keeps in his possession any weights or measures which he knows to be not conformable to the legal standard, shall be punished with detention or fine of not more than fifty yuan.

Whoever uses any measures or weights not conformable to the legal standard and derives profit therefrom, shall be deemed to have committed

Article 254. Whoever, with intent to sell or use the same, makes without authority any measures or weights, shall be punished with fine of not more than thirty yuan, notwithstanding that such measures or weights are conformable to the legal standard; and whoever sells such measures or weights shall be punished with fine of not more than twice their price nor less than the price itself; if twice their price is less than fifty yuan, the fine shall be not more than fifty yuan, nor less than the price itself.

Article 255. An attempt to commit the offence under Article 252 shall

be punishable.

Article 256. Whoever commits the offence under Article 252 may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XX.

OF OFFENCES RELATING TO RELIGION AND THE DEAD.

Article 257. Whoever openly does any disrespectful act against any temple, monastery, nunnery, grave, or any place of worship, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Whoever interferes with any funeral rites or any religious service,

worship, or meeting shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 258. Whoever damages, abandons, or steals any corpse, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Whoever damages, abandons, or steals any bone or hair belonging to any corpse or any article placed on such corpse or deposited in the coffin, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Article 259. Whoever damages, abandons, or steals the corpse of an accendant shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not

lighter than the second degree.

Whoever damages, abandons, or steals any bone or hair belonging to the corpse of an ascendant or any article placed on such corpse or deposited in the coffin, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree.

Article 260. Whoever uncovers any grave, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or

fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 261. Whoever uncovers the grave of an ascendant, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Article 262. Whoever uncovers any grave and damages, abandons, or steals the corpse, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree.

Whoever uncovers any grave, and damages, abandons, or steals any bone or hair belonging to the corpse or any article placed on the corpse or deposited in the coffin, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Article 263. Whoever uncovers the grave of an ascendant and damages, abandons, or steals the corpse shall be punished with death or imprisonment for life or for a period in the first degree.

Whoever uncovers the grave of an ascendant and damages, abandons, or steals any bone or hair belonging to the corpse, or any article placed on the corpse or deposited in the coffin, shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

Article 264. An attempt to commit any offence under Articles 258 to 261, shall be punishable.

Article 265. Whoever commits any offence under Articles 259, 261 and 263. shall be deprived of his civil rights; whoever commits any other offence under this Chapter, may be deprived of his rights.

CHAPTER XXI.

OF OFFENCES RELATING TO OPIUM.

Article 266. Whoever manufactures or sells any opium, or, with intent to sell the same, either keeps in his possession or imports from any foreign country any opium, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree and fine of not more than five hundred yuan.

Article 267. Whoever manufactures or sells any instrument or apparatus suitable for the smoking of opium, or, with intent to sell the same, keeps in his possession or imports from any foreign country any such instrument or apparatus, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention.

Article 268. Whoever being a custom officer or assistant officer, imports or permits to be imported from any foreign country any opium of any instrument or apparatus suitable for the smoking of opium, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the third degree and fine of not more than one thousand yuan.

Article 269. Whoever provides a room for the purpose of allowing any person to smoke opium therein, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, and fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 270. Whoever cultivates any poppy plant with intent to manufacture opium, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 271. Whoever smokes opium, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one thousand yuan.

Article 272. Whoever being a police officer or assistant officer, has, in the course of his duty, knowledge of the commission of any offence under the last six preceding Articles and intentionally fails to take the proper measures promptly, shall be punished likewise in accordance with the provisions of those Articles.

Article 275. Whoever keeps in his possession any instrument or apparatus only used for the purpose of smoking of opium, shall be punished with fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 274. An attempt to commit any offence under Articles 266 to 271, shall be punishable.

Article 275. Whoever commits any offence under Articles 266 to 272, may be deprived of his civil rights, and if the offender is a public officer he shall also be removed from office.

CHAPTER XXII.

OF GAMBLING.

Article 276. Whoever gambles with any valuable thing as a stake, shall be punished with fine of not more than one thousand yuan. The same rule shall not apply to cases where a mere article of amusement or pleasure is the stake.

Instruments employed in gambling and money found on the persons gambling shall be deemed to be articles used in the commission of the offence.

Article 277. Whoever makes gambling a profession shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Article 278. Whoever for lucrative purposes allows an assembly of persons and provides a place for them to gamble therein shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree and fine of not more than five hundred yuan.

Article 279. Whoever issues lottery tickets, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, and

fine of not more than two hundred yuan.

Whoever acts as an intermediary in the sale of lottery tickets shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention and fine of not more than one thousand yuan.

Article 280. Whoever buys any lottery tickets shall be punished with

fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

When any profit has been derived therefrom, the offender shall be punished with fine of not more than twice the sum received nor less than the sum itself, and if twice the sum received is less than one hundred yuan, the fine shall be not more than one hundred yuan nor less than the sum received

Article 281. An attempt to commit any offence under Articles 278 to 280, shall be punishable.

Article 282. Whoever commits any offence under Articles 277 to 278, shall be deprived of his civil rights; whoever commits any offence under Article 279, may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XXIII.

OF OFFENCES AGAINST MORALITY.

Article 283. Whoever commits any indecent act against a male or female person under twelve years of age, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than three hundred nor less than thirty yuan.

Where such indecent act is committed by means of violence, threats, drugs, hypnotism, or by any other means that renders resistance impossible, the offender shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree, or fine of not more than five hundred nor less

than fifty yuan.

Article 284. Whoever commits any indecent act against a male or female person above the age of twelve years of age by means of violence, threats, drugs, hypnotism, or by any other means that renders resistance impossible, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than three hundred nor less than thirty yuan.

Article 285. Whoever has carnal knowledge of a woman by means of violence, threats, drugs, hypnotism, or by any other means that renders resistance impossible, commits rape and shall be punished with imprison-

ment for a period in the first or second degree.

Whoever has carnal knowledge of a female person under twelve years

of age shall be deemed to have committed rape.

Article 286. Whoever takes advantage of any person being of unsound mind or incapable of making resistance and commits any indecent act against, or has carnal knowledge of, the person, shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Articles 283, section 2, and Articles 284 and 285.

Article 287. When death or injury to any person results from committing any offence under the last four preceding Articles the offender shall be punished with:—

1. Death or imprisonment for life or for a period in the first degree, when death or grievous harm results;

2. Imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree, when infirmity results.

When from humiliation or mortification the person injured commits suicide or, in attempting to commit suicide, inflicts any injury on himself, the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of the last preceding sections.

Article 288. Whoever for lucrative purposes induces any woman belonging to a respectable family to have illicit intercourse with any person for hire, shall be punished with imprisonment in the fifth degree or detention,

and fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Whoever makes the commission of the offence under the last preceding section a profession, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to fifth degree and fine of not more than five hundred yuan.

Article 289. Whoever has carnal knowledge of a woman whose husband is living, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, or detention. The adultress shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 290. Whoever has carnal knowledge of any relative in the paternal line within a degree of mourning for not less than three months, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the

fourth degree.

Article 291. Whoever marries again during the life-time of his or her spouse shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or with detention; whoever marries any person whose spouse he or she knows to be living, shall be liable to same punishment.

Article 292 Whoever sells, or, with intent to sell the same, makes, keeps in this possession, or imports from any foreign country, any book, picture, or other article of an indecent nature, shall be punished with detention, or fine of not more than fifty yuan; whoever publicly exhibits such articles shall be liable to the same punishment.

When any profit is derived therefrom, the offender shall be punished with fine of not more than twice the sum received nor less than the sum itself; if twice the sum received is less than fifty yuan, the fine shall not

be more than fifty yuan nor less than the sum received.

Article 293. An attempt to commit any offence under under Articles 283

to 286 shall be punishable.

Article 294. Prosecution for any offence under Articles 283 to 286 shall be instituted only on complaint of the injured party or of a relative of such party.

Prosecution for any offence under Article 289 shall be instituted only on complaint of the husband; provided that, where the husband has connived at the adultery of his wife or, for benefits received, has compromised the offence, his complaint is null and void.

Prosecution for the offence under Article 290 shall be instituted only

on complaint of an ascendant or the husband of the woman.

Article 295. Whoever, having committed any offence under this Chapter, has been sentenced to a punishment not lighter than imprisonment for a period in the second degree, shall be deprived of his civil rights; if the offender has been sentenced to a lighter punishment, he may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XXIV.

OF POLLUTING DRINKING WATER.

Article 296. Whoever pollutes any water supplied for drinking purposes so as to render it unfit for such purposes, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 297. Whoever pollutes any water supplied to the public for drinking purposes through any waterpipe or aqueduct, or pollutes the source of it, so as to render it unfit for such purposes, shall be punished with

imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Article 298. Whoever pollutes any water supplied for drinking purposes by placing any substance therein injurious to health, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, or with detention.

Article 299. Whoever pollutes any water supplied for drinking purposes through any waterpipe or aqueduct, or pollutes the source of it, by placing therein any substance injurious to health shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree.

Article 300. Whoever by damaging or obstructing any waterpipe, aqueduct, or the source from which water is supplied, cuts off the supply of drinking water to the public for two or more days, shall be punished

with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

Article 301. When two or more persons combine to cut off for two or more days the supply of drinking water to the public, the ringleader shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan; the other offenders shall be punished with detention or fine of not more than thirty yuan.

Article 302 An attempt to commit any offence under Articles 296

to 301 shall be punishable.

Article 303. When death or injury to any person results from committing any offence under Articles 296 to 299, the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing injury shall apply, and the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 304. Whoever for committing any offence under this Chapter has been sentenced to a punishment not lighter than imprisonment for a period in the second degree, shall be deprived of his civil rights; where the offender has been sentenced to a lighter punishment he may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XXV.

OF OFFENCES AGAINST PUBLIC HEALTH.

Article 305. Whoever, contrary to any quarantine regulations, lands or unloads anything from a vessel arriving from port, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree, detention, or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

When the master of a vessel or any one representing him commits the offence under the last preceding section, or, knowing that the same is being committed by others, fails to prevent it, he shall be punished with im prisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than two thousand yuan.

Article 306. Whoever knowingly sells any article injurious to health whether eatables, beverages, utensils employed for eating or drinking, or toys, shall be punished with fine of not more than twice the price nor less than the price itself, if twice the price is less than fifty yuan, the fine

shall be not more than fifty yuan nor less than the price itself.

Article 307. Whoever knowingly sells any drug or medical preparation contrary to any law or ordinance, shall be punished with fine of not more than twice the price nor less than the price itself; if twice the price is less than fifty yuan the fine shall be not more than fifty yuan nor less than the price itself.

Article 308. Whoever without permission from the authorities practises medicine as a profession, shall be punished with fine of not more than five hundred yuan.

Article 309. An attempt to commit the offence under Article 305 shall be punishable.

Article 310. Whoever commits the offence under Article 305, section 2, may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XXVI.

OF HOMICIDE AND CAUSING INJURY.

Article 311. Whoever commits the offence of homicide shall be punished with death or imprisonment for life or for a period in the first degree.

Article 312. Whoever commits the offence of homicide against an ascendant shall be punished with death.

Article 313. Whoever causes injury to any person shall be punished with :--

1. Imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree, when death or grievous harm results;

Imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree, when infirmity results:

Imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, when slight injury results.

Article 314. Whoever causes injury to an ascendant shall be punish. ed with :-

- 1. Death or imprisonment for life, when death or grievous harm results;
- 2. Death, imprisonment for life or for a period in the first degree, when infirmity results;
- Imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree, when slight injury results.

Article 315. Whoever being present at the commission of the offence under either of the last two preceding Articles, encourages the same, notwithstanding that he himself did not participate in it, shall be deemed to be an accessory to such offence.

Article 316. When two or more persons take part at the same time in any act which causes injury to any person, such offenders shall be deemed to be joint-principals.

When the act causes injury to two or more persons at the same time such offenders shall be deemed to be joint-principals as regards the most serious injury caused.

Whoever being present at the commission of the offence under either of the last two preceding sections, encourages the same, shall be deemed to be accessory to such offence, notwithstanding that his participation in the commission of the offence cannot be proved.

Article 317. Whoever commits any act of violence against an ascendant without causing him any injury, shall be punished with imprisonment for

a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Article 318. Whoever engages in a duel shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

When death or injury to any person results from the commission of the offence under the last preceding section, the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of intentional nomicide or intentionally causing injury as the case may be; when a number of persons engage in a duel they shall be deemed to have committed a riot.

Article 319. Whoever attends a duel shall, without regard to the nature of his position in relation to the duel, be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention, or fine of not more than one hundred yuan. Whoever knowingly provides a place for the fighting of a duel shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 320. Whoever instigates any person to commit suicide, or takes the life of any person with his consent, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Whoever aids any person to commit suicide, or takes the life of any person at his request, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from

the third to the fifth degree.

Whoever commits any offence under this Article in consequence of an agreement made with the deceased to die together may be exempted from punishment.

Article 321. Whoever instigates an ascendant to commit suicide, or takes his life with his consent, shall be punished with imprisonment for

life or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

Whoever aids an ascendant to commit suicide, or takes his life at his request, shall be punished with imprisonment from the first to the third degree.

Article 322. Whoever instigates any person to inflict any self-injury, or inflicts any injury on any person with his consent, shall be punished with:—

1. Imprisonment for a period from the third to the first degree, when death or grievous harm results;

 Imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan, when infirmity results;

3. Imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan, when slight injury results

Whoever aids any person to inflict any self-injury or inflicts injury on any person at his request, shall be punished with:—

- Imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan, where death or grievous harm results;
- 2. Imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan, when infirmity results;
- Detention or fine of not more than fifty yuan, when slight injury results.

Article 323. Whoever instigates an ascendant to inflict any self-injury, or inflicts any injury on him with his consent, shall be punished with —

 Imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree, when death or grievous harm results;

 Imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree, when infirmity results;

3. Imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, when slight injury results.

Whoever aids an ascendant to commit any self-injury or inflicts any injury on an ascendant at his request, shall be punished with:—

- 1. Imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree, when death or grievous harm results;
- 2. Imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, when infirmity results;
- Imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan, when slight injury results.

Article 324. Whoever through negligence causes death or injury to any person, shall be punished with:—

- Fine of not more than five hundred yuan, when death or grievous harm results;
- 2. Fine of not more than three hundred yuan, when infirmity results;
- 3. Fine of not more than one hundred yuan, when slight injury results.

Article 325. Whoever through negligence causes death or injury to an ascendant shall be punished with :—

- 1. Imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than one thousand nor less than one hundred yuan, when death or grievous harm results;
- 2. Imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than five hundred yuan, when infirmity results;
- 3. Imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan, when slight injury results.

Article 326. Whoever fails to give the necessary attention to his occupation and in consequence causes death or injury to any person, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention, or fine of not more than two thousand yuan.

Article 327. An attempt to commit any offence under Articles 311 and 312, Article 318, section 1, and Articles 319 to 321, shall be punishable.

Article 328. Whoever makes preparation or conspires to commit the offence under Article 311 shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Whoever makes preparation or conspires to commit the offence under Article 318, shall be punished with detention, or fine of not more than fifty yuan.

The punishment for any offence under the last two preceding sections may be remitted on account of the circumstances of the case.

Article 329. Whoever makes preparation or conspires to commit the offence under Article 312, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Article 330. Prosecution for any offence under Article 314, sub-section 3, Article 317, and Article 325, sub-section 3, shall be instituted only on complaint of the injured party.

Article 331. Whoever commits any offence under Article 312, Article 314, sub-section 1 and 2, and Article 326, shall be deprived of his civil rights; whoever commits any offence under any other Article of this Chapter except Article 324, may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XXVII.

OF PROCURING ABORTION.

Article 332. Any woman who being pregnant procures abortion by means of drugs or other methods shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 333. Whoever procures abortion for a woman at her request or with her consent shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not

severer than the fourth degree, or detention.

Article 334. Whoever does any of the following acts:-

- By means of violence, threats, or fraud, causes a woman to procure abortion.
- By means of violence, threats, or fraud, procures abortion for a woman at her request or with her consent.
- By means of violence, threats, or fraud, procures abortion for a woman without her consent.
- 4. By committing violence or threats against a woman whom he knows to be pregnant, causes her to suffer miscarriage.

Shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to

the fifth degree.

Article 335. Whoever being a medical practitioner, mid-wife, pharmacist or dealer in medicine, commits the offence under Article 333, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Any of such persons who commits the offence under Article 334 by means of fraud, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the

second or third degree.

Article 336. An attempt to commit any offence under Article 334, sub-

sections 1 to 3, shall be punishable.

Article 337. When death or grevious harm to the woman results from committing the offence under Article 333, the offender shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

When death or injury to the woman results from committing the offence under Article 334, the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing injury shall apply, and the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 338. Whoever commits any offence under this Chapter may be

deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

OF ABANDONMENT.

Article 339. Whoever being bound by law, ordinance, or contract, to help, support, or protect any aged person, child, cripple, or infirm or sick person, abandons such person, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Article 340. Whoever abandons an ascendant shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

Article 341. Whoever having found on his own land or at any place under his control any abandoned aged person, child, cripple, or infirm or

sick person, fails to render the necessary protection as well as to report to the police or other competent authorities, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Whoever being a police officer or other competent authority, fails, in the performance of his official duties, to take the necessary measures or render the necessary protection promptly, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Article 342. When death or injury to any person results from committing any offence under Articles 339 and 340, the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing injury shall apply, and the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 343. Whoever commits the offence under Article 340, shall be deprived of his civil rights; whoever commits any other offence under this Chapter may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XXIX.

OF UNLAWFUL ARREST AND UNLAWFUL IMPRISONMENT.

Article 344. Whoever arrests or imprisons any person without authority, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Article 345. Whoever arrests or imprisons an ascendant without authority, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree.

Article 346. Whoever being a judge, Procurator, police officer, officer of any prison, administrative officer, or assistant officer, arrests or imprisons any person in abuse of his authority shall be punished with imprisonment in the second or third degree.

Article 347. When death or injury to any person results from committing any offence under this Chapter, the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing injury shall apply, and the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 348. Whoever commits any offences under this Chapter may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XXX.

OF ABDUCTION AND KIDNAPPING.

Article 349. Whoever by violence, threats, or fraud, allures or takes away any female person, or any male person under twenty years of age, commits abduction, and shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

Whoever commits abduction without violence, threats, or fraud, is guilty of kidnapping and shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Whoever kidnaps any person under sixteen years of age shall be deemed to have committed abduction.

Article 350. Whoever removes from the jurisdiction of the Republic any female person, or any male person under twenty years of age, whom he has abducted, shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

Where such person has only been kidnapped by the offender, the punishment shall be imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

Article 351. Whoever for lucrative purposes abducts any female person or any male person shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

Where only kidnapping has been committed the offender shall be pun-

ished with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

Article 352. Whoever for lucrative purposes removes from the jurisdiction of the Republic any female person, or any male person under twenty years of age, whom he has abducted, shall be punished with death or imprisonment for life or for a period in the first degree.

Where such person has only been kidnapped the offender shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second

degree.

Article 353. Whoever under any previous arrangement receives or conceals a person who has been abducted or kidnapped shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of the last four preceding Articles.

Where there has been no previous arrangement the punishment shall

be :--

1. Imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, if he receives or conceals any person who has been abducted or kidnapped within the meaning of Article 349, Article 350, section 2, or Article 351, section 2;

Imprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree, if he
receives or conceals any person who has been abducted or kidnapped
within the meaning of Article 350, section 1, Article 351, section 1,

or Article 352.

Article 354. An attempt to commit any offence under this Chapter shall be punishable.

Article 355. Prosecution for any offence under Articles 349 and 353

shall be instituted only on complaint of the injured party.

When the person abducted or entited has been married to the offender, no complaint shall have any effect unless the parties have been divorced.

Article 356. Whoever for lucrative purposes commits any offence under this Chapter shall be deprived of his civil rights; if he commits such offence not for such purposes he may be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XXXI.

OF OFFENCES RELATING TO PERSONAL SAFETY, CREDIT, REPUTATION AND SECRETS.

Article 357. Whoever threatens any person by putting him in fear of injury to life, person, liberty, reputation, or property, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Whoever threatens any person by putting him in fear of injury to any

of his relatives, shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 358. Whoever by violence or threats causes any person to doanything he is not legally bound to do, or prevents any person from doing anything he is legally entitled to do, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 358. Whoever by circulating rumours, or by means of fraud, injures the personal or business credit of any person, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of

not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 360. Whoever publicly insults any person by stating certain facts shall, irrespective of the truth or falsity thereof, be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree, detention, or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Article 361. Whoever commits any offence under Articles 357, 359 and 360 against an ascendant, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree, or detention.

Whoever commits the offence under Article 358 against an ascendant shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the

fifth degree.

Article 362. Whoever without lawful excuse opens, conceals, or destroys any closed letter belonging to another, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan.

Whoever without lawful excuse publishes any confidential document, writing, map, or drawing belonging to another, shall be liable to the

same punishment.

Article 363. Whoever, by virtue of his profession, present or past, as a Buddhist or Taoist priest, medical practitioner, pharmacist, dealer in medicine, midwife, lawyer, notary public, has acquired knowledge of the secrets of another and discloses such secrets without lawful excuse, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention or fine of not more than one hundred yuan. If such person publishes the same without lawful excuse, he shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 364. An attempt to commit any offence under Articles 358 and

359 shall be punishable.

Article 365. Prosecution for any offence under this Chapter, with the exception of Article 358, shall be instituted only on complaint of the injured party.

Article 366. Whoever commits any offence under this Chapter may

be deprived of his civil rights.

CHAPTER XXXII.

OF THEFT AND ROBBERY.

Article 367. Whoever without the consent of the owner takes away any property, with intent to make it his own or the property of a third party, commits theft and shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Article 368. Whoever commits theft by:-

1. Breaking into any dwelling house, structure, mine, or vessel, which belongs to another and is guarded or occupied at the time.

2. Three or more persons acting together.

Shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

Article 369. (Repealed).

Article 370. Whoever by violence or threats takes away any property against the will of the owner, with intent to make it his own or the property of a third party, commits robbery and shall be punished with amprisonment for a period from the first to the third degree.

Whoever, by drugs, hypnotism, or other methods, renders the owner unable to resist and then takes away his property against his will, shall

be liable to the same punishment.

Article 371. Whoever, having committed theft, commits violence or threats there and then, in order to defend the stolen preperty, escape arrest, or destroy evidence, shall be deemed to have committed robbery.

Article 372. Apart from Articles 370, 375 and 377, whoever by violence or threats causes a third party to acquire an undue interest in any property shall be deemed to have committed robbery.

Whoever commits the offence under the last preceding section by drugs, hypnotism, or any other method which renders resistance impossible, shall also be deemed to have committed robbery.

Article 373. Whoever commits robbery by:-

Breaking into any dwelling house, structure, mine, or vessel which belongs to another, and which is guarded or occupied at the time.

Three or more persons acting together.

3. Causing injury to any person other than death or grievous harm.

Shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for a period not lighter than the second degree.

Article 374. Whoever commits robbery:

1. On the highway by three or more persons acting together.

With causing death or grievous harm to any person, or causing injury to two or more persons.

With committing rape there and then.

Shall be punished with death or imprisonment for life or for a period in the first degree.

Article 375. (Repealed)

Article 376. Whoever in committing robbery commits the offence of intentional homicide, shall be punished with death or imprisonment for life.

Article 377. Whoever commits theft of any property either partly or wholly belonging to himself which on account of any right arising from joint ownership, pledge, of other rights in rem. or in compliance with any order of any public office, is in the bona fide possession of another person, shall be punished with fine of not more than twice the value of such property nor less than its simple value; in case twice its value is less than fifty yuan, the fine shall be not more than fifty yuan nor less than the value of such property.

Whoever commits the oftence under the last preceding section by breaking into any dwelling house, structure, mine, or vessel which belongs to another and is guarded or occupied at the time, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention, and fine as pro-

vided in the last preceding section.

Where the offence is committed by force the offender shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or

detention, and fine as provided in section 1 of this Article.

Article 378. Electricity as well as any thing the private ownership of which is forbidden shall be deemed to be property in respect of the commission of any offence under this Chapter.

Article 379. An attempt to commit any offence under this Chapter, with the exception of Article 373, sub-section 3, and Article 374, sub-

section 3, shall be punishable.

Article 380. Whoever commits any offence under Article 368 to 376 shall be deprived of his civil rights; whoever commits any other offence under this Chapter may be deprived of his civil rights.

Article 381. Where the offence under Article 367 or Article 377, section 1, is committed against a lineal relative or the spouse or any other relative living in the same house, the offender shall be exempted from

punishment.

Prosecution of any offence under the Articles referred to in last preceding section against any other relative shall be instituted only on complaint of the injured party.

The provisions of the last two preceding sections shall not apply to those who are joint offenders with any relative of the injured party.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

OF FRAUD.

Article 352. Whoever by means of false pretences or intimidation causes any person to deliver property to him with intent to make it his own or the property of a third party, commits fraud and shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Whoever by any means specified in the last preceding section obtains or causes a third party to obtain an unlawful interest in any property,

shall be liable to the same punishment.

Article 383. Whoever with intent to benefit himself or a third party, or to injure his principal, acts in any way contrary to his duties in the management of the affairs of such principal and thereby causes damage to the property of the latter, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or with fine of not more than one thousand yuan nor less than one hundred yuan.

Article 384. Whoever by taking advantage of the inexperience of any person under sixteen years of age, or of the unsoundness of mind of any person, causes the property either of such person or of a third party to be delivered to him, or acquires an unlawful interest in such property or causes a third party to acquire such interest, or damages the property of such person, shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of the last two preceding Articles.

Article 385. When any offence under the last three preceding Articles, is committed by three or more persons acting together each of them shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

Article 386. Whoever being a public officer, with intent to benefit himself or a third party or to cause injury to the state or any public office, acts contrary to his official duties in the discharge of any public service and thereby causes damage to any property belonging to the state or any public office, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

Article 387. (Repealed).

Article 388. An attempt to commit any offence under this Chapter, shall be punishable.

Article 389. Whoever commits any offence under Articles 385 to 387, shall be deprived of his civil rights; whoever commits any other offence under this Chapter may be deprived of his civil rights.

Article 390. The provisions of Articles 377, section 1, and Articles 378

and 381 apply to any offence under this Chapter mutatis mutandis.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

OF CRIMINAL MISAPPROPRIATION.

Article 391. Whoever appropriates to his own use any property which has come under his management or control or is held under the joint ownership of himself and some other person, or which being subject to a right of ownership, pledge, or other right in rem, residing in another person has come into his possession in accordance with any law or ordinance or under a contract, or through the management of the affairs of others, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree.

Whoever appropriates to his own use any property which is entrusted to his care by the order of a public office, shall be liable to the same punish-

ment, notwithstanding that he has the right of ownership or possession in

such property.

Article 392 Whoever appropriates to his own use any property which has come under his management or control or is held under the joint ownership of himself and some other person, or which, being subject to a right of ownership, pledge, or other right in rem, residing in another person, has come into his possession by virtue of his official functions or private occupation, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree; whoever not engaged in such functions or occupation, jointly commits such offence shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 33, section 1.

Article 393. Whoever has found and appropriates to his own use any lost property, or drifting articles, or any property of another which has left the possession of its owner, shall be punished with fine of not more than twice its value nor less than its simple value; if twice its value is less than fifty yuan, the fine shall be not more than fifty yuan nor less than its value.

When any person through his own mistake obtains bona fide possession of the property of another, or when through the mistake of another the property of another is delivered to him, such property shall be deemed to

be lost property.

Article 394. An attempt to commit any offence under Articles 391 and

392 shall be punishable.

Article 395. Whoever commits any offence under Articles 391 and

392 may be deprived of his civil rights.

Article 396. The provisions of Article 377, section 1, and Articles 378 and 381 shall apply to any offence under this Chapter mutatis mutandis.

CHAPTER XXXV.

OF RECEIVING STOLEN PROPERTY AND PROPERTY UNLAWFULLY OBTAINED.

Article 397. Whoever accepts as a present any stolen property or property obtained by any unlawful means, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Whoever conveys, accepts for deposit, buys, or assists in disposing of such property, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the

second or third degree,

Whoever derives any profit from the commission of the offence under the last preceding section, shall, in addition to the punishment prescribed in that section, be punished with fine of not more than twice the amount of the profit nor less than its simple amount; if twice the amount of such profit is less than fifty yuan, the fine shall be not more than fifty yuan, nor less than such profit.

Article 398. Whoever commits any offence under the last preceding Article in connection with property obtained through committing any offence under Article 377 or those Articles to which the provisions of Article 377, section 1, apply mutatis mutandis, shall be punished with fine in accordance

with the provisions of section 1 of Article 377.

Article 399. An attempt to commit any offence under this Chapter

shall be punishable.

Article 400. Whoever makes the commission of the offence under section 2 of Article 397 a profession shall be deprived of his civil rights; with this exception, whoever commits any offence under this Chapter may be deprived of his civil rights.

Article 401. The provisions of Article 377, section 1, and Article 381, sections 1 and 3, shall apply mutatis mutandis to any offence under this

Chapter.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

OF MISCHIEF.

Article 402. (Repealed).

Article 403. Whoever destroys any public document in the custody of any public office or public officer or damages any public seal, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the second to the fourth degree.

Article 404. Whoever destroys any document relating to the rights of obligations of any other person, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than three hundred yuan nor less than thirty yuan.

Article 405. Whoever damages any structure, mine, or vessel belonging to another, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period from the third to the fifth degree, or fine of not more than one thousand yuan nor less than one hundred yuan.

Whoever damages any structure, mine, or vessel, as specified in Article 186, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the second or third degree.

When death or injury to any person results from committing any offence under this Article, the provisions of the Article relating to the offence of causing injury shall apply and the offender shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.

Article 406. Whoever commits any of the following acts:-

- 1. Damaging or injuring any property belonging to another other than those properties specified in the last preceding section.
- Causing any gas, steam, or other volatile substance, or any liquid substance, belonging to another person to escape, or by any other means rendering the use of the same impossible.
- Releasing any animal which is the property of another person, and thereby causing the loss of the same.

Shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Article 407. Whoever damages, injures, causes to escape, or causes the loss of, any property of his own which is subject to a right in rem residing in another person, or any property which is in the possession of another person or is entrusted to his own care in accordance with the order of any public office, shall be punished with fine of not more than twice the value of such property nor less than its simple value; when twice its value is less than fifty yuan the fine shall be not more than fifty yuan, nor less than the value of such property.

Article 408. The provisions of Articles 378 and 381 shall apply mutatis mutandis to any offence under Article 404 and Article 405, sections 1 and 2.

Article 409. An attempt to commit any offence under Articles 402 to 404, Article 405, sections 1 and 2, and Articles 406 and 408, shall be punishable.

Article 410. Whoever for committing any offence under this Chapter has been sentenced to a punishment not lighter than imprisonment for a period in the second degree shall be deprived of his civil rights; where the offender has been sentenced to a lighter punishment he may be deprived of his civil rights.

Article 411. Prosecution of any offence under Articles 406 and 407 shall be instituted only on complaint of the injured party.

THE PROVISIONAL CRIMINAL CODE AMENDMENT ACT.

Article 1. Article 15 of the Provisional Criminal Code shall not be applicable to cases where the offender is attacked by an ascendant, unless the attack is committed:—

 Out of cruelty, by his stepmother, or, if born in concubinage, by his father's wife, or

 Out of conduct incompatible with the continuance of the tie of relationship or out of cruelty, by an ascendant on the husband's side.

Article 2. Whoever harbours or conceals any offender who has been temporarily released on bail shall be punished with imprisonment for a period not severer than the fourth degree or detention or fine of not more than three hundred yuan.

Whoever, with intent to commit the offence under the last preceding section, personates the offender and then surrenders to the authorities, shall be liable to the same punishment.

Whoever being a relative of the offender, commits for the benefit of such offender any offence under the last two preceding sections, shall be exempted from punishment.

Article 3. Where any offence relating to carnal knowledge provided in Articles 285 and 286 of the Provisional Criminal Code is committed jointly by two or more persons, the offenders in case of carnal knowledge having in fact been committed, shall be punished with death or imprisonment for life.

Article 4. Whoever commits rape with intentional homicide shall be punished with death.

Article 5. Whoever compels any female relative to have illicit intercourse with any person for hire or to become a prostitute shall be punished with:—

1. Imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree or detention, when she is his daughter, grand-daughter, daughter-in-law, or grand-daughter-in-law.

2. Imprisonment for a period not severer than in the third degree, when she is his wife or any descendant, other than those mentioned above, who is living in the same house with him and under his superintendence.

Article 6. Whoever has illicit intercourse with any female belonging to a respectable family and having no husband, shall be punished with imprisonment for a period in the fifth degree, or detention; and such female shall be liable to the same punishment.

Prosecution of the offence under the last preceding section shall be instituted only on the complaint of an ascendant of the female; if the ascendant has connived at the offence or, for benefit received, has compromised it, his complaint shall be null and void.

Article 7. Whoever through committing any offence under Articles 289 and 290 of the Provisional Criminal Code and the last preceding Article, section 1, commits some other offence, shall also be punished for the former offence, notwithstanding that no complaint respecting it is made to the authorities by any person having the right to do so.

Article 8. Where only slight injury is inflicted by an ascendant on a descendant, the punishment for the offence may on account of the circumstances of the case be remitted.

Promulgated on December 24th, 1914.

Article 9. Whoever being bound by law, ordinance, or contract, to help, support, or protect any person, sells such person with or without his or her consent, shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of Articles 349, 351, 352 and 355 of the Provisional Criminal Code.

Whoever under a previous arrangement receives or conceals such person, shall be punished in accordance with the provisions of the Articles enumerated in the last preceding sections; where there has been no such arrangement, the punishment shall be as provided in Article 353, section 2, of the Provisional Criminal Code.

Article 10. When three or more persons carrying arms jointly commit any offence under the first sections respectively of Articles 349 to 352 of The Provisional Criminal Code, they shall be liable to the punishment prescribed for the offence increased by one degree. When the punishment prescribed for the offence is imprisonment for life it may be increased to the punishment of death.

Article 11. A father or mother in the exercise of parental rights may for the purpose of correcting his or her son apply to the court to inflict a punishment of not more than six months' confinement, provided that there is none of such circumstances as mentioned in sub-section 1 of Article 1 of this Act.

Article 12. The term "wife" in section 2 and sub-section 1 of section 3 of Article 82 of the Provisional Criminal Code shall include a concubine; the term "a woman whose husband is living" in Article 289 of the aforesaid code, shall include a concubine whose master of the family is living.

The term "ascendant on the husband's side" in sub-section 2 of Article 1 of this Act shall include an ascendant on the side of the master of the family in the case of concubine; the term "wife" "daughter-in-law", "grand-daughter-in-law" and "any descendant, other than those mentioned above, who is living in the same house" in Article 5 of this Act shall include respectively one's own concubine, concubine of one's son or grand-son or of any other descendant living in the same house, and the term "descendant" in Article 8 of this Act shall be applicable to a concubine of a descendant.

Article 13. An attempt to commit the offence under Article 9 of this Act shall be punishable.

Article 14. Whoever commits the offence under Article 4, or, for lucrative purposes, commits the offence under Article 9 of this Act, shall be deprived of his civil rights; whoever commits any offence under Articles 2. sections 1, and Articles 2, 5 and 9 of this Act may be deprived of his civil rights.

Article 15. The provisions of this Act shall come into force on the day of promulgation.

CHAPTER XVII.

COMMUNICATIONS.

I. RAILWAYS.

China's railway history began with the Woosung Railway, of 2 ft. 6 in. gauge, which was built by foreign enterprise and was formally opened on June 30, 1876. It was subsequently "redeemed" by the Chinese, and when the last instalment of the purchase money was paid in October, 1877, the

rails were torn up and shipped to Formosa.

Four years later, however, a railway was put into operation from the Tongshan mines to Hsu Ku Chuang. In 1886 this short line was extended to Lutai and almost immediately was built on to Tientsin, which was reached in 1889. A northward extension was started toward Shanhaikuan in 1891 and was pushed to Shahouso, 57 miles north of the Great Wall at the time the war with Japan in 1895 interrupted operations. from Tientsin was completed in 1897. But the indemnity which China was forced to forced to pay Japan practically exhausted Imperial resources. At the same time her military impotence in the face of Japan created the impression that China had insufficient national force to prevent disintegration. As a consequence the European nations engaged in a very active intrigue for the privilege of building railways in China, believing that the region so occupied would in time fall under the protection of the nation building the railway. This campaign of intrigue is known as the "battle of concessions." The immediate results were concessions to Russia, France and Germany to build respectively the Chinese Eastern, the Yunnan and the Shantung railways as enterprises almost purely foreign and private, while England secured what at that time virtually amounted to administrative control over the existing Imperial railways, by means of a loan whose purpose was to extend that line toward Mukden.

These economic invasions coupled with other factors roused a great wave of fanatical resentment throughout North China, known as the Boxer Uprising. This taught foreign enterprise the necessity of caution and con-

This taught foreign enterprise the necessity of caution and consideration for Chinese feeling. Just before this, the Hay negotiations providing for the "Open Door" in China had been agreed to. Chinese skill in negotiation also came to the fore, and during the eight years following the Boxer trouble, succeeded in wresting better and better terms from the foreign interests. Thus all of the agreements negotiated during that period acknowledge ownership to vest in the Chinese Government. Beginning with 1908 all contracts yield complete administrative control to the Chinese Government, with the sole reservation that skilled foreigners shall be employed in certain important positions. However, the tactics which made these terms possible to obtain had fostered a movement on the part of provinces and local gentry for the building of lines by purely Chinese resources. But Chinese law is in fact merely the law of custom. There is no effective method of holding fiscal representatives to strict accountability for funds. Hence the "local movement" has been a lamentable failure, so far as construction was concerned. This fact led to the Imperial Edict of May 1911, which ordered that all trunk lines under construction or projected, were to be taken over by the Government, while branch lines were "to be allowed to be undertaken by the people according to their ability." This order had special reference to the line from Hankow into Szechuan and to the Canton-Hankow line. Resistance by local interests led to a rallying of all elements hostile to the Manchu rule, and came to a head in the Revolution of 1911, which began in October and resulted in the abdication of the Manchus in February, 1912.

Under the Republic the railway programme has proceeded under two heads: (1) extensive contracts for new construction and (2) welding of existing lines into a national system. Under the latter head, work began with the unification of accounts and statistics. A commission was appointed in 1913 under the presidency of Yeh Kung-ch'o and C. C. Wang, and the services of Dr. Henry C. Adams, of the United States Interstate Commerce Commission, as adviser were secured. As a result of its labours the various railway systems of whatever nationality have adopted a uniform system of accounts and statistics recommended by the commission. Reports dealing with the statistics of the Government Railways in China have been issued beginning in 1915 and continuing to date.

Almost at the same time began the efforts to weld the services of the lines into a unit. The first step taken was to call a meeting of the Traffic Managers and the Chief Accountants of the trunk lines for the purpose of arranging uniform rules for the sale of "through" passenger tickets and the checking of baggage. This group is known as the Through Traffic Conference. During the same year, 1913 similar arrangements were made to include the South Manchurian, Korean and Imperial Railways of Japan in the arrangements. The following year the plan was connected up with the Trans-Siberian railway and the railways of Europe. In 1915 Through domestic and foreign Parcels service was added to the scope of the Conference, and the rudiments for interchange of rolling stock were agreed upon. A "Collect-on-Delivery" feature was added in 1917. In 1918 the work of making a settlement between the participating lines was lodged in a special Bureau created in the Ministry of Communications. At the same time a "Through Traffic Administration" was created in the Ministry to facilitate through arrangements for goods traffic, and the Clearing House was made a section of it. During 1919 a uniform classification for goods, to be used in Through traffic was worked out and arrangements were made for a general interchange of rolling stock. Interchange of rolling stock began on January 1, 1920 and the accounting for it is done in the Clearing house. Through-invoicing of goods will begin January 1, 1921 with the accounting to be done by the Clearing House. In fact through-invoicing of certain special commodities was commenced July 1, 1920. All distances are given in kilometres and weights in Metric tons or kilograms.

The principal cause of delay to through-goods service and interchange of rolling-stock was the diversity of type which exists upon the different lines, due to differences of nationality. This makes repair of cars away from home difficult and expensive. In order to overcome this difficulty, a Commission on Railway Technics was organized in 1917 to study the subject of standardization in this field. In the autumn of 1919, Mr. T. R. Johnson, of England, Mr. F. H. Clark, of America, M. Taton of France, and later, Mr. T. Ohmura of Japan, were engaged as advisers to this Their labours have resulted so far in the adoption of a standard car of forty tons capacity, both open and closed type, same with a wheel of 33 inches diameter. Minimum side and overhead clearance has been practically agreed upon. Other subjects actively under review are, standard rail section, standard cross section of track, and maximum tolerance for coupler height. Another section of the same Commission has been drawing up uniform rules for train movement, especial reference being given to hand, flag and lantern signals. The subject of fixed signals is more difficult, for three different types are already in use. Several years will be required to complete the programme of standardization which is now immediately ahead, but the Ministry of Communications realizes fully that the task is much easier at present than it will be when a greater

length of trunk lines are in operation, supposing that new lines follow their own designs as did the old

On the side of construction the Republic almost immediately made a series of important contracts for lines in south and interior China.

RAILWAY CONTRACTS IN 1913.

Tatung-Chengtu Railway.—Preliminary contract signed on August 14, 1913, by representatives of the Société Belge des Chemins de Fer en Chine, and the Société Française de Construction et Exploitation des Chemins de Fer en China.

(A French railway from Yunnanfu to Chengtu is projected, and when it and the Chengtu-Tatung Railway are completed there will be through communication between French Indo-China and Kalgan.) The length of this railway (from Tatung to Chengtu) will be approximately 960 miles. It will connect at 'Tatung with the extension of the Peking-Kalgan Railway, and at Chengtu with the Hukuang Railways, and with the projected

French line to Yunnanfu.

Sinyang-Pukow Railway.—The final agreement for this railway, the concession for which was granted to the British in 1898, was signed by the Minister of Communications and the representative of the British and Chinese Corporation on November 14, 1913. The railway will be between 250 and 300 miles in length, according to the route finally selected. The agreement provides for a loan of £3,000,000 at 5 per cent interest and 5 per cent commission, redeemable in forty years. Terminal at Wu-I has been partially constructed, but materials on hand were sold to the Tientsin

Pukow when the War put a stop to further funds.

Shasi-Singyi Railway .- Contract signed between Lord ffrench, as 16resentative of Messrs Pauling and Co., and the Minister of Communications on December 18, 1913. The railway is to start from a point on the Yangtze opposite Shasi, and to terminate at Singvi in Kweichow, touching en route Changteh, Yuenchow, and Kweiyang. A branch line will connect Changteh with Changsha, and it is probable that the Singvi terminus will eventually be linked up with Yunnan by a projected French railway. At Shasi the new railway will connect directly, or by branch line, with the . Hukuang system. The line will be about 800 miles in length, and will be pledged as security to the builders, who will construct it on a percentage of profit basis.

German Lines .- Towards the end of December it was announced that the German Government had concluded an agreement with the Chinese Government for the construction of two railways: (1) From Kaomi on the Shantung Railway, via Ichowfu to Hanchwang, the intersecting point of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway and the Grand Canal. (2) A line connecting the Tientsin-Pukow and the Peking-Hankow Railways between Tsi-

nanfu and Shuntehfu. Estimated capital for both lines, £3,500,000.

Sino-French Undertaking.—La Banque Industrielle de Chine signed a contract in November, 1913, for a loan of 150,000,000 francs, of which 60,000,000 frs. were to be spent on harbour works at Pukow, and the same sum for the construction of a bridge over the Yangtze connecting Wuchang and Hankow. Early in 1914 another agreement was made by this Bank for the construction of a railway from Yamchow (near Pakhoi) via Nanning, Posé and Singyi to Yunnanfu, and thence via Weining to Chungking -an aggregate distance of 1,000 miles. The first loan is to be for £4,000. 000 at 5 per cent.

RAILWAY CONTRACTS IN 1914.

Nanking-Hunan Railway.—In March, 1914, an agreement was signed between the Chinese Government and the British and Chinese Corporation for the construction of a railway from Nanking to Hunan, connecting with the Canton-Hankow Railway at Chuchow, south of Changsha. The line will run via Ningkwo. Hueichow and Nanchang to Pinghsiang, with branches to Wuhu. Hangchow and Kuangtechow, an estimated total length of 1,000 miles. The Pinghsiang-Chuchow line is to be incorporated as an integral part of the new railway. Under the agreement the Chinese Government takes over the Anhui Provincial Railway. The amount of the loan was to be £8,000,000, redeemable in 45 years. The engineer-in-Chief, the chief accountant and traffic manager with be British.

Advances for Preliminary expenses have been made.

Shanghai Junction Line.—During the same year the Government took over from the provincial companies the two sections of the Kiangsu-Chekiang Railway, and placed them under the administration of the Shanghai-Nanking Railway. The two systems are connected at Shanghai by a line of 8½ miles, starting from Lunghua, on the Shanghai-Hangchow Railway, and running via Siccawei and Jessfield to Chenyu on the Nanking Railway.

Effect of the European War.—The outbreak of the European War caused a serious setback to railway construction in China. With the exception of the Peking-Kalgan, Canton-Hankow, and the Kiangsu-Chekiang lines, very little progress was made in lines actually under construction, while the big schemes contracted for in 1913 and 1914 were left in abeyance, and owing to the state of the international money market may remain so even for some time after the war. Work on the American section of the Szechuan-Hupeh Railway (see infra) was definitely abandoned and all material lying at Ichang was reported to have been sold to the British section of the Canton-Hankow Railway.

RAILWAY CONTRACTS IN 1915.

Japanese Railways in Manchuria.—At the end of 1913 negotiations were in progress between the Chinese and Japanese Governments for the construction by the latter of a network of railways in Southern Manchuria, comprising the following lines: Changchun-Taonan, Taonan-Jehol, Ssuping-kai-Chenchiatung, Kaiyuan-Hailung-Kirin, and a line from a point on the Taonan-Jehol Railway to a seaport. But it was not until December, 1918. that a loan agreement was signed for the construction of the first line from Spingchi (Ssupingkai), a station 120 miles north of Mukden, to Chenchiatung (Liaoyuanchow), in Mongolia, a distance of 52 miles. Construction began in the spring of 1917, and the first trial run over the whole line took place on November 30, 1917. Agreements for the other lines were signed, provisionally in 1918.

RAILWAY CONTRACTS IN 1916.

An agreement was signed on March 28, 1916, between the Chinese Government and the Russo-Asiatic Bank, providing for the construction of a railway from Harbin to Aigum via Mergen, with a branch line from Mergen to Tsitsihar. A loan of £5,000,000, at 5 per cent interest, secured on the railway, was to be floated for the purpose after the termination of the European War. The construction is to be for the account and at the risk of the Chinese Government. The chief engineer, the chief accountant, and the comptroller are to be Russians, recommended by the Russo-Asiatic Bank. Provision is also made for the construction of the following branch lines. Tsitsihar to Bodune, Bodune to Harbin.

A contract was concluded on May 17, 1916, by the Chinese Government with the Siems Carey Railway and Canal Co. for the construction of 1100 miles of railway. Among the proposed lines are (1) a line from Hengchowfu, in Hunan Province, via Yungchowfu in the same province, and Chuanchow. Kweilin, Linchow, Tsienkiang, and Kueihsien in Kwangsi, to Chinchow (Yamchow), in the Gulf of Tongking—a distance of 560 miles; (2) Choukiekow (Honan)-Yencheng-Nanyang-Siangyang (Hupeh)—225 miles; (3)

Sinyangchow (Honan)-Yunyang (Hupeh)—227 miles; (4) Yunyang (Hupeh)-Hanchungfu (Shansi)—360 miles.

CONTRACTS IN 1917.

The revised Changchun-Kirin Loan Agreement was concluded between the Chinese Government and the South Manchuria Railway on October 12. 1917. The loan was to be for Yen 6.500,000, for a term of 30 years, secured on the railway property and receipts, and during the currency of the loan the management of the line will devolve on the South Manchuria Railway on behalf of the Chinese Government.

CONTRACTS IN 1918.

On October 10. 1918, the Industrial Bank of Japan announced the issue of a loan of Yen 50,000,000 at $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent (issue price $94\frac{1}{2}$), in connexion with the four railways in Mongolia and Manchuria, and two others in Shantung and Kiangsu (i.e. the German lines mentioned above.)

The lines in Manchuria and Mongolia referred to are

- 1. From Taonan to Jehol
- 2. Ssupingkai to Taonan (Now under construction)
- 3. Kirin to Kaiyuan via Heilung
- 4. From a point on the Taonan-Jehol line to a seaport. (See contracts of 1915)

CONTRACTS IN 1919.

A contract was negotiated between the Pekin Syndicate, Ltd., and the Ministry of Communications for the extension by the Taokow Chinghua railway forces of that line about 37 miles to Menghsien. The final contract was not completed until the Autumn of 1920.

CONTRACTS IN 1920.

LUNG-HAI DUTCH-BELGIAN SUPPLEMENTARY LOAN.

On May 1, 1920, a Convention relating to the Lung-Tsing-U-Hai (Lung-Hai) Railway was signed between the Chinese Government on the one part, and the Compagnie Generale de Chemins de Fer et de Tramways en Chine (of Brussels) and the Netherlands Harbourworks Company, acting in its own name and on behalf of the "Netherlands Syndicate for China"

on the other part, of which the following is a summary:

The contracting parties will co-operate in the execution of the Loan Contract of September 24, 1912, between the Belgian Company and the Chinese Government. Until further arrangement, this co-operation will be restricted to the seaport and the railway line between the sea and Sanchow, or such point in the neighbourhood of Sanchow on the Yellow River above the San Men rapids as may be chosen as the Western provisional terminus of the railway. The parties of the second part will issue the loans necessary for the execution of the works on behalf of the Chinese Government. The Compagnie General will issue a loan of Fcs. 150,000,000 in several issues. half of which at least is destined for the Western section, i.e. between the present terminus (Kwan Yin Tang) and the Yellow River. or for the loan service during the construction of this section. Netherlands Syndicate shall in three instalments issue a loan of Guilders 50,000,000, (at time of writing the value of a Guilder is about 2/-) half at least of which will be used for the seaport and the section between the Tientsin-Pukow Line and the sea. If these amounts should prove insufficient the Chinese Government will authorize the Compagnie Generale and the Netherlands Syndicate to make further issues.

The direction of the Lung-Hai enterprise will remain unaltered but with regard to the railway East of the Tientsin-Pukow line and the seaport a special regime will be established, under which the personnel working there will be appointed as proposed by the Netherlands Syndicate. This

personnel will be under the orders of the Engineer-in-Chief, but he will delegate the supervision of the work upon the Eastern section to the Head of the Eastern Service, who cannot be dismissed without the consent of the Netherlands Syndicate. The technical work in Europe in connection with the railway remains with the Compagnie Generale, but that for the seaport

will be entrusted to the Netherlands Syndicate in Amsterdam.

Orders for material for the Western Section will preferably be placed in Belgium and France. If these countries cannot fulfil them, preference will be given to the Netherlands Syndicate. Preference for orders for material for the Eastern section and the seaport shall be given to Holland or, if that country cannot fulfil them, to Belgium and France. For the repayment of the internal loan the sum of \$1,800,000 can be taken from the first loan issue in Amsterdam.

The Loans will take the form of 8 per cent. Chinese Treasury Bonds.

PFKIN SYNDICATE MENGHSIEN EXTENSION LOAN.

A Presidential mandate was issued on November 25, 1920, sanctioning the construction of the Ching-Meng branch railway. This railway to all intents and purposes is a prolongation westwards of the Tao Ching railway from its present terminus, Chinghua, to Menghsien on the left bank of the Yellow River, immediately north-east of Honanfu, an important ferry over which the bulk of the trade between the Luanfu and Tzechow districts of Shansi and the South passes. The line, which will be about sixty-five kilometres in length, will pass through a highly cultivated and densely populated district to which it will be of very considerable benefit by bringing it into direct communication with the main railway system of the country.

The agreement referred to in the Presidential Mandate is made with the Pekin Syndicate Limited, who, besides being Administrators and General Managers of the Tao-Ching Railway, possess very large mining interests

in the locality.

The agreement provides for a loan for the construction of the line, the net amount of which and the conditions of its issue are to be fixed at a date not later than three years after the date of the agreement. In the meantime the Syndicate is to advance to the Government sufficient funds to commence and carry on the construction of the line.

Both the loan and the advances are secured, inter alia, by a general guarantee of the Government and firstly by a mortgage on the permanent way of the railway and its earnings and secondly by certain earnings of

the Tao-Ching railway

The construction of the line will be carried out under the control of an engineer nominated by the Syndicate and appointed by the Director of the Tao-Ching Railway Administration who will also act concurrently as Director of the new line.

The engineer may, with the consent of the Tao-Ching Railway Administration, employ in the work of construction, any of the staff, rolling stock, plant and tools of the Tao-Ching railway, on rates to be determined by the Director of the Tao-Ching railway and the Pekin Syndicate, with the approval of the Ministry of Communications. The Pekin Syndicate are appointed purchasing agents for the new line and upon all materials purchased abroad they will receive a commission of 3% on the net cost thereof.

No provision is made for rolling stock, it being arranged that when the line or part of it is opened for traffic, the rolling stock of the Tao-Ching railway shall be used on a hire basis at rates to be fixed by the Director of the Tao-Ching Railway and the Pekin Syndicate with the approval of the Ministry of Communications.

The terms of the loan agreement and also the working agreement of

the Tao-Ching Railway will not apply to this agreement

RAILWAYS OPEN, UNDER CONSTRUCTION, & CONTEMPLATED.

In the following list the words "under construction" have been restricted to include only lines upon which active construction work has been done since 1916. Sections not yet completed are indicated by *italics*.

A. Government Lines Opened to Traffic.

RAILWAY	Date of Opening	Mil	eage
KAILWAI	Date of Opening	Opened	Under Con- struction
1. Peking-Mukden (Ching-Feng) Railway. a. Peking-Tientsin-Shanhaikuan-Hsinmintun-Mukden	1903	525	
Branches. 1. Peking-Tunghsien		14	
with Peking-Hankow Railway which operates this Branch) 3. Tangho-Chinwangtao		4 6	
4. Lienshan-Hulutao Harbour 5. Koupangtze - Yingkow (New-		7	
chwang)		57 3	
2. Peking-Hankow Railway. Branches.	Dec. 1905	755	
1. Liangsiang-Tuli		12 10 10	
4. Kaopeitien - Siling (Imperial Tombs)		26 3	
7. Tientsin-Pukow Railway (629 miles).7. a. Northern section (ex-German) (392 miles)	(Through run- ning June, 19 12)		
Tientsin - Tsinanfu - Taianfu-Han- chuang Branches.	Feb. 5, 1912	392	
1. Chentangchwang - Liangwang - chwang	(May, 1912) (Nov. 1912) (June, 1913)	16 19 19½ 5½	
Canal b. Southern section (British) Pukow- Hanchuang	June, 1912	2½ 237	

RAILWAY	Date of Opening	Mile	age
RAILWAI	Date of Opening	Opened	Under Con- structio
4. Peking-Suiyuan Railway. a. Fengtai-Kalgan	Sept. 1909	114	
b. Kalgan - Tatungfu - Fengchen-Sui- yuan*	Sept. 1915	203 16½	59
5. Shanghai-Nanking Railway. Shanghai-Soochow-Chinkiang-Nan- king Branches. a. Shanghai-Woosung	Apr. 1908 1898	193 10	
6. Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo Railway. a. Shanghai-Kashing-Hangchow b. Hangchow-Pokwan-Ningpo c. Junction line connecting 5 and 6 at Shanghai	Aug. 1908	118 53	
7. Cheng Tai (or Shansi) Railway. a. Taiyuanfu-Shihchiaochuang (metre gauge)		151	
8. Taokow-Chinghua Railway. Taokow-Sinsiang-Chinghuachen Branch. Yiuchiafen-Taoching		93 1	
9. Lung-Hai Railway. Hsuchoufu-Kaifeng-Chengchow-Ho- nanfu-Kwangyingtang-Tungkuan	Dec. 1908 To Hsuchoufu June, 1916	365	190
10. Kirin Changchun Railway. Kirin-Changchun	Oct. 1912	80	

(Operated as a branch of the South Manchurian Railway).

11. Chuchou-Pinghsiang.	1902	65	
12. Canton-Kowloon Railway (112 miles). a. Canton-Shumchun (Chinese) b. Shumchun-Kowloon (British)		89½ 22½	
13. Changchow-Amoy.		18	
14. Ssupingkai (Sipingchi)-Chengchiatung- Taonan.	Dec. 1917	52	130

(Operated as a branch of the South Manchurian Railway).

^{*} The first Construction Train reached Kweihuacheng in April, 1921.

RAILWAYD	Date of Opening	Mileage Opened Under Con- struction
	•	1
15. Canton-Hankow Railway (Yueh-Han). Total length (approx.) 700 miles. a. Canton - Yintak - Shiuchou (140 miles) b. Shiuchou-Hengchou (209 miles) c. Hengchou-Chuchou-Changsha (130 miles)	(1909-11)	140 33
d. Changsha-Yochow (120 miles)	Sept. 1918	120
e. Yochow-Wuchang (Hankow) (160 miles)	Sept. 1917 1904	160 32

Note: Line No. 11 Chuchow-Pinghsiang connects with the Canton-Hankow line at Chuchow. Lines No. 16, Canton-Samshui and No. 12, Canton-Kowloon do not as yet connect with the Canton Hankow line.

Line No. 5, Shanghai-Nanking has a connection known as the Nanking City Railway, a provincial line.

B. Provincial and Private lines Opened to Traffic.

17.	Kiangsi Railway.			
	Kiukiang-Tukiapiu-Nanchang-Yen- pingfu-Foochow		86	
18.	Sunning Railway.			
	Samkaphoi-Sunning-Kungyik-Kong-			
	moon		634	
	Branch.		-	
	Sunning-Paksha-Yeungkong			70
9.	Swatow Railway.			
	Swatow-Chaochoufu	Nov. 1906	261	
20.	Tayeh Mines Railway (Hupeh) (narrow		_	
	gauge) (Tiehshanpu-Huangshihkang)		17	
21.	Tai-Tsao Railway (Chung Hsing Coal			
	Railway.)			
	Yihsien (i.e. coalmines 7 miles			
	north of town)-Taierhchwang			
	(on the Grand Canal)	1915	27	

C. Concessioned Lines Opened to Traffic.

RAILWAY	Date of Opening	Mil	leage
NAILWAT,	Date of Opening	Opened	Under Con- struction
22. Chinese Eastern Railway (1081 miles).			
a. Manchouli-Harbin-Suifenho (5 ft. gauge)b. Harbin-Kuanchengtze (5 ft. gauge)		921 152	
Branch.—Angangki-Tsitsihar (metre gauge)	Aug. 1909	17	
23. South Manchuria Railway. a. Kuanchengtze (Changchun)-Dairen (Dalny) Branches.		439	
1. Kuanchengtze (Changchun)- Kirin-Hueining	Oct. 1912	80	
1. Kuanchengtze (Changchun)- Kirin-Hueining	Oct. 1912	80	

2. Mukden-Antung (converted to broad gauge) Nov. 1911 3. Suchiatun-Fushun Collieries	189	
(converted to broad gauge) May, 1908	39	
4. Tashihkiao - Yingkow (New-		
chwang) (converted to broad		
gauge) May, 1908	131	
5. Choushuitze-Port Arthur (con-		
verted to broad gauge), ,,	281	
6. Ssupingkai - Chengchiatung-Tao-		
nan (? Kailu) Dec. 1917	52	130

(See Government lines, No. 14).

-24. Shantung Railway. Tsingtao-Tsinanfu	June 1904	256	
Changtien-Poshan Tsaochuang-Taierhchuang	1910	28 26	
25. Yunnan Railway. Yunnanfu-Laokai (Tongking frontier) (metre gauge)		289	

D. Lines under Contract.

Note:—It should be borne in mind that some of the lines under contract have been protested by other parties claiming interests, while in other cases no formal public acknowledgement has been made of the contract in question

RAILW'AY	State of Scheme, etc.	Mileage (approx.)
Hankow-Szechuan Railway. 26. Tatungfu-Chengtu Railway. Tatung - Taiyuan - Tungkuan-Sianfu-Hanchungfu-Chengtu	Loan agreement signed July, 1913, with Franco-Belgian Syndicate. Concession to include running rights over Tungkuan-Sianfu section of Lung Hai line (No. 9).	960
27. Sinyang-Pukow Railway. (See 'Railways Contracted for in 1913,'' supra.) (Terminals at Wu-I partially constructed).	Line will start from Wu-I, 20 miles north of Pukow, and run via Luchow, Liuanchow, and Kuangchow. Surveys completed.	270
28. Nanking-Changsha Railway. (See "Railway Contracts in 1914,")	Concession granted to the British and Chinese Corporation (1914). Line to run from Nanking via Ningkow, Hueichow, Nanchang and Ping- hsiang, Branches to Wuhu, Hangchow, and Kuangtehchow.	1000
29. Shasi-Singyifu Railway. (See "Railway Contracts in 1913," supra.)	To start from a point on the Yangtze op- posite Shasi, thence via Changteh, Yuan- chow, and Kueiyang to Singyifu. British concession. Length of line 655 miles, of branch, Changteh to Changsha, 105 miles.	760

RAILWAY	State of Scheme etc.	Mileage (approx.)
30. Yamchou-Chungking Railway.	Concession granted (1914) to La Banque Industrielle de Chine to build line from port of Yamchow, west of Pakhoi, via Nanning, Posé, Singyi to Yunnanfu, thence via Weining to Chungking.	1000
31. Kaomi-Yihsien (Shantung province). To connect Shantung Railway at Kaomi or Kiaochao with Tientsin- Pukow Railway at Yihsien via Ichoufu.	Construction provided for under Kiaochao Agreement of 1908 (German). Now included in Jap- anese contracts.	200
32. Tsinan-Shuntefu. To connect Shantung Railway with Peking-Hankow Railway.	See German Contracts of 1913. Now included in Jap- anese Contracts.	150
33. Siems-Carey Contracts: a. Chuchow-Chingchou.	Reconnaisance over part of the route made in 1917.	560
b. Sinyangchow (Honan)	Survey completed	580
34. Harbin-Mergen-Aigun-Blagovestchensk (410 miles). Branch line: Mergen- Tsitsihar (150 miles).	Russian concession, March 28, 1916. Loan to be floated after the European War.	660
35. Kiachta-Urga.	Russian scheme.	200

E. Railways Projected.

The following list of Railways Projected consists of remote projects. In all China's railway programme may be said to contemplate the construction of 14,500 miles, and of this total length work will be begun or continued on 6,000 miles as soon as the state of the international money market allows.

RAILWAY		State of Scheme etc.	Mileage (approx.
36. Chinchou-Aigun. Alternative Scheme a. Chinchou-Hailar b. Chinchou-Taonanfu c. Harbin-Aigun	8. (500 miles) (320 ,,) (300 ,,)	British-American pre- liminary Agreement, signed Jan., 1910. Negotiations sus- pended owing to Russian and Japan- ese representations. c. Proposal is to build a line from Durshenshan (via Hulan and Mergen.)	800
 37. Chihli Extra-Mural Railw a. Peking-Jehol b. Jehol-Chihfeng c. Chingchow-Chihfeng d. Kalgan-Dolonor e. Dolonor-Chihfeng 38. Northern Trunk System. 	ays. (130 miles) (140 ,,) (190 ,,) (190 ,,) (130 ,,)		780 750
Suiyuan-Kiachta. 39. North-Western Grand Tru Ili-Lanchow-Sianfu-Tungk fu-Kaifeng-Hsuchoufu pu-Haichow. Sections. a. Ili-Lanchow b. Lanchow-Sianfu c. Sianfu-Tungkuan d. Tungkuan-Honanfu e. Honan-Kaifeng f. Kaifeng-Hsuchoufu g. Hsuchoufu-Tsingkiang pu h. Tsingkiangpu-Haichow	(1910 miles) (250 ,,) (85 ,,) (150 ,,) (140 ,,) (175 ,,)	Proposal (1909) of Ministry of Communications to connect Ili with the sea via Sianfu. A final agreement with a Belgian syndicate for a loan of 250,000,000 francs was signed in 1920 for the construction of a line from Honan to Sianfu with extensions to Haichow and Lanchow. Original private company surrendered its rights to the Government.	3000

¹ The proposal to build a line from Hsinmintun to Fakumen was vetoed by the Japanese Government as being in conflict with China's undertaking not to construct a line parallel to the South Marchuria Railway, and by the Agreement of September 1, 1909, China has undertaken not to build this line without Japan's consent. The Japanese agreement of 1915 provides for a Taonan-Jehol line with a branch to a seaport.

² Sections e and f have been completed; d is under construction.

RAILWAY	State of Scheme, etc.	Mileage (approx.)
i. Ninguta-Mulin.	To connect with Chinese Eastern Railway.	50
j. Kungchuling-Itungchou.	Branch of South Man- churia Railway.	50
k. Harbin-Shuhui (due east).	Chinese, private. Pre- liminary surveys for narrow gauge.	150
40. Central Kiangsu Railway. Icheng-Shiherhuei - Kuachou - Yang- chou-Taichoufu-Tsingkiangpu.	Surveyed 1910. To be taken over by the Government.	60
41. Kweilin-Chenchou (Kwangsi province). To connect with Canton-Hankow Railway at Chengchou.	Surveyed by British engineers 1909. Chin- ese company formed, but no funds raised.	180
42. Kwangsi Railway. This line would run from Canton to Wuchow, Nanning, Lungchow, and connect at Langson with the Tongking Railway system.	Sections surveyed. Preliminary survey from Wuchow to Konghow made in May, 1911.	550
43. Chefoo-Weihsien (Shantung Railway).	Surveys completed. Capital to be provided, half by Chinese merchants in Shantung and half by Government. Estimated cost Tls. 10,000,000 including branch line to Lungkow.	170
44. Anhui Railway. Wuhu-Ningkuofu-Kuangtechou (-Huchoufu) Begun 1906—construction suspended.	Taken over by Gov- ernment and incor- porated in the Nan- king-Hunan conces- sion (q.v.)	,
45. Yu Tze-Tai Kuhsien.	Provincial gentry, Earth work and buildings at Yu Tzu completed and sleep- ers on ground in 1911, Taken over by Government in 1912, abandoned.	30

RAILWAY .	State of Scheme, etc	Mileage (approx.)
46. Shihchiachwang-Tsangchow or Shihchia- chwang-Tehchow or Shihchia- chwang-Machang.	1 773 17	90
47. Peking-Jehol.	Reconnaisance by Ministry of Communications in 1919. To be built out of profits of Peking-Hankow line.	
48. Yunnan-Szechuan Railway. Yunnanfu-Suifu (or Luchow).	Survey by American engineers completed February, 1911.	450
49. Yunnanfu-Pose.	Pose to Kutsingfu surveyed by Chinese engineer in 1911. American engineers are reported to have surveyed the Yunnan-Kutsingfu section.	
50. Tengyueh-Bhamo.	Surveyed.	123
50. Macao-Fatshan.	Concession to Chinese syndicate, 1911.	56
52. Swatow-Sheklun. Swatow - Puning - Hueilai - Lukfung- Waichou-Sheklun, junction with Canton-Kowloon Railway.	Funds being raised.	200
53. Sunning Railway Extension Sunning to Yeungkong (Makyeung River).		70
54. Shekwan-Āmoy.	Connecting with Canton-Hankow Railway. To be built by Provincial syndicate.	375

Rolling stock on the Government-owned lines was returned as follows (the figures in brackets being the number per 100 miles of railway):—Locomotives, 707 (7); passenger coaches, 1323 (14); goods trucks, 11,273 (118).

The following table compares the capital per mile of line of the Chinese Government Railways, as reported on December 31st, 1919, with the capital per mile of lines of railways in other countries for the year 1913 (Commerce Reports of the Department of Commerce, U.S.A., No. 246, 1918):—

Countries	Capital per mile of line	Countries	Capital per mile of line
China (Mex)		United States (Gold) Australia ,, South Africa ,, India ,,	65,861 55,108 48,527 46,343

Detailed statistics of China's Railways will be found on the following pages:

RAILWAY STATISTICS.

Tarre	1919	1010	In-
Item	1919	1918	crease
			%
Kilometres of Railway Operated	(1) 5,981.534	(1) 5,475.245	9
Operating Revenue	\$83,047,390.24	\$77,652,152.95	7
Operating Expenses	38,440,540.62	34,322,615.12	12
Net Operating Revenue	44,606,849.62	43,329,537.83	3
Surplus for the Year	36,449,392.34	33,505,119.57	9
Number of Passengers Carried	27,964,197	25,475,379	
Number of Passenger Kilometres Car-			13
ried	2,519,255,855	2,320,798,976	
Average Number of Passenger Kilo-			9
metres per Km. of Line	421,168	423,869	1
Average Number of Passenger Kilo-			d
metres per Train Kilometre	242	229	18
Average Number of Kilometres per			
Passenger Journey	90	91	d 1
Number of Tons of Goods Carried	21,391,078	18,551,684	15
Number of Ton Kilometres Carried	3,863,101,876		13
Average Number of Ton Kms. per	0,000,===,=		
Kilometre of Line	640,598	616,129	4
Average Number of Ton Kms. per	0,10,000	,	,
Train Kilometre	270	257	20
Average Number of Ton Kilometres			20
per Ton Carried	181	184	d 2
Average Passenger Revenue per Pas-	102	201	u z
senger Kilometre	1.13 cts.	1.10 cts.	3
Average Goods Revenue per Ton Kilo-	1.10 005.	1.10 005.	0
metres	1.22 cts.	1.29 cts.	d 6
Passenger Train Kilometres	10,397,697	10,102,757	
Goods Train Kilometres	14,304,886		
Locomotive Kilometres	35,935,789		5
Number of Employees	73,651	63,795	
Number of Employees	13,031	03,193	10
	II		

d Decrease

(1) Canton Samshui omitted

Thus the total net credit balance for the year 1919 amounted to \$36,449,392.34. The sum does not include any provision for interest on Government investment, although interest on foreign loans is included in the Income Debits.

If interest at the rate of 5% calculated upon total Government investment in these lines be deducted, a profit of \$27,780,407.19 remains. By total Government Investment is meant permanent advances for construction purposes plus sums invested by the lines themselves in additions to property and retirement of mortgage bonds.

The total investment, \$494,883,562.23, is divided into cost of roads and equipment, \$485,110,154.24; other physical property, \$521,365.61; and non-physical assets, \$5,945,802.28. The cost of road and equipment is divided into construction accounts and financial accounts. The totals of the construction and financial accounts are as follows:—

DISTRIBUTION OF INVESTMENT ASSETS.

			ATT ATT OF THE PARTY OF THE PAR	A CANADA THE RESIDENCE AND A STREET OF THE PARTY OF THE P				
ITEMS	Peking Hankow	Peking Mukden	Tientsin Pukow	Shanghai Nanking	Shanghai Hangchow Ningpo	Peking Suiyuan	Cheng Tai	Taokow Chinghua
PART 1.—CONSTRUCTION ACCOUNTS C. 2 Preliminary Expenditures C. 3 Land C. 4 Formation C. 5 Tunnels C. 6 Bridgework C. 6 Bridgework C. 7 Line Protection C. 8 Track C. 9 Track C. 9 Track C. 9 Track C. 10 Signals and Telephones C. 10 Signals and Switches C. 11 Stations and Buildings C. 12 Central Mechanical Works C. 13 Folling Stock C. 14 Plant C. 16 Maintenance C. 16 Maintenance C. 17 Docks, Harbours and Wharves C. 18 Floating Equipment	\$ 11,226,966.62 3,619.801.22 3,619.899.22 6,055.888.75 221,041.03 80,578.15 36,885.29 36,485.29 19,296,339.17 1,056,135.32 1,780.40 1,186,139.33 1,780.749.05	\$ 6,024,632.23	\$ 11,065,103.34 890,833.91 3,964,407.97 6,584,525.04 21,285,874,40 522,634,77 603,656.23 20,010,656.23 20,010,656.23 11,47,435.00 76,584,957 11,47,435.00 76,584,91 22,226,500.74 871,064,42 221,064,42 221,672,80	2,403,516.03 47,061.25 2,981,035.25 2,095,536.32 374,642.40 2,734,642.40 172,953.03 104,479.56 7,185,447.96 139,886.15 2,687,230.74 577,400.02 349,656.83 349,656.83 5,069,650.32	\$ 1,748,655.06 245,530.37 1,720,650.99 950,174.00 2,370.256.91 78,356.89 100,441.22 4,971.134.76 232,618.32 1,503,209.01 2,347.78 3,719,211.80 727.34 727.34	2,441,646.37 224,635.43 1,157,328.71 3,001,348.96 535,168.31 3,787,819.8 36,81.81 179,041.04 6,412,945.04 6,412,945.04 6,412,945.04 6,412,945.04 6,422,349.04 6,422,349.04 6,625,339.42 108,940.83 6,625,339.42 499,485.93	\$ 3,217,183.27 53,217,183.27 289,583.32 2,302,175.24 27,002,470.51 2,002,470.51 1,812,470.53 3,224,470.53 3,224,470.53 1,812,455.16 1,8	\$ 1,727,949.83 30,588.09 379,820.69 126,976.50 372,653.16 477.88 45,645.98 1,782,328.94 62,228.02 355,231.41 143,686.27 6,257.76 1,400,200.59
TOTAL PART I PART II—ENVANCIAL ACCOUNTS	85,260,680.49	66,056,757.57	88,400,539.70	27,609,353.02	17,940,638.65	27,870,425.87	20,572,486.84	6,449,521.61
ng Consi	12,230,846.00		13,762,242.30 4,805.49 6,907,063.53	3,133,610.02 291.806.33 654,043.99	2,800,380.51 364,020.24 1,589,477.35	2,137,369.30 less 26,048.19	2,996.120.17	438,799.97
TOTAL PART II	23,740,545.73		20,674,111.32	4,079,460.34	4,753,878.10	2,111,321.11	3,465,135.94	1,144,535.08
TOTAL PARTS I & II	109,001,226.22	66,056,757.57	106,074,651.02	31,688,813.36	22,694,516.75	29,981,746.98	24,037,522.78	7,594,056.69
Deduct-Receipts on Capital Account	7,383,976.57		7,550,875.00	641,610.59	3,610.00	1,157,368.25	1,613,776.53	:
Total Cost of Road and Equipment Cost of Other Physical Property Cost of Non-Physical Assets	2,387,692.19	66,056,757.57 467,730.61 1,257,592.80	101,523,776.02	31,047,202.81	22,690,906.78 53,635.00	28,824,378.73	22,423,846.25	7,594,056.69
Total Cost of Property Carried to Balance Sheet	104,004,941.84	67,782,080.98	102,337,703.31	31,047,202.81	23,744,541.75	30,310,968.73	22,423,846.25	7,594,056.69

DISTRIBUTION OF INVESTMENT ASSETS. (Continued.)

Chinese Government Railways	\$ 51,965,444.91 2,200,157.83 26,619,228.15 35,309,818.59 71,229,590,52 1,078,826,49 1,078,826,49 4,578,733.14 4,578,733.14 6,706,582.27 35,271.50 4,571.64,25 1,823,535,29 4,65,700,744.65	421,165,830.01	60.263,449.79 4.187,434.62 21.395,143.28	85,846,027.69	507,011,857.70	21,901,703.46	485,110,154,24 521,365,61 5,945,802,28	491,577,322,13
Ssu Tsen	\$ 691.850.15 21.022.41 11.513.24 320,788.33 476.477.53 10,743.19 50,743.19 50,743.19 62.089.70 40,099.02 40,099.02 62.058.15	4,041,522.54	678.079.39 1.022.748.32 285.181.28	1,986,008 99	6.027,531.53	516,596.54	5,510,934.99	5,510,934.99
Hupen Hunan	\$ 5,757,719,33 5,757,719,33 2,135,648,228,19 2,135,617,227 5,457,722,25 158,762,35 110,280,14 110,280,14 1249,910,88 385,555,90 529,784,54 3,192,090,00 690,032,32 115,16,77 77,227,36	36,846,392.46	16,930,684.94	18,952,635.18	55,799.027.64	1,774,132.95	54,024,894.71	54,024,894.71
Changehow	\$ 730,778.34 40,726.84 151,658.67 364,613.56 375,128.55 2.197.62 404.182.18 38,266.32 112,263.68 	2.528,479.58	229,041.79	243,119.06	2,771,598.64	121,832.18	2,649,766.46	2,649,766.46
Canton Samshui	<i>K</i> -			A COLUMN TO SERVICE AND ADDRESS OF THE PARTY				
Canton Kowloon	1,571,475.75 1,00.875.65 1,689,743.77 1,343,991.06 2,287.143.66 69.563.44 2,744.283.59 901,272.06 91,272.06 234.538.89 1,419.916.30 9,842.18	13,178,275.46	2,095,603.14 less 85,837,70 449,677,40	2,459,942.94	15,638,218.40		15,638,218.40	15,638,218.40
Chuchow Pinghsiang	\$443.867.46 9.827.58 386.486.07 741,012.09 705.692.73 8.608.70 27.386.43 1,056.692.84 10.1496.88 10.143.62 10.143.62 10.143.62 48.386.39	4,813,836.22	: ! !	•	4,813,836.22	:	4,813,836.22	7,104,344.95 4,813,836.22
Kirin Changchun	\$ 1,012,810,50 45,894,80 15,894,80 15,894,80 15,894,80 11,153,49 97,502,117 1,025,43 6,4201,17 1,025,43 6,713,82 165,094,54 15,553,401,64 21,553,401,64 21,553,401,64 21,965,43	6,883,928.36	606,304.98	650,010.31	7,533,938.67	429,593.72	7,104.344.95	
Kaifeng Honan	\$ 1,901,320,63 74,538,60 291,674,28 1,446,356,32 489,482,21 2,891,015,64 37,969,19 2,631,648,69 1,531,71 1,73,86,19 1,73,86,19 1,73,86,19 1,73,86,19	12,712,991.64	2,224,367,28 less 639,043.69	1,585,323.59	14,298,315.23	708,331.19	13,589,984.04	13,589,984.04
TEMS	PART 1.—CONSTRUCTION ACCOUNTS C-1 General Expenditures	TOTAL PART 1	PART II.—FINANCIAL ACCOUNTS (*19 Interest During Construction (*20 Exchange (*21 Unclassified	TOTAL PART II	TOTAL PARTS I & II	Deduct-Receipts on Capital Account	Total Cost of Road and Equipment Cost of Other Physical Property (ost of Non-Physical Assets	Total Cost of Property Carried to Balance Sheet

The result of the year's working (1919) by lines was as follows:-

CONDENSED OPERATING AND INCOME ACCOUNTS 1919.

	· ·				
Credit or Debit Balances for the Year	\$15,504,453.41 12,631,709.06 3,472,059.19 1,277,062.21	282,438.53 less 138,028.36 158,203.59 1,491,923.34 328,831.43 1,606,849.61 209,083.15 243,892.50 307,667.93 628,506.68 259,021.18 327,341.60	5,503.96 24,788.43 380,663.14 less 454,471.70 125,615.12, ,, 159,270.40 struction accounts. 7,423.23	35,505,119.57	\$2,944,272.77
Net Income Deb.ts	\$397,898.54 \$1,748,753.60 1,274,695.60 less 744,652.19 107,472.96 3,810,875.09 79,845.66 1,044,894.47	582,438.53 158,203.59 528,831.43 209,083.15 307,667.93 259,021.18	con	8,128,567.92	\$1,695,850.34
Income Credits	\$397,898.54 1,274,695.60 107,472.96 79,845.68	52,231.29 181,496.00 51,262.20 7,496.69 27,812.35 20,973.35	3,258.47 7,452.32 1,000.54 ue, A credit to 6,657.43	2,219,553.42	\$1,010,409.68
Income Debits	\$2,146,652.14 530,043.41 3,918,346.05 1,124,740.15	434,669.82 339,699.59 580,093.65 216,579.84 535,480.28 279,994.55	8,762.43 388,115.46 126,615.66 Net Revenue, 118,328.55	10,348,121.34	\$685,440.66
Net Operating Revenues	\$17,253,207.01 11,887,056.87 7,282,932.28 2,321,956,68	244,410.17 1,650,126.95 1,935,681.04 452,975.65 936,174.61 586,362.78	30,292.39 less 73,808.56 ,, 33,655.28 (1) 28,889.36 104,247.69	44,606,849.62	\$1,277,311.79
Operating Expenses	\$9,060,473.60 7,519,184.83 6,819,050.67 3,343,895.52	2,353,640.13 3,159,922.54 1,441,644.37 524,360.89 749,765.85 1,309,288.07	667,701.37 1,056,830.20 60,746.69 169,595.18 204,440.71	38,440,540.62	*4,117,925.50
Operating Revenues	\$26,313,680.61 19,406,241.70 14,101,982.95 5,665,852.20	2,598,050.30 4,810,049.41 3,377,325.41 977,336.54 1,685,940.46 1,895,650.85	697,993.76 .983,021.64 27,091.41 198,484.54 308,688.40	83,047,390.24	\$5,395,237.29
Name of Line	1. Peking Hankow 2. Peking Mukden 3. Tientsin Pukow 4. Shanghai Nanking		11. Chuchow Ping-hsiang hsiang 12. Canton Kowloon 13. Changchow Amoy. 14. Hupeh Hunan 15. Ssu Tsen	Chinese Government Railways 1919	Increase \$5,395,237.29 Decrease (1) A credit to construction accounts

RAILWAY STATISTICS, &c.

Fuller information regarding the principal railways in operation or under construction in China, chiefly derived from statistics, &c., furnished by the Railway authorities will be found below, the Railways being grouped under the following headings:

A. Chinese Government Railways.

B. Foreign Concessions.

C. Private and Provincial Railways.

A. Chinese Government Railways.

PEKING-HANKOW (KINHAN) RAILWAY.

Construction begun: 1898.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$101,617,249.65.

Source: French and Belgian.

Mileage (Main line): 755 (1,214.498 Kilometres), Mileage (Branches): 70 (98.423 kilometres)

Gauge: $4' \ 8\frac{1}{2}''$.

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: M. Jean Jadot.

Present Engineer in Chiet: M. Bouillard.

Date on which opened to traffic: December, 1905.

Junctions with other systems at: Loukoukiao, with Peking-Mukden and Peking-Kalgan Railways; Shihchiachuang, with Shansi Railway; Chengchow with Pienlo Railway; Sinsianghsien, with the Taokow-Chinghua Railway; Sinyangchow, with projected Railway to Fengyang; Kwangshui, with Hukuang Railways.

Branches: Liangsiang--Tuli (12 miles); Liuliho-Choukueichuang (10 miles); Kaopeitien-Siling (26 miles); Kaoyihsien-Lincheng (10 miles); Lou-

koukiao-Fengtai, Paotingfu-Paolingnankuan (3 miles).

Head Office: Peking.

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$26,313,680.61.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$9,060,473.60.

Number of passengers carried: 4,038,720. Amount of freight: 4,762,812

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$6,437,555.09; (2) From freight: \$18,-229.147.67.

Locomotives:

47, Passenger; 67, Goods; 25, Shunting.

Coaching Vehicles:

19, 1st Class; 35, 2nd Class; 91, 3rd Class; 115 various.

Goods Vahicles :

611 Covered Wagons; 1,990 Open Wagons; 23 Special Wagons.

Telegraph Stations: 27. Telephone Stations: 211.

Bridges: 875 iron bridges of a total length of 16,309.56 metres (including the Yellow River bridge of 103 spans of 30 metres).*

1285 stone bridges and culverts of a total length of 1544.22 metres.

\$2,250,000 in Peking Notes; \$1,635,000 in Seventh Year Long and Short term bonds; \$483,000 derived from Seventh Year Bond drawings; and \$791,000.

These funds were misappropriated by a former Managing Director of the Railway, and used for political purposes.

^{*}The present Yellow River Bridge is a temporary structure. In August 1913 the Railway Administration was instructed to raise a special fund of \$10,000,000 at the rate of \$1,000,000 annually, for the construction of a permanent bridge. The following sums were at the credit of the special account for rebuilding the Bridge in 1920:

28 iron and stone bridges of total length of 201.9 metres.

5 wood bridges of total length of 52.5 metres; a grand total of 2193 bridges and culverts of a total length of 18,108.18 metres.

Tunnels: Two tunnels, one through rock (340 metres) and one through

earth (323.52 metres).

Remarks: This railway was originally constructed from a loan of £4,500,000 from Franco-Belgian capitalists. The loan was redeemed in 1908 from a loan of £5,000,000 from Anglo-French capitalists, secured upon sundry taxes of Chekiang, Kiangsu, Hupeh, and Chihli. Reverted to Chinese control on January 1, 1909. The Liangsiang-Tuli, Liuliho-Choukueichuang and Kaoyihsien-Lincheng branches connect the main line with local coal mines. The Kaopeitien-Siling Light Railway establishes communication with the Imperial tombs.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 34.4%

Longest and fastest through run: From Peking to Hankow, 755 miles. Time 35 hours

PEKING-MUKDEN (CHINGFENG) RAILWAY.

Chinese Government 23,903,392

\$53,264,676

Construction begun: 1877.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$66,056,757.57.

Mileage (Main line): 526.139 (846.736 Kil.) Mileage (Branches) 79.595 (128.095 Kil.)

Gauge: 4' 81".

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction; Claude W. Kinder, C.M.G.

Present Engineer in Chief: D. Poyntz Ricketts.

Date on which opened to traffic: First section in 1881; Tientsin-Peking 1894; Peking-Mukden, 1903.

Junctions with other systems at:

Fengtai to Liu Tsun leased to Peking-Suiyuan Railway.

Fengtai to Lu Kou Chiao leased to Peking-Hankow Railway.

Tientsin Central, with Tientsin-Pukow Railway

Yingkow, with South Manchuria Railway.

Mukden, with South Manchuria and Antung-Mukden Railway.

Branches: Tung Pien Men to Tung Hsien, Branch line; Tientsin Central to Hsiku, Branch line; Peitaiho to Peitaiho Beach, Branch line; Koupangtzu to Yingkow, Branch line.

Head Office: Tientsin.

Total Receipts for the year 1919: \$19,406,241.70; 1920 \$23,146,505.

Total Expenditure for the year 1919: \$7,519,184.83; 1920 \$8,528,765. Number of passengers carried 1919: 3,732,402; 1920: 5,076,032 Amount of freight 1919 Tons 6,634,352; 1920: 6,388,756.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers 1919: \$8,492,876.95; 1920: \$10,198,928.17

(2) From freight 1919: \$10,572,626.95; 1920: \$11,339.247.55.

Locomotives:

18 Passenger Locomotives Various Makers; 122 Goods Locomotives Various Makers; 27 Shunting and Tank Locomotives Various Makers. Total 167.

Coaching Vehicles:

PASSENGER CARS Saloon, 1st, 2nd and 3rd class coaches, sleeping cars, composite, dining cars, brake and baggage vans Total	286
Goods Wagons. Pony cars of 12 tons capacity	25
Goods wagons of 20 tons capacity	92
Goods wagons of 30 tons capacity	316
High side, low side and flat cars of 10, 12, 20 and 24 tons	010
capacity	1,895
High side, low side and flat cars of 24, 25, 30 and 40 tons	1,000
capacity	1.187
Timber cars, ammunition wagons, oil tanks and pig cars of	1,107
10 and 30 tons capacity	61
	68
Brake Vans of 4, 6 and 8 wheels	
Oil tank cars privately owned	7
-	
Total	3,661

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

Bridge No. 66 Lan Ho (海河) 2174'9"; Bridge No. 191 Liu Ku Ho (六股河) 2650'; No. 271 Hsiao Ling Ho (小凌河) 1266'; No. 286 Ta Ling Ho (大凌河) 2762′ 6″; No. 59 Liao Ho (遼河) 2130′.

Ratio of Working Expenses to revenue: 38.75 per cent.

Extensions (if any) contemplated: Chaoyang extension to Peipiao Coal Mines 120 Miles; Doubling track between Tongshan and Shanhaikwan 90 Miles was arranged for in June 1921, the funds being advanced by the British and Chinese Corporation.

Longest and fastest through run: From Peking to Mukden 523 miles.

Time 221 hours.

Signalling system: British Railway's System.

TIENTSIN-PUKOW (TSINPU) RAILWAY.

Construction begun: 30th June, 1908.

Capital: £9,800,000. 0. 0. Source: Chinese Central Railways, Ltd., London, Dentsch Asiatische Bank, Shanghai.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$101,523,776.02.

Mileage (Main line): 627.06 (1,008.961 Kil.) Mileage (Branches): 60.5 (97.864 Kil.)

Gauge: Standard Gauge viz. 4' 81".

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: Northern Section J. Dorpmuller, Southern Section T. W. T. Tuckey.

Present Engineer in Chief: Northern Section M. H. Shen, Southern

Section A. R. J. Hearne.

Date on which opened to traffic: Construction train for passengers from Tientsin to Techow was first run on 11th April 1910, and the whole line was

opened to traffic on 22nd January, 1912.

Junctions with other systems at: Tientsin with Peking-Mukden Railway; at Tsinanfu with Shantung Railway; at Hsuchowfu with Lunghai Railway; at Pukow with Yangtze Navigation; at Nanking with Shanghai-Nanking Railway after crossing the River by the Railway's own Ferry Service.

Branches: Liangwangchuang-Chentangchuang 16 miles; Lokow-Hwangtaichiao 4.85 miles; Yenchowfu-Tsiningchow 20.1 miles; Lincheng-Tsaochuang 19.55 miles.

Head Office: Tientsin.

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$14,101,982.95.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$6,819,050.67.

Number of passengers carried: 2,709,862. Amount of goods carried: 2,661,782 tons.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$6,157,066.75. (2) From freight \$6,554,058.75.

Locomotives:

12 Tank 0-6-0 493.3 tons British and German; 6 Tank 2-6-2 401.7 tons American and German; 38 Tender 2-6-0 22713.8 tons American, British and German; 38 Tender 5-6-0 24648.5 tons British and German; 10 Tender 2-8-2 1423.2 tons American.

Coaching Vehicles:

5 Saloon Cars; 8 Drawingroom Cars; 10 I Class Sleeping Cars; 8 II Class Sleeping Cars; 9 I and II Class Composite Cars; 16 II Class Cars; 91 III Class Cars; 7 I Class Dining Cars; 6 I and II Class Buffet Cars; 2 III Class Guard and Mail Cars; 12 Guard and Baggage Cars; 8 Baggage Cars; 10 Mail Cars; 6 Heater Cars; 11 Inspection Cars; 25 Various Service Cars.

Goods Vehicles:

50 15 Ton Low Side Cars: 4 15 Ton High Side Cars; 131 15-Ton Covered Cars; 12 20-Ton Low Side Cars; 120 20-Ton High Side Cars; 128 20-Ton Covered Cars; 11 30-Ton Tank Cars; 23 30-Ton Flat Cars; 109 30-Ton Low Side Cars; 341 30-Ton High Side Cars; 329 30-Ton Covered Cars; 6 30-Ten Live Stock Cars; 28 Guard Cars.

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

Hwangho 4,082.68 feet; Wenho: One 1,509.188 feet; One 1,030.185 feet; Peiho 1,860 feet; Hwaiho 1,800; Tseho 1,150 feet.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 48.36%.

Extensions (if any) contemplated: Nil.

Longest and fustest through run: From Tientsin Central to Pukow 628.38 miles. Time 25.00 hours.

Signalling system: Semaphore Signals.

SHANGHAI-NANKING (HU-NING) RAILWAY.

Construction begun: 1904.

· Capital: £2,900,000. Source: Loan British and Chinese Corporation and Chinese Government advances.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$31,047,202.81.

Mileage (Main line): 193.02 (310.60 Km.) Mileage (Branches): 10.19 (16 Km.) Woosung Line.

Gauge: 4' 8½".

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: A. H. Collinson, M.I.C.B. (British).

Present Engineer in Chief: A. C. Clear, Esq., M. Inst. C. E. (British).

Date on which opened to traffic: April 1908.

Junctions with other systems at: Lungwha with Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo Railway. At Nanking with Nanking City Railway, and by Ferry with the Tientsin-Pukow Railway.

Branches: Shanghai to Woosung 10.19 miles, opened in 1898.

Head Office: Shanghai.

Total Receipts for Year 1919: \$5,665,852.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$3,343,896.

Number of passengers carried: 7,234,407. Amount of freight: 1,352,318 tops.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$3,523,701. (2) From freight: \$2,142,157.

Locomotives:

2 Tank 4-6-2 74.35 tons North British Loco. Co.; 10 Tender 4-6-0 102.55 tons North British Loco. Co.; 13 Tender 4-4-0 98.35 tons Robt. Stevenson & Co.; 3 Tender 4-2-2 98.70 tons Kerr Stuart & Co.; 2 Tank 0-6-0 32.5 tons W. G. Bagnall, Ltd.; 1 Tank 2-4-2 50.7 tons Brooks Loco. Works; 4 Tender 4-2-2 109.30 tons North British Loco. Co.; 2 Tank 2-4-2 60.00 tons Kerr Stuart & Co.

Coaching Vehicles:

Total all Classes 101.

Goods Vehicles:

Total all Classes 440.

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

303 bridges have been constructed between Shanghai and Nanking, having a total waterway of 5857 lineal feet. At Hsinyangkong there is a double-line bridge of four through girder spans of 40 ft., with two 20 ft. arches at either side. Near Quinsan (on the Grand Canal) and at Sinfeng there are two bridges of three through girder spans of 60 ft.

Dimensions of Principal Tunnels:

Fort Hill, Chinkiang 1.320' 0" From Face to Face. Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 59.02%.

Signalling system: Electric Train Staff. Railway Signal Co.

Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo Railway. (S.H.N.R.)

Construction begun: Main Line May 1907: Kiangshoo Branch Line Sept. 1906, Ningpo Division 15th June, 1910.

Capital; £1,500.000; Source British and Chinese Corporation.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$22,690,906.75.

Mileage (Main line): 174.44 miles (280.733 Km.); Mileage (Branches) 3.52 miles (5.665 Km.)

Gauge: 4' 8½".

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: Ningpo Division: Mr.

D. P. Griffith, M.I.C.E. (1909 to 1912); Mr. T. C. Pu (1912 to 1913);

Shanghai to Hangchow Mr. Loo Tze-chang, Mr. Chuang Wu, Mr. T. C. Pu.

Present Engineer in-Chief: A. C. Clear, M. Inst. C.E.

Date on which opened to traffic: Shanghai to Hangchow 12th Sept.

1909; Ningpo Division Dec. 1912.

Junctions with other systems at: Markham Road, Shanghai Junction with Shanghai-Nanking Railway.

Branches: Ken Shang Mun to Kon Zen Chiao 3.52 miles, Ningpo to

Paso 2.71 miles.

Head Office: Shanghai North Station.

Total Operating Receipts for the Year 1919: \$2,598.050.30.

Total Operating Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$2,353,640.13.

Number of passengers carried: 5,445,502; Amount of freight 494,497 tons.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$1,813,519.34; (2) From freight \$747,-992.07.

120	PAR	22/11	2.720	0 .
320	(11)	1000	111	0 .

Number	Tender or Tank	Distribution of Wheels	Gross Weight (in tons)	Maker
4	Tender	4-4-0	?	
8	Tank	0-6-0	?	British
1	Tender	4-4-0	?	, .
7	,,	2-6-0	103.80	American
7	,.	4-4-0	75.40	,
3	,,	2-6-0	92.60)
2	,,	2-8-0	111.50	German
3	Tank	0-6-0	?	
1	,,	0-8-0	?	,
ACCOUNTS ASSESSED.				
36				

·Coaching Vehicles:

6 1st. Cl. Ordinary; 5 2nd Cl. Ordinary; 63 3rd Cl. Ordinary; 21 Coolie Cl. Ordinary; 6 1st and 2nd Compos.; 1 1st and 2nd Diner; 4 2nd Cl. Diner; 2 3rd Cl. Brake and Baggage; 3 2nd and 3rd Compos.; 1 Kitchen Car; 5 Brake and Baggage Vans; 3 Brake, Bagg, Mail and Treasure Vans; 2 Brake, Bagg, and Mail Vans; 2 Postal Vans; 2 Heating and Lighting Cars. Total 126.

Goods Vehicles:

258 Covered Wagons (bogie); 22 Covered 4-wheeled; 91 M. S. Open Wagons bogie; 18 M. S. Open 4-wheeled; 94 Flat Wagons-bogie; 1 Flat Wagons-4-wheeled; 5 Cattle Wagons-bogie; 11 Cattle Wagons 4-wheeled; 2 Pig Wagons-bogie; 2 Oil Tank Cars-bogie. Total 504.

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

Junction Line 45', 60', 145' spans. Mile 33 2 spans of 200 ft.; mile 35\frac{3}{2} 2 spans of 200 ft.; mile 37\frac{1}{2} 1 span of 305 ft. Ningpo Division 1 of 100 ft. span 5 of 45 ft. spans each; 1 of 2 spans each 45 ft.; 1 of 60 ft. span. Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 90.59%.

Extensions (if any) contemplated: Section Tsao Ngo River to Hang-chow not yet built.

Longest and fastest through run:

From Hangchow to Chanan 26 miles. Time 43 minutes.

Signalling system staff and Link system, all stations are protected by semaphore signals interlocked with the points.

PEKING-SUIYUAN RAILWAY.

Construction begun: October, 1905.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$28,824,378.73. Source: Surplus earnings of Peking-Mukden Railway.

Mileage: (Main line): 366 (428.75 Kilometres). Mileage (Branches):

42 (66.55 Kilometres).

Gauge: 4' 81".

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: Taotai Jeme Tien-yu (deceased).

Present Engineers in Chief: Chai Chaou-lin and Chen Sei-lin.

Date on which opened to traffic: Peking-Kalgan, Sept. 1909; Tienchen, June 1911; Changsui, April 1912; Tatungfu, April 1915; Fengchen, Sept. 1915; Suiyuan, April 1921 (Construction trains only).

Junction with other systems at: Fengtai with Peking-Mukden and

Peking-Hankow Line.

Branches: Peking to Mentaokao (16½ miles).

Head Office : Peking.

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$4,810,049.47.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$3,159,922.54.

Number of passengers carried: 1,169,363. Amount of freight 1,386,094 metric tons.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$1,164,885. (2) From freight: 3,290.054.51.

Locomotives: 29 Passenger; 26 Goods; 15 Shunting.

Coaching Vehicles:

7 1st Class; 15 2nd Class; 32 3rd Class; 40 Various.

Goods Vehicles:

83 Covered Wagons; 769 Open Wagons.

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

Tatung 18 spans of 100 feet: Peshachen, 16 spans of 100 feet; Huailai 7 spans of 100 feet; Kalgan and Chaikoupou 5 spans, each, of 100 feet.

Tunnels: There are four in the Nankow Pass section, one of which is 3,580 feet in length.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 65.7%.

Longest and fastest through run: From Peking to Fengchen (266 miles) Time 131 hours.

SHANSI (CHENG-TAI) RAILWAY (TAIYUANFU-SHIHCHIACHUANG).

Construction begun: 1904.

Capital: \$19,481,726.25. Source: French Loan of 40,000,000 fes. Government Capital \$6,244,226.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$22,423,846.25.

Mileage (Main line): 151 (243 kilometres)

Gauge: Metre.

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: M. Espanet (French).

Present Engineer in Chief: M. Jacquet.

Date on which opened to traffic: October, 1907.

Junctions with other systems at: Shihchiachuang with Peking-Hankow Railway.

Head Office: Shihchiachuang.

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$3,377,325,41.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$1,441,644.37. Number of passengers carried: 313,610. Amount of freight: 1,159,385 tons.

(1) From Passengers: \$564,402.94. (2) From freight: Receipts: \$2,469,434.70.

Locomotives:

6 Passenger; 38 Goods; 13 Shunting.

Coaching Vehicles:

3 1st Class; 10 2nd Class; 25 3rd Class; 13 Various.

Goods Vehicles:

146 Covered Wagons; 475 Open Wagons; 6 Special Wagons.

Dimensions of Principal Bridge:

Niangtzekwan; seven arches of 10 metres and three of 50 metres.

Dimensions of Principal Tunnels:

21 of which the longest measures 293 metres.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 42.7%.

TAOKOW CHINGHUA (TAO-CHING) RAILWAY.

Construction begun: 1900-Renewed in 1902.

Capital: \$8,589,410.05. Source: Pekin Syndicate, Ltd., (British) and Chinese Government.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$7,594,056.69.

Mileage (Main line): 93.21 (150,007 Km.) Mileage (Branches); ELT (2.446 Km.)

Gauge: $4' \ 8\frac{1}{2}''$.

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction; T. J. Bourne.

Present General Manager J. Barber. Engineer: E. C. A. Dunn.

Date on which opened to traffic: 1904.

Junctions with other systems at: Hsin Hsiang Sien with Peking-Hankow Line.

Branch: Yin Chia Fen to Tao Ching.

Head Office: Chiao Tso, Honan.

Total Operating Receipts for the Year 1919: \$977,336.54.

Total Operating Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$524,360.89.

Number of passengers carried: 287,575. Amount of freight 932,542.84 tons.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$172,469.92. (2) From freight \$754,-528.25.

Locomotives:

1 Tender 4-4-2 120 tons Kerr Stewart & Co.; 6 Tender 2-6-0 94.56 tons Beyer Leacock & Co.; 2 Tender 2-6-0 104.91 tons American Loco. Co.; 2 Tank 0-6-0 39.50 tons Manning Wardle & Co.; 1 Tender 0-6-0 40.25 tons Manning Wardle & Co.

Coaching Vehicles:

1 1st Ordinary; 1 1st With Kitchen; 2 1st and 2nd Composite; 2 2nd Class; 9 3rd Ordinary; 3 Baggage Postal and Brake Vans; 1 Inspection Car.

Goods Vehicles:

4 30 Ton Covered; 5 30 Ton Pony; 130 30 Tons Steel High Sided; 32 30 Ton Wooden High Sided; 18 12 Ton Steel High Sided; 4 Brake Vans; 12 Sundry.

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

None longer than 30' Span girders used.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 53.6%.

Extensions if any, contemplated: Mengshen in Honan-40 miles.

Longest and fastest through run: From Chinghua to Taokow 82 miles. Time 5 hours.

KAI-FENG-FU-HONAN (PIENLO) RAILWAY.

Construction begun: in 1905.

Capital: Francs gold 41,000,000. Source: Compagnie Générale de Chemins de fer et de Tramways en Chine à Bruxelles.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$13,589,984.04.

Mileage (Main line): 115, (185 kilometres).

Gauge: 4' 81".

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: M. Ebray.

Present Engineer in Chief: E. Bonnevay.

Date on which opened to traffic: 1st January, 1910.

Junctions with other systems at: Chengchow with the Kinhan Railway; at Kaifeng with the Eastern Section of the Lunghai Railway; at Honanfu with the Western Section of the Lunghai Railway.

Head Office: at Peking, Ping Pu Wa Tchung Kieh, No. 15 and at Chengchow (Honan).

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$1,665,940.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$749,765+\$325,909 (for loan service).

Number of passengers carried: 800,300. Amount of freight: 491,652 tons. Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$754,022. (2) From freight: \$787,253.

Locomoti	ves:			
	$Tender\ or$	Distribution	Gross Weight	Maker
Number	Tank	of Wheels	(in tons)	
			$^{'}\mathrm{T}$	
10	Tender	4-6-0	103.8	French and Belgian
,		(Eng	gine+tender)	manufacturers.
			T .	
5	Tank	0-6-0	35.2	Belgian manufacturers.
				0

Coaching Vehicles:

1 1st Class; 10 1st and 2nd Class; 21 3rd Class; 2 Service Cars

Goods Vehicles:

4 Mail-vans; 11 Luggage-vans; 2 Kitchen Cars; 4 Luggage Cars; 3 Repair-wagons; 1 Testing Car; 15 Horse Cars; 8 Tank Cars; 22 Gondola Cars; 129 High-sided Cars; 35 Covered Cars.

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

Km. 42 west-steel viaduct 150 m.; Km. 51 west-steel viaduct 150 m.; Km. 56 west-steel viaduct 90 m.; Km. 69 west-steel viaduct 150 m.; Km. 74 west-bridge 300 m.

Dimensions of Principal Tunnels:

Km. 49+500, 294 m.; Km.50, 327 m.; Km. 51+500, 290 m.; Km. 52, 272 m.; Km. 53, 475 m.; Km. 54+500 203 m.; Km. 55, 209 m.; Km. 64, 253 m.; Km. 66, 230 m.; Km. 66+500, 248 m.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 44. 47%.

Extension (if any) contemplated: Lunghai East from Hsuchowfu to Haichow; Lunghai West from Kwanyintang to Lanchowfu.

Longest and fastest through run: From Kaifengfu to Honanfu 185 Kms. Time 5 hours 28 minutes.

Signalling by flags (provisionally).

KIRIN-CHANGCHUN (CHI CHANG) RAILWAY.

Construction begun: Feb. 1910.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$7,104.344.95. Source: Japanese Loans of Yen 2,150,000 and 6,500,000.

Mileage (Main line): 78 (125.4 kilometres).

Gauge: 4' 81".

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: K. L. Sung.

Date on which opened to traffic: Oct. 1912.

Junctions with other systems at: Changehun, with South Manchuria Railway.

Head Office: Changehun.

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$1,895,650.85.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$1,309,288.07. Number of passengers carried: 383,670. Amount of freight: 594,346.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$560,170.28. (2) From freight: \$1,140,953,58.

Locomotives:

3 Passenger; 9 Goods; 3 Shunting.

Coaching Vehicles:

4 2nd Class; 10 3rd Class; 3 Various.

Goods Vehicles:

51 Covered Wagons; 169 Open Wagons; 8 Special Wagons.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 69.1%.

Extension to Hunchun (240 miles) to connect with Korea Railways in contemplation.

CHANGCHOW-AMOY (FUKIEN)-RAILWAY.

Construction begun: 1908.

Capital: \$2,426,551.00 (Original); \$2,643,031.27 (Present). Source: Originally from Merchants and now turned over to the Government

Mileage (Main line): 27 (44 Km.).

Gauge: $4' 8\frac{1}{2}''$.

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: Mr. H. L. Ouang.

Present Engineer in Chief: Mr. J. S. Wong.

Date on which opened to traffic: A section of 28 Km. opened for traffic 1910 and temporarily stopped traffic 1918.

Head Office: Sungseu, Amoy. Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$27,091.41. Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$60,746.69.

Number of passengers carried: No Traffic. Amount of freight: 2,129 tons.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: No Traffic. (2) From freight \$1,101.76.

Locomotives:

1 Tank 0-6-0 24.0 tons Kerr Stuart and Co., London: 11 Tank 0-6-0 21.5 tons American Locomotive Co.

Coaching Vehicles:

1 1st and 2nd (Composite Car); 6 3rd.

Goods Vehicles:

3 Covered Wagons; 4 Open Wagons.

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

Hukongkhe 60 m. Span Truss; Hukongkhe 26.5 m. Span Girder; Hukongkhe 23.5 m. Span Girder; Haitsang 20 m. Span Girder; Haitsang 20 m. Span Girder.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 222.2%

The Amoy Customs report for 1920 states:

The Amoy-Changchow Railway, of which the trunk line has never been completed beyond Kiangtungkiao (江東橋), some 30 li distant from Amoy, had, since the autumn of 1918, practically suspended all traffic. A few military trains were occasionally run, but rolling-stock had seriously deteriorated and the roadway was generally in a bad state. In 1920, on the removal of military pressure, an effort was made to resuscitate traffic. The railway opened in December with trains running as far as Tsaitien (委店) a distance of 23 li only, but with assured prospects of extending traffic early in 1921 all the way to Kiangtungkiao. So far the railway has not materially assisted the development of the port, inasmuch as it does not as yet connect Amoy with Changchow itself, which is our chief inland producing and distributing centre. When, however, funds permit (the building of an iron bridge over the North River at Kiangtungkiao promises to be an expensive piece of engineering), and the railway in time even reaches inland beyond Changchow and up to the coal-fields near Lungyenchow (電影州), the whole undertaking would then certainly add to the prosperity of Amoy and district

HUPEH-HUNAN SECTION OF THE CANTON HANKOW (YUEH-HAN) RAILWAY.

(Chuchow-Changsha section completed by Chinese in 1911).

Construction begun: 1912.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$54,024,894.71. Source: Hukuang Railway Loan.

Mileage (Main line) completed 260 (417.624 Km.) Mileage (Branches):

 $3 (5.021 \ Km.)$

Gauge: 4' 81".

Engineer in Charge of Construction: A. G. Cox, M.I.C.E.

Junctions with other systems at: Wuchang, by ferry with Peking-Hankow Railway.

Branches: Chuchow-Pinghsiang (q.v.)

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$198,484,54.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$169,595.18.

Number of passengers carried: 96,813. Amount of freight: 151,451 tons.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$50,794.86. (2) From freight: \$79,993.94.

Locomotives:

4 Passenger; 9 Goods: 7 Shunting.

Coaching Vehicles:

2 1st Class; 7 2nd Class; 36 3rd Class; 4 Various.

Goods Vehicles ;

80 Covered Wagons; 264 Open Wagons; 16 Special Wagons.

The Changsha-Chuchow section (33 miles) was built by Chinese, and has been in operation since September, 1911. The bridges, which were previously temporary trestle bridges, were completed in 1912. The rolling stock is bad, and the road bed is said to be poorly constructed. The cost of these 33 miles and of the small supply of rolling stock amounted (to the end of September, 1912) to close on Tls. 6,500,000. A further section from Chuchow to Lukow (about 10 miles) was begun in September, 1912, and towards the middle of December about nine-tenths of the earthwork and one half of the bridge and culvert work were reported to be completed. The shareholders have acquiesced in the policy of nationalization, but demanded reimbursement in full of the extravagant expenditure upon this short section of completed line. It was announced in March, 1913, that the line had been taken over by the Government.

The Hankow Customs Report for 1919 states that:

"The Canton-Hankow Railway line found its capacity seriously impaired by continued interference from the military, and its operating expenses were unduly increased by the cost of making good damage done to railway property by soldiers and of the enforced running of extra trains to suit military convenience. At the same time earnings were reduced through insufficiency and overtaxing of rolling-stock. Even at times when equipment was depleted below the needs of ordinary traffic, the railway was forced to yield to the arbitrary demand of officers for special trains. One commandeered train for several months remained at the use and abuse of temporary masters in uniform. These interferences caused continual difficulty in keeping up proper standards of maintenance and impeded necessary improvements, but, in spite of this, the railway's record for 1919 shows as accomplished: ballasting, sufficient for 28 miles; sleepers, 48,000 renewals; earth-

work, dead-end sidings at ten stations and reinforcement of Nantsingkang embankment; bridge-work, 23 temporary bridges replaced by permanent structures; building, new foundry with cupolas and tilting brass furnace, new smithy with one 10 cwt. steam-hammer and one 6½ cwt. electric pneumatic hammer; rolling stock, additions of one shunting locomotive, 20 20-ton wagons (high-sided), 22 15-ton wagons (flat-convertible); transport of 87,000 tons of coal and coke and 1,800 tons of tea; and a traffic revenue of \$1,207,-000. Timber required for railway purposes was successfully obtained from the railway's own district and found satisfactory both in quality and price. It is believed that in future the railway's annual timber requirements will be met from Chinese, and no longer from Japanese, sources as in the past. Arrangements with the Szechuan-Hankow Railway made it possible for the Canton-Hankow line to take over new bridge material and rolling-stock, originally intended for the western line. Still more equipment is needed at Nienyütao (鮎魚套) to meet such new requirements as the contract for 600 tons of coal daily from the Han-Yeh-P'ing Company's mines. The railway has ordered 12 new heavy locomotives, eight for freight and four for passengers, and is about to order 90 large freight cars, 30 of 30 ton size and 60 of 40-ton size.

CHUCHOW-PINGHSIANG RAILWAY.

(Connecting the Pinghsiang Collieries with the Siang River, at Chuchow).

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$4,813,836.22.

Mileage (Main line): 56 (90.500 Km.) Gauge: $4' 8 \frac{1}{2}''$.

Present Engineer in Chief: J. F. R. Peebles, A.M.I.C.E.

Date on which opened to traffic: 1902.

Junction with the Hupeh-Hunan Section of the Hukuang Railways.

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$697,993.76.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$667,701.37.

Number of passengers carried: 301,357. Amount of freight: 579,729

tons.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$117,951. (2) From freight: \$551,422.82.

Locomotives:

7 Passenger; 3 Goods; 2 Shunting.

Coaching Vehicles:

1 2nd Class; 6 3rd Class; 9 Various.

Goods Vehicles:

183 Open Wagons.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 95.6%.

CANTON SAMSHUI RAILWAY.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$3,306,240.90.

Mileage (Main line): 30 (48.924 Km.)

Gauge: $4' \ 8\frac{1}{2}''$.

Date on which opened to traffic: 1904.

Head Office: Canton.

Total Receipts for the Year 1915: * \$851.568.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1915: \$579,067.

^{*} No further or later data available.

CANTON-KOWLOON (KWANG-CHIU) RAILWAY (CHINESE SECTION).

Construction begun: April 1908.

Capital: £1,500,000. Source: 5% Loan (British & Chinese Corporation)

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$15,638,218.40.

Mileage (Main line): 89 miles, (143.23 Km.)

Gauge: 4' 81"

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: Mr. F. Grove, M. Inst. C. E.

Present Engineer in Chief: Mr. B. T. B. Boothby, M. Inst. C. E. Date on which opened to traffic: line opened to traffic in October, 1911.

Junction with other systems at: Shum Chun Station with British Section.

Head Office: Canton.

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$983,021.64.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$1,056,830.20.

Number of passengers carried: 1,858,678. Amount of freight: 80844 cons.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$831,967.43. (2) From freight: \$121,710.91.

Locomotives:

	Tender or	Distribution	Gross Weight	Maker
Number	Tank	of Wheels	$(in \ tons)$	
10	Tender	2-6-0	101.55 each	North British Co., Ltd.
2	T'ank	0-6-0	36.	Manning Wardle Co.,
				Ltd.
1	Tank	0-4-0	12.	Purchased from Peking
				Mukden Railway.
1	Tank	2.4.2	10.	C. K. R.
10	Tender Tank Tank	2-6-0 0-6-0 0-4-0	101.55 each 36.	Manning Wardle Co. Ltd. Purchased from Peking Mukden Railway.

Coaching Vehicles:

1 Saloon; 3 1st. Class; 2 2nd Class; 17 3rd Class; 3 3rd Class with kitchen; 6 3rd Class (wagon converted); 4 Composite 1st and 2nd Class; 4 3rd Baggage Mail and Brake; 5 3rd Baggage Mail and Brake.

Goods Vehicles:

14 Steel Covered Wagons: 6 open Wagons Converted; 19 4-wheeled-steel; 11 Open Wagons Med. Sided; 1 Open Wagon Flat; 4 Open Wagons med. Sided; 4 Cattle Wagons; 2 Covered Goods and Brake; 2 4-wheeled Goods and Brake Van.

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

Sien Tsun River 5-60'; Shektan River 3-100' 2-60'; Pek Kong River 4-60'; Kan Sui River 3-100'; East River 3-224' 2-60'; Tung Kun River 4-224' 2-60' Spans.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 107.51%

Longest and fastest through run: From Tai Tou to Shek Lung 40 miles. Time 1.10 hours.

Signalling system: Semaphore.

KOWLOON-CANTON RAILWAY, (BRITISH SECTION.)

Construction begun: 1906.

Capital: Main Line \$14,880,664.05; Fanling Branch \$89,808.57.

Mileage (Main Line): 22 miles. (Branches): 7 miles.

Gauge: 4' 8\frac{1}{2}". Branch: 2 ft.

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: Graves W. Eves.

Present Manager: H. P. Winslow. Present Engineer: Robert Baker. Date on which opened to Traffic: October 1910 and to Canton a year later.

Junctions with other systems at: Shum Chun with the Canton-Kowloon Railway.

Branches: Fanling to Sha Tau Kok.

Head Office: Kowloon.

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$490,092.77.
Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$417,032.14.

Number of Passengers carried: 1,093,646. Amount of freight; 827,776

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$452,789.90. (2) From freight \$37,302.87.

Locomotives:

	Tender or	Distribution	Gross Weig	ht Maker	Gauge.
Number	Tank	of Wheels	(in Tons)		
8	Side Tank	2-6-4	90 tons	Kitsons Leed	ls 4.8½
2	Saddle Tank	0-6-0	29 ,,	16 cwt. Hudswel	l Clarke 4.8½
2	Side Tank	0-4-0	5 ,,	3 ,,	,, 2.0
1	Centre Tank	0-4-0	10 ,,	3)	,, 2.0

Coaching Vehicles:

All 4.8½ Gauge on two four-wheeled Bogies average weight about 35 tons 1 1st Class Saloon; 2 1st Class Dining Car; 1 1st Class Car; 4 1st and 2nd Composite; 2 2nd Class Cars; 14 3rd Class; 4 3rd Luggage and Brakes. 2' 0" Gauge. 6 8-wheeled Bogie Carriages.

Goods Vehicles: 4 ft. 81 gauge:

4 30 ton Covered Goods; 2 30 ton Rail Bogies; 5 30 ton Open Goods; 24 15 ton Covered Goods; 2 15 tons Cattle Trucks; 9 15 ton Open Goods; 2 15 ton Goods Brake Vans; 2 Loco. Breakdown Van.

2' 0" Gauge. 3 Steel Sided Goods Wagons.

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

Mile $13\frac{3}{4}$ 1/100 ft. +2/20 ft.; Mile 22 1/100 ft. +2/20 ft.

Dimensions of Principal Tunnels:

Mile 33 Single 2,404 yards; Mile 121 Double 309 yards.

Longest and fastest through run: From Kowloon to Shum Chun, 22¼ miles. Time 40 minutes. Signalling system: British (mechanical) at Terminus, otherwise Indian, (single line working).

SSUPINGKAI-CHENGCHIATUN (SSU-TSEN) RAILWAY.

Construction begun: April 1917.

Cost of Road and Equipment: \$5,510,934.99. Source: Japanese Loan.

Mileage (Main line): 55 (87.910 Km.)

Gauge: $4' 8\frac{1}{2}''$.

Date on which opened to traffic: November 1917.

Junctions with other systems at: Ssupingkai, with South Manchuria Railway.

Head Office: Ssupingkai.

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$308,688.40.
Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$204,440.71.

Number of passengers carried: 78,848. Amount of freight: 107,141

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$97,818.24. (2) From freight: \$181,475.19.

Locomotives: 5.

Coaching Vehicles:

3 2nd Class; 5 3rd Class; 3 Various.

Goods Vehicles:

10 Covered Wagons; 13 Open Wagons.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue: 66.2%.

Extensions (if any) contemplated: to Taonanfu (140 miles) and Paivintala (70 miles).

LUNG HAI RAILWAY-TUNGKUAN-HONANFU RAILWAY.

(LOTUNG) SECTION.

Construction begun: 1913

Capital: \$51,468,263, Source: Compagnie Générale de Chemins de fer et de Tramways en Chine, à Bruxelles.

Mileage (Main line) 230, (370 Kms). Mileage (Branches) Nil.

Gauge: 1 m. 435 (4 ft. 8½ in.)

Date on which opened to traffic: 1st July, 1916.

Junctions with other systems at: the Western section of the Lunghai Line with the Pienlo Line at Honanfu; the Eastern section of the Lunghai Line with the Pienlo Line at Kaifeng.

Head Office: at Peking, Ping Pu Wa Tchung Kieh and at Chengchow

(Honan).

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: \$2,563,963.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$1.027,673.

Number of passengers carried: 772,724; Amount of freight: 288,740 tons.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: \$738,102; (2) From freight \$1,151,397.

Locomotives:

Number	Tender or	Distribution	Gross Weight	Maker
	Tank	of Wheels	(in tons)	
5	Lunghai Ta	ink 2-6-2	68 tons	French and Belgian
3	Etat-Belge	, 0-6-0	35 ,,	manufacturers
2	Baldwin ,	, 2-6-2	63 ,,	American ,,
	Tungpu ,	, 2-4-0	37 ,,	German ,,
2	Tungpu ,	, 0-6-0	29 ,,	German ,,
1	Tsingkiangpu	0-8-0	40 ,,	German ,,
15	Mogul Tender	2-6-0	45 ,,	American ,,
4	Mikado ,,	2-8-2	85 ,,	American ,,

Coaching Vehicles:

5 Service cars; 3 Sleeping and dining cars; 6 3rd class cars.

Goods Vehicles:

4 Luggage vans; 3 Mail vans; 2 Tool wagons; 122 Ballast wagons; 98 Gondola cars; 144 Covered cars.

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

No big bridges on the sections open to traffic.

Ratio of Working Expenses to Revenue 40.08% (without loan service).

Extensions (if any) contemplated: Lunghai-East: from Hsuchowfu to Haichow; Lunghai-West: from Kwanyintang to Lanchowfu.

Longest and fastest through run: From Hsuchowfu to Kaifengfu

277 Kms. Time 8.25 h.

Signalling system by flags (provisionally).

SZECHUAN-HANKOW (CHUAN-HAN) RAILWAY. (Kwangshui to Kueichowfu in Szechuan, via Ichang).

Construction begun: Hupeh Section, 1910. Capital: £6,000,000. Source: Hukuang Loan.

Engineer in Charge of original Construction: Linow.

Present Engineer in Chief: C. J. Carroll.

Mileage: About 460.

Gauge: 41 81".

Junction: At Kwangshui with Peking-Hankow Line.

Extensions: From Ichang to Hankow, and Kueichowfu to Chengtu are contemplated.

Remarks: This line was originally to have been constructed with Chinese Capital, by Chinese engineers, and work was begun on the Ichang-Kueichow section. Construction was in progress to a distance of 80 miles from Ichang in December 1910. In May 1911, the Hukuang Railway Loan agreement was signed between the Chinese Government and the American, British, German and French Groups, a portion of which was to be used for the Hupeh (Kwangshui to Kueichowfu) section of the Szechuan Railway. A German engineer was to supervise the construction of the Kwangshui-Ichang section, and an American engineer was to have charge of the Ichang-Kueichowfu section. Work was abandoned on the American section in 1915 as the result of the European war, and the survey of the German section was also interrupted.

The Hankow Customs report for 1919 states:

The construction of the Szechuan-Hankow line has proceeded slowly owing to financial difficulties. At present, funds required for railway maintenance are supplied directly from the Ministry of Communications, as the allotment from the Hu-Kuang Railway Loan Agreement, has been entirely expended. On the Hankow-Ichang section there have been completed 160 kilometres of grading, masonry work for 238 bridges, the building of three stations, one locomotive shed, and one store office and godown, 16 kilometres of main track line and 4 kilometres of sidings, 165 kilometres of telephone system, and preliminary surveys for the entire main line as well as for a branch line from Yangkiahung (楊家泽) through Fancheng (樊城) to Laohokow (老河口). The construction staff at present comprises two engineers, seven student engineers, and 250 labourers. The railway has planted millions of trees along the line during the last three years, not only to protect and improve the road-bed, but to supply a most useful object lesson to these districts which have suffered so greatly from the destruction of forests. In 1919 the railway lost nine bridges through floods, which would not have occurred had China's ancient forest wealth been preserved.

В Foreign Concessions.

South Manchuria (Nan-Man) Railway.

Construction begun.

For Dairen-Changchun Line and Other Branches (except Antung- Mukden Line).

5'-0" Gauge 1896, August, by Russia. 1904, July, 3/-6" Gauge by Japan. 4/-81" Gauge 1907, May,

For Antung-Mukden Line.

1904, August, 2'-6" Gauge by Japan. 1909, August, 4'-81" Gauge

Capital: Gold 200,000,000 Yen. Source Japanese.

Mileage: (Main line) 437.5 (705 Km.) Mileage (Branches) 245.7 (396 Km.)

Gauge: $4'8\frac{1}{2}''$

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: (Reconstructor of 4'-8½" gauge), Dr. Shimbei Kunisawa, ex-Chief Director.

Present Engineer in Chief: Dr. Yasujiro Shima, the Director.

Date on which opened to traffic: (Under the Japanese Management)

1906, January, (1906, August for Antung-Mukden Line).

Junctions which other Systems at: Mukden, Peking-Mukden Railway; Yingkow, Peking-Mukden Railway; Changchun, Chinese Eastern Railway and Kirin-Changchun Railway; Ssupingchieh, Szu-Tsen Railway.

Branches:

Lushun Branch Line; (28.9 miles). Yingkow Branch Line; (13.9 miles). Fushun Branch Line; (30.9 miles). Yentai Coal Branch Line; (19.7 miles). Antung-Mukden Line; (170.8 miles).

Head Offices: Dairen.

Total Receipts for the Year 1919: Gold Yen 67,060,720,03.

Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: Gold Yen 30,528,937.56.

Number of passengers Carried: 9,274,114.

Amount of freight (in short tons): 10,096,672.

Receipts (1) From Passengers: Gold Yen 14,243,789.91. (2) From Freight. Gold Yen 46,305,759.02.

Locomotives:

Number.	Tender or Tank.	Distribu- tion of Wheels.	Gross Weight in Short Tons.	Maker.	Remarks.
4 35 69 18 5	Tender Tank Tender	4-4-0 2-6-2 2-6-4 4-6-0	114.50 113.54 99.74 131.99 134.16 134.40	A. L. Co. ,, ,, ,, B. P. Co.	A. L. Co.— American Locomotive Company.
. 7 3 6	"	4-6-2	151.58 158.50 159.30	A. L. Co. SM.R. Baldwin	B. P. Co.— Beyer Peacock Company. S. M. R.— South
46 20 40 12 25 26	"	2-8-0 2-8-2 2-10-0	1.43.15 137.43 143.18 146.20 177.75 163.15	A.L. Co. Baldwin B. P. Co. S. M. R. A. L. Co.	Manchuria Railway Company.
323	Tank	2-2-4	36.40	Baldwin	Inspection Locomotive.

Number.	Class.	Type.	
9	1st Class Sleeping Car.	With Vestibules, 6 wheel bogie.	
9 7 7	2nd Class Sleeping Car.	With Vestibules, 4 wheel bogie.	
7	Combination 2nd Class	With Vestibule one side,	
	Sleeping & Baggage Car.	4 wheel bogie.	
15	Dining Car.	With Vestibules, 6 wheel bogie.	
3	Combination 1st Class Pas-	With Vestibules (or without),	
	senger and Dining Car.	4 wheel bogie.	
13	1st Class Passenger Car.	Without Vestibule, with 4 wheel bogie	
14	Combination 1st and 2nd		
	Class Passenger Car.	"	
19	2nd Class Passenger Car.		
13	Combination 2nd & 3rd	"	
	Class Passenger Car.	"	
121	3rd Class Passenger Car.		
41	Combination 3rd Class &	"	
11	Baggage Car.	"	
4	Baggage Car.		
29	Combination Baggage and	With Vestibule One Side,	
20	Mail Car.	4 wheel bogie.	
2	Private Car.	With Vestibule Que Side,	
_	111100 001.	6 wheel bogie.	
297		(One of them 4 wheel bogie.)	

Goods Vehicles:

Number.	Capacity.	Type.
1,939 1,922	ь0,000 lb. Capacity.	Box Car. Gondola Car.
281 195	100,000 lb. Capacity.	Flat Car. Coal Car.
28	700,000 ib. Capacity.	Ore Car.
230	60,000 lb. Capacity.	Ballast Car.
10	4,000 lb. Capacity. 2,500	Water Tank Car.
8	7,400 lb. Capacity. 6,500	Oil Tank Car.
5	,	Refrigerator Car.
183		Caboose.
4,798		

Dimensions	of	Principal	Bridges:
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	of I thought Bridges	No. of	Length of	
		Spans.	Spans.	
Between	Chiu-Chai and Hsiung-Yao-Chang		\times 105'	
**	Liao-Yang and Chang-Tai-Tzu	13	× 105′	
,,	Hun-Ho and Mukden		× 105′	
,,	Kai-Yuan and Chin-Kou-Tsu	20	× 105'	
	Fu-Chin and Pen-HsHi-Hu) 10	× 601	
,,	Fu-Chin and Fen-fishi-fid	J 10	× 105′	

Yalu River (connecting Antung-Mukden and Korean Railways) 3.097 ft. Swing drawbridge on central pier. 6 spans of 310'; 6 spans of 208'.

Dimensions of Principal Tunnels:

Between	Chi-Kuan-Shan and Chiu-Mu-Chuang	3,254'-0" 1.505'-0"
,,	Chiu-Mu-Chuang and Liu-Chia-Ho	1,786′-0″
,,	Tsao-Ho-Kou and Chu-Chia-Pu	1,914′-0″
,,	Chu-Chia-Pu and Lien-Shan-Kuan	1,178′-0″
,,	Lieu-Shan-Kuan and Hsia-Ma-Tang	1,056′-0″
,,	Hsia-Ma-Tang and Nan-Fen	1,505'-6"
	Chiao-Tou and Fu-Chin	
"	Omao-Tou and Tu-Omit	4,884′-0″

Longest and Fastest Through Run:

From Dairen to Changchun. 437.6 miles.

Time 21 hours and 30 minutes.

Signalling System.

Manual Block System.

CHINESE EASTERN (TUNG CHING) RAILWAY.

(Manchouli to Suifenho, via Harbin, and Harbin to Changchun).

Construction begun: 1897. Capital: Source: Russian.

Cost of Construction: Roubles 350,000,000. Mileage, main line: 1,073; Branches: 202.

Gauge: 5 feet.

Engineer in Charge of Construction: A Turgovitch (Russian).

Opened to Traffic: July 1, 1903.

Junctions with Other systems at: Changchun with the South Manchuria Railway; Manchouli with the Trans-Siberian line; Suifenho with continuation of Trans-Siberian line to Vladivostok; Angangki with Tsitsihar Light Railway.

Branches: Harbin to Changehun; Harbin to Harbin Pristan.

Head Office: Now Managed from Peking and Harbin.

Established in virtue of an agreement between the Chinese Government and the Russo-Chinese Bank, August 29, 1896. Construction begun in Spring of 1897. Provision for connection with Port Arthur and Dalny (Dairen) made in 1898. Line opened, 1901. The Southern portion of this railway from Changchun to Dairen with branches was handed over to the Japanese after the Russo-Japanese War (see South Manchuria Railway). Another section, from Changchun to the Sungari is to be handed over to Japan by virtue of an agreement concluded between Russia and Japan in 1916.

Recent statistics relating to the railway have been impossible to obtain. The arrangements made for its control are dealt with in the Chapter on

the Russian Problem in China.

After America's entry into the War a Commission of American engineers to improve transport on the Siberian Line was engaged by the Kerensky Government. The Bolshevik Revolution held up the Commission, which was presided over by Mr. Stevens, and eventually it proceeded to Harbin where it attempted to begin work. After Allied intervention the Commission was moved to Vladivostok, and merged into the Inter-Allied Technical Board, China being represented thereon. In 1919, by agreement the Commission was given a new status, and a Russian became its President. On the fall of Koltchak the Technical Board continued to function at Vladivostok, while an Interallied Technical Commission endeavoured to improve conditions on the Chinese Eastern Railway at Harbin.

The latest available statistics are the following:

 1908
 1909
 1910
 1912

 Receipts (Roubles)
 14,941,556
 15,536,309
 17,524,135
 22,000,000

 Expenditure (Roubles)
 18,403,787
 16,251,270
 15,905,520
 30,000,000

The number of passengers carried was (1912) 1,660,533. Freight 3,390,773 tons. Revenue (1912) From passengers Rbls. 4,322,247; from freight Rbls 15,427,346.

YUNNAN RAILWAY: (HAIPHONG (TONKIN)—YUNNANFU (CHINA)).

(Compagnie Française des Chemins de Fer de l'Indochine et du Yunnan).

Construction Begun: Tonkin-1901; Yunnan-1904.

Capital: 17,500,000 francs-Source: French.

Mileage (Main Line): Tonkin: 536 (862 kilomètres); China: 288 (464 kilomètres).

Gauge: 1 mètre.

Engineer in Charge of original construction: Tonkin: Administration des Travaux Publics; Yunnan: M. Guibert (1902—1908); M. Dufour (1908—1910).

Present Engineer in Chief: Vice-Président du Conseil d'Administration, Directeur Général: M. M. Getten Directeur de l'Exploitation: M. G. Chemin Dupontes.

Date on which Opened to Traffic: April 1, 1910.

Junctions with other Systems at: Yên-Viên avec la ligne Hanoi-Dong-Dang (Tonkin); Hanoi avec la ligne Hanoi-Vinh (Annam).

Head Office: Siège social: 89 Rue de Miromesnil, Paris (VIIIe) Direc-

tion de l'Exploitation; Hanoi (Tonkin).

Total receipts for the year 1920: 25,057,815 f 13.

Total Expenditure for the year 1920: 20,584,903 f 80.

Number of Passengers carried: 6,144,208.

Amount of Freight: 315,898 tons.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: 10,946,516 f. 70. (2) From Freight: 14,111,298 f. 43.

Locomotives:

Number.	Tender or tank	Distribu- tion of wheels.			ight maker tons)
20	Tenders	4-4-0	28 T	(légères)	Société de Construc-
31	Tenders	4-6-0	38 T5	(lourdes)	tion des Batignolles
10	Tanks	2-8-2	56 T	(extra-lourdes))
1	\mathbf{Tank}			,	Cockerill
2	Tanks				Type Suisse

Coaching Vehicles:

1 voiture Salon (boggies); 1 voiture de service (boggies); 24 voitures de 1e, 2e, and 3e classes (boggies); 12 voitures de 3e cl. (boggies); 78 voitures de 4e cl. (boggies); 22 fourgons à bagages avec compartiments "Postes" (baggages).

Goods Vehicles:

659 Wagons divers de 10 T.; 75 Wagons a marchandises de 20 T. (boggies); 8 Wagons de secours; 3 Wagons grues

Dimensions of Principal Bridges:

Tonkin: Sur le Song-Tam-Bac (k. 99.250 près de Haiphong) 90m.; Sur le Song Lai-Vu (k. 64.800 de la Section Hanoi-Haiphong) 125m.; Sur le Song Thai-Binh (k. 59.600 de la Section Hanoi-Haiphong) 380m.; Sur le Canal des Rapides (k. 9.500 de la Section Hanoi-Lao-kay) 229m.; Sur la Rivière Claire (k. 70.900 de la Section Hanoi-Lao-Kay) 295m.

Yunnan: Pont sur le Nam-Ti (près de Lao-Kay) 120m.; Kil. 83.700— Viaduc de 136m. (17 travées de 8m.); Kil. 111.845—Pont à arbalétriers de 67m. reliant 2 tunnels.

Dimensions of Principal Tunnels: Yunnan: Kil. 91.700, 720 m.; Kil. 270, 578 m.; 95 Tunnels de 20 à

100 m.; 38 Tunnels de 100 à 200 m.; 23 Tunnels de 200 à 500 m.

Longest and Fastest Through Run: de Haiphong à Lao-Kay-13h. 29m. -396 kil. de Lao Kay à Ami-Tchéou-11h. 34m.-220 kil.; de Ami-Tchéou à Yunnanfu-10h. 16m.-244 kil.

Signalling System: Signaux fixes avancés près des Stations.

SHANTUNG RAILWAY (TSINGTAO TO TSINANFU).

Construction begun: 1899.

Capital: 54,000,000 marks. Source: German.

Mileage (Main line): 256 (394.16 Km.) Mileage (Branches) 28 (38.87 Km.)

Gauge: 4' 81".

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: P. Hildebrand (German)

President: Dr. M. Akiyama.

Present Engineer in Chief: K. Nakamura. Date on which opened to traffic: June, 1904.

Junction with other systems at: Tsinanfu with Tientsin-Pukow Line.

Branch: Changtien to Tsuchuan (Colliery) 28 miles.

Head Office: Tsingtao.

Number of passengers carried 1919: 2,545,268. Amount of freight:

1919: 987.504 tons.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers: Yen 2,709,481; (2) From freight: Yen. 5,790,998.

Locomotives :

	Tender or	Distribution	Gross Weight	Maker
Number	Tank	of Wheels	(in kg.)	
9	Tank	0-6-0	30800 kg.	German.
7	Tank	0-6-2	53826	German.
30	Tender	4-6-0	109420	German.
4	Tank	2-4-4	65728	German.
3	Tender	0-8-0	98975	German.
26	Tender	2-8-0	120000	American

Coaching Vehicles:

1 Saloon Car; 2 Special Car; 6 Sleeping and Dining Car; 3 Mail Car; 14 1st and 2nd Class Car; 7 2nd Class Car; 8 2nd and 3rd Class Car; 73 3rd Class Car; 4 Mail and Baggage Car; 2 Baggage Car; Caboose.

Goods Vehicles:

361 Box Car; 34 Gondola; 807 Coal; 50 Ore Car; 75 Cattle Car; 20 Lime; 100 Timber Car: 1 Stock Car; 13 Oil Tank, 3 Fish Car; 1 Weigh Bridge Calibration; 4 Tool Cars.

Dimensions of Principal Bridges;

Litsen-ho (14 k. 055 m.) 30 m. ×7; Paisha-ho (24 k. 681 m. 80.) 30 m. ×8; Wei-ho (143 k. 865 m. 85) 46 m. ×3, 30×3, 15×3; Branch of Wei-ho (148 k. 606 m. 10) 30 m. ×8; Mi-ho (227 k. 923 m. 78) 30×9; Tsu-ho (257 k. 625 m. 55) 40×9 , 35×2 .

Longest and fastest through run: From Tsingtao to Tsinanfu, 256 miles. Time 101 hours.

Signalling system: Tablet.

C. Private and Provincial Railways.

SUNNING (HSIN-NING) RAILWAY.

Construction begun: May 1st, 1906.

Capital: \$4,193,126.00 Source: From Chinese Merchants of Sunning.
Mileage (Main line): 63.7 (215 li); Mileage (Branches) constructed, 58
Li. When Finished 258 Li.

Gauge: 4 feet 81 inches.

Engineer in Charge of Original Construction: Mr. Chin Gee Hee.

Present Engineer in Chief: Mr. Chin Gee Hee. Date on which opened to traffic: April 20th, 1909.

Head Office: Sunning City.

Total Receipts for the year 1919: \$693,474.74.
Total Expenditure for the Year 1919: \$685,359.30.
Number of passengers carried 488,628 passengers.

Receipts: (1) From Passengers \$558,394,57; (2) From freight (1919) \$135,080.17.

Locomotives:

Purchased from U.S.A. Details cannot be mentioned.

Coaching Vehicles:

42 Passenger cars.

Goods Vehicles:

92 Goods Wagons.

Dimensions of principal Bridges: (Gow Wan River) Length of Ferry boat 350 feet; width of Ferry boat 50 feet.

Extensions (if any) contemplated. to Yangkiang.

Longest and fastest through run: From Pak Kai to Tou Shan $67\frac{1}{2}$ miles. Time $3\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

Kiangsi (Nan-Shan) Railway. (Kiukiang to Nanchang).

Capital: Tls. 2,800,000. Source: Chinese and Japanese loans.

Cost of Construction (estimated): Tls. 4,000,000.

Gauge: $4/8\frac{1}{2}$ ". Mileage: 87.

Engineer in Charge of Construction: Mr. Okasaki (Japanese).

Opened to Traffic: 1915. Head Office: Nanchang.

Remarks: Original scheme contemplated extension to Shiuchow in Kwangtung, to link up with the Canton-Hankow Line. Loans amounting to \$10,000,000 are said to have been made, at 7 per cent. by the Bank of Taiwan. No returns received, but the following information appears in the

Kiukiang Customs Report for 1920:

The gross receipts of the Nan-Hsün Railway for the year totalled about \$600,000, whilst the total expenditure, including interest on loans, amounted to \$800,000. The rolling-stock, permanent way, and bridges are in a bad state of disrepair and will entail a very heavy outlay in the near future if the line is to continue working. A short-term loan of \$400,000 was contracted with the Bank of Taiwan and another of \$20,000 with the Bank of Communications to meet outstanding obligations and pay the salaries of the staff, which had been three months in arrears. Mismanagement and corruption are rampant, and the company is so heavily in debt to the Japanese

that sooner or later these creditors will take over the running of the line, with a possibility of extending it to Kwangtung and Fukien, as once planned by then, thus enabling it to pay its way.

CANTON-HANKOW (YUEH-HAN) RAILWAY.

(Southern (Kwangtung) Section)

This section of the Canton Hankow Railway is being built by the Kwangtung Mercantile Administration of the Yueh-Han Railway, a Chinese Company, with a neminal Capital of \$40,000,000, of which only a portion has been paid up. The line is completed for 140 miles to Shiukwan, leaving sixtynine miles of the Southern Section to be completed. The completed sec tion is being operated as a private railway company.

Construction begun: By an American Syndicate (which abandoned the

enterprise on receiving compensation to the amount of \$6,700,000 Gold) in

January, 1904.

Gauge: $4/8\frac{1}{2}''$.

Mileage, (main-line): 209 miles; Branch: 32 miles.

Engineer in Charge of Construction: Chinese. Opened to Traffic: Canton to Shiuchow, 140 miles.

Junction with other systems at: Canton, by loop-line, with Canton-Kowloon Railway (not yet completed.)

Branch: Canton-Samshui (q.v.)

Head Office: Canton.

Remarks: At Yingtak, 90 miles from Canton, there is a bridge consisting of three 200 ft. spans and one 60 ft. one 50 ft. and one 45 ft. There is another bridge 750 ft. in length at the 150th mile, and a tunnel about 1,000 ft. in length at mile 160. The route at the Northern end has been surveyed to the border of Hunan. Through this section of the line it will be necessary to construct some sixty tunnels, aggregating 10,000 ft. in length. It is estimated that the cost of construction of the section between mile 140 and mile 209 will be upwards of \$9,000,000, and that the total cost of the Kwangtung section will exceed \$16,000,000.

"Owing to lack of funds, construction work and track-laying on the Yüeh-Han Railway (Kwangtung section) cannot be pushed farther than Shiukwan (韶闊). A deep well for supplying water to locomotives, etc., at Wongsha will be erected, and three "T" sheds have been finished. With the exception of these, only some trifling work has been effected. The average daily number of passengers carried by the line during the year was 2,913, and the fares collected amounted to about \$1,607 per diem. The tonnage of goods carried averaged 933 tons per day, producing a freight

return of \$3,027 daily." *

SWATOW-CHAOCHOUFU (CHAO-SHAN) RAILWAY.

Construction begun: September, 1904. Capital: \$3,303,303. Source: Chinese.

Cost of Construction: \$250,000.

Gauge: 4/ 81".

Engineer in Charge of Construction: Mr. Sato (Japanese)

Opened to Traffic: November, 1906.

^{*} Customs Report, 1919.

Head Office: Swatow.

Receipts for year 1908: \$220,537.* Expenditure for year 1908: \$220,031. Number of passengers carried: 672,879.

Receipts from (1) Passengers: \$193, '88; (2, From Freight: \$11,073.

This line has never been financially successful, and recent returns cannot be obtained. Requests for latest statistics were returned, unopened, "refused to accept by addressee."

TSITSIHAR LIGHT (ANGANGKI) RAILWAY.

Construction begun: September, 1907. Capital: Tls. 284,758. Source: Chinese.

Cost of Construction: Tls. 241,283.48. Mileage (total), 17.

Gauge: metre.

Engineer in Charge of Construction: W. R. T. Tuckey (British).

Opened to traffic: September, 1909.

Junction with other system at: Angangki, with the Chinese Eastern Railway.

Head Office: Tsitsihar.

ROADS.

Although China is said to possess 2,000 miles of "Imperial" roads, there are, outside the Treaty Ports, few highways which would be considered roads in any civilized country. The so-called national highways are for the most part narrow tracks, footpaths, or roads untraversible by any vehicle but the Peking cart. Broad macadamized thoroughfares are now being constructed in many progressive cities, such as Peking, Tientsin, Tsinanfu, Taiyuanfu, Foochow, Canton, etc. Considerable road-making activity has been shown in the neighbourhood of Peking. There are roads available for motor-traffic from the Capital to Tangshan Hot Spring, 25 miles distant, and to various other places of interest in the vicinity of the Capital. The long promised Peking-Tientsin Road is now under construction, and there is a mud road, reasonably good in dry weather, between Tientsin and Paotingfu. At Foochow a scheme for the construction of about 100 miles of modern roads has been adopted. The Defence Commissioner at Shanghai has constructed a road to Woosung, for the upkeep of which a toll is levied. Adventurous spirits have made journeys of considerable length by motor-car and motorcycle in Chihli and other North China provinces, but the going is hard and difficult. The longest regular motor-trip in China is that from Kalgan to Urga, maintained by the North-Western Motor Service, under the Ministry of Communications, and also by certain private agencies.

The Good Roads Movement of China was launched at a well attended meeting held in Shanghai on May 5, 1921. Permanent officers were elected after the movement was assured of the support of officials, Chambers of Commerce and large business interests. The Movement advocates a good road from Shanghai to Nanking and another from Shanghai to Hangchow. In addition, an Exhibition of things connected with good roads is to be

held in May, 1922.

^{*}The 1915 Customs Report estimated the number of passengers carried that year at 1.002,643 and the amount of freight at 23,953 tons. The gross earnings for 1915 were \$321,471.

The following is a list of the main high-ways radiating from Peking, but though in some places they are broad avenues, planted with trees and paved, for the most part they are mere courier tracks, furnished with inns, relay-stations, and military posts.

- 1. Peking-Tungchow-Yungping-Shanhaikuan-Mukden.
- PEKING-Jehol (144)-TSITSIHAR.
- PEKING-Dolon-nor-KHAILAR.
- 4. PEKING-Kalgan (125)-Urga-Maimachin-KIACHTA.
- 5. Peking-Kalgan-Kueihuating-Uliassutai-Kobdo-Semipalatinsk.
- 6. Peking-Taiyuanfu-Sianfu (770)-Lanchow (1120)-Liangchou-Kanchou-Suchou-(Gobi Desert)-Hami (2092)-Urumtsi-Kashgar (3439) (or from Hami N. W. to Lake ZAISANI.
- 7. Peking-Lanchow (as above)-Sining (159 miles from Lanchow)-Dangar-Kokonor-Nakchuka-Lhassa-Gartok (800 miles from Lhassa).
 Peking-Taiyuanfu-Sianfu-Chengtu (via W. Tsinling and Tiensha Pass)-
- 8. Tatsienlu-Litang-Batang-Lhassa.
- 9. PEKING Chengtingfu-Kaifeng-Siangang-Kingchunfu - Changtehfu - Kwei yang-Yunnanfu-Talifu-Tengyueh Bhamo [from Yunnanfu to Mengtze and Hanoi, or to Szemao].
- PEKING-Chengtingfu-Kaifeng-Hankow-Yochow-Hengchoufu-Kweilin. 10.
- 11. PEKING-HANKOW-Hengchoufu-Canton.
- 12. Peking-Tehchoufu-Hsuchoufu-Luchoufu (Anhui)-Kiukiang Nanchang-CANTON (Ambassador's Road).
- 13. PEKING-Tehchoufu-Tsinanfu-Chinkiang-Hangchow - Wenchow - Santuao-FOOCHOW.

Other important roads connect (1) the capital of Szechuan with Nanking, and (2) Hankow with the Russian frontier :-

- CHENGTU-Wanhsien-Ichang-Hankow Anking (cross Yangtze) Tatung-Wuhu-NANKING.
- HANKOW-Anlu-Siangyang-SIANFU-Lanchow-Hami-Lake Zeisan (total distance, 2580 miles).

From Tsinanfu, the capital of Shantung, roads lead to Choutsun, Chefoo and Weihaiwei and to Weihsien and Tsingtao.

Alternative routes between Kalgan and Sianfu are (1) via Tatung and Taiyuanfu, and (2) via Sohping.

III. WATERWAYS.

Apart from the navigable rivers to which reference has already been made, China is well supplied with canals and minor waterways. The deltas of the Yangtze and West River contain the chief networks of the latter, and the Grand Canal* is the most important artificial channel in the Emrire. In the provinces of Chekiang and Kiangsu, in an area 175 miles by 160 miles, there are said to be 25,000 miles of canal.

The Grand Canal extends from Hangchow to Tientsin, traversing in its course the provinces of Chekiang, Kiangsu, Shantung, and Chihli. Its total length is approximately 850 miles; at Chinkiang. 280 miles from Hangchow, it enters the Yangtze, and starts again on the northern bank at Kuachou.

In common with other public works in China the Grand Canal is in a state of neglect; the upper section, with the exception of the part where the canal uses the channel of the Wei-ho, has suffered most, and navigation may be interrupted in parts for months at a time; between

^{*} See Shapter on River Conservancy and Harbour Works.

Tsingkiangpu (the old bed of the Yellow River) and the Yangtze its condition is slightly better, while south of the Yangtze the canal still remains (except for one portion in winter) a navigable highway. Some 8050 boats,

of an aggregate tonnage of 99,000 tons, use the Canal.

A National Conservancy Bureau was formed in December, 1913, under the presidency of Chang Chien, with a foreigner, Mr. H. van der Veen, as consulting engineer Local bureaux have been established in some of the provinces to deal with irrigation and conservancy matters, those in Kiangsu and Anhui being charged with the survey of the Huai River and its flood districts. The river is now receiving special attention and was visited in 1914 by engineers of the American Red Cross. As a result of their investigations an agreement was entered into between the American International Corporation and the Chinese Government to carry out an improvement scheme under the Grand Canal Improvement Board. It is proposed that the Huai River should be diverted by the construction of a dam at the point where the river enters the Hungtseh Lake, and that a new canal should be made to carry the water to the Grand Canal. Owing to the Great War the scheme had to be postponed until the time was favourable for the raising of the necessary loan.

Other conservancy schemes in contemplation have to do with the Sikiang or West River, the Hangchow sea wall, and the dredging of West

Lake, Chekiang.

IV. BRIDGES.

The extension of China's railway system adds each year to the number of bridges that span her numerous rivers.* Proposals have been made for the construction of a bridge over the Yangtze at Hankow to connect the Peking-Hankow line and the Hankow (i.e. Wuchang, south side of the river)-Canton Railway, and for another bridge over the Han River at Hanyang. Connection between the Tientsin-Pukow Railway and the Shanghai-Nanking line will be maintained for the present by means of a ferry between Pukow and Nanking.

^{*} For details of Railway Bridges see Railways.

CHAPTER XVIII. COMMUNICATIONS. (Continued.)

THE CHINESE POST OFFICE.

HISTORICAL SURVEY.

The Chinese Post Office was formally established by Imperial Decree on the 20th March, 1896. What one sees of it to-day is the result of a long experiment begun as far back as 1861 by the then Inspector General of Customs, Sir Robert Hart.

The 1904 Yearly Report on the working of the Post Office contained

a brief summary of postal History, and is quoted in part below.

"Early in the "sixties," during the first few winters after Foreign Representatives took up their residence at Peking, the Legation and Customs mails were exchanged between Shanghai and Peking, under the auspices of the Tsungli Yamen, by means of the Government couriers employed for the transmission of official despatches. It was then found convenient to arrange that the Customs should undertake the responsibility of making up and distributing these mails, a practice which, for the overland service during the winter months, involved the creation of Postal Departments at the Inspectorate and in the Custom Houses at Shanghai and Chinkiang, and, similarly, for the transmission of mails by coast steamers during the open season, the opening of quasi-Postal Departments in the Tientsin and other coast port Custom Houses. At that early date it could be seen that out of this simple beginning might be elaborated a system answering other and larger requirements on the principle of a National Post Office. This idea gradually shaped into form and had already so much ingratiated itself in the official mind that in 1876, when the Chefoo Convention was being negotiated, the Tsungli Yamen authorised the Inspector General to inform the British Minister, Sir Thomas Wade, that it was prepared to sanction the establishment of a National Postal System and willing to make it a Treaty stipulation that postal establishments should be opened at once. Unfortunately, the insertion of the postal clause was omitted in the official text of the Treaty, and thus the project was postponed sine die. Meanwhile, however, the experiment was persevered with and warmly encouraged by the Imperial Commissioner Li Chung-t'ang, who promised to "father" it officially as soon as it proved a success. Hence the more formal opening of Postal Departments at various Custom Houses, the 1878 experiment of trying a Native Post Office alongside the Customs Post, and the establishment of Customs couriers." This Service was much appreciated by the Foreign Public, and by the Foreign Postal Administrations with agencies in China. In 1878 China was invited to join the Union and it was hoped then by Foreign Postal Administrations that this development would relieve them of the expense of maintaining agencies in China. But the Chinese Government was not then willing to undertake national responsibilities in this matter.

In respect of the new departure the Customs Service under the leadership of Sir Robert Hart had alone, from the beginning to support the enterprise. In his first Postal Circular the I.G. notified his decision to continue his experiment and appointed Mr. G. Detring, Commissioner of Customs at Tientsin to regulate the working of the various postal departments. On the issue of the Imperial Decree the Customs Statistical Secretary at Shanghai then Mr. Kopsch was appointed to act also as Postal Secretary. In the following year it was decided to have the Postal Secretary at the Inspectorate General in Peking and Mr. J. A. Van Aalst

Chinese Secretary was concurrently vested with the office of Postal Secretary. In 1896 an Edict assenting to the Yamen's proposal to introduce a Government Postal System was issued on the 20th March. The suggestion to establish an Imperial Post on Western lines had been made by Sir Robert Hart as far back as 1861. The Edict constituted the Customs Posts as the National Institution and confided the direction to Sir R. Hart, as Inspector General of Customs and Posts. In 1899 Mr. Van Aalst was charged solely with the duties of Postal Secretary. Much of the pioneer work was done under his direction. In 1901 Mr. T. Piry succeeded to the office and under his capable administration and enthusiastic guidance great progress was made. With but a short break he continued as Postal Secretary till 1911 when on the transfer of the the Postal Service (28th May 1911) from the Shui Wu Ch'u (稅務處) to the Yu Chuan Pu 郵傳部) (Ministry of Posts and Communications) he was appointed by Imperial Decree Postmaster General (總辦) with executive control of the Service, but subordinate in rank to a Director General (局長) the first to hold this latter post being Lord Li Ching-Fang, then Senior Vice President of the Ministry. In May 1915 Mr. T. Piry returned to France on leave, and resigned his post in April 1917 being then appointed Honorary Adviser to the Chinese Postal Administration. In 1918 Mr. Piry died: Fifty years of his life had been spent in China. To him almost as much as to any other is due the credit for the development of the Posts and his great Services were commemorated in a Presidential Mandate.

In 1915 Mr. H. Picard-Destelan assumed direction of the Service being

confirmed as Co-Director General in 1917.

In appointing a Frenchman to be the executive head of the Service on separation from the Customs, China was fulfilling certain obligations to France. An exchange of notes between the two Governments in 1898 expressed the willingness of the Chinese Government to enlist the help of foreign officers in the organization of the Service and expressed willingness to consider the recommendations of the French Government in the selection of staff. A further exchange of notes on this subject took place in 1902.

NATIVE INSTITUTIONS.

From time immemorial the Chinese Nation possessed two postal institutions: one, the I Chan (Imperial Government Courier Service) deeply embedded in official routine, the other, the Minchu, Native posting Agencies, long used and respected by the people.

The I Chan (譯比) service was maintained wholly by the State through provincial contributions from ordinary local taxes. In 1902, the two Yangtze Viceroys in a joint Memorial submitting their own plans for a National Post estimated the total cost of this service at some 3 million taels annually, an estimate fully borne out by the annual statements which occasionally appeared in the Ching Pao. For this enormous sum poor services were secured. The Memorialists themselves recognised it and recommended the abolition of the I Chan. The same radical step had already been advocated by the Censors in 1898. The I Chan Service functioned along the old Imperial highways and it was only in 1912-13 that the Post office undertook the transmission of all government despatches and the I Chan Service was abolished.

The following note on the Government Courier Service of China was published as appendix F to the Post Office Report for the year 1904.

"The I Chan (驛站) or Government Service of Couriers for the transmission of official despatches, is mentioned in the records of the Chow dynasty, some 3,000 years ago, and has always existed since. As actually working, this Service is placed under the supervision of the Board of War

at Peking where a special department, the Ch'e Chia Ssu (車駕司) with seven officials at its head, superintends all I Chan affairs, both metropolitan and provincial, and keeps and audits accounts. Two Yamens near the Tung Hua Men, both under joint Manchu and Chinese Directors (Chien-tu) keep up at the capital their connexions with the provinces; one, known as the Ma Kuan (馬館), oversees the couriers and horses; the other, the Chieh Pao Ch'u (捷報處), attends to the mails on arrival and departure. 34 messengers are said to be perpetually on roster to maintain constant relations between these two Yamens and the head department in the Board of War. As detached from these central bureaux, 16 Directors, called T'itang (塘提), all superior military graduates, are appointed by the Board of War to reside in the provincial capitals and keep up from there direct communication with Peking; the Director at each place depends on the Provincial Judge. These 16 head bureaux are distributed among the provinces as follows: Chihli, Kiangnan, Shantung, Shansi, Honan, Shenkan, Chekiang, Fukien, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Szechuan, Yunnan; one is special for the Yellow River and Grand Canal.

All covers for despatch through the I Chan (驛坑) to the provinces have first to be inspected and stamped at the Ch'e Chia Ssu; they are then sent to the Chieh Pao Ch'u and through the Ma Kuan, whose horses and men are requisitioned, thence forwarded to the first stage from Peking, i.e., Liang-Hsiang-hsien if for a westward direction, or Tungchow if eastwards; the Chou or Hsien there is responsible for the transmission to the next stage, and so on at each subsequent stage till the cover reaches its Similarly, for provincial despatches to Peking, the T'i-tang destination. attends to their despatch to the first stage from his end, and they proceed from stage to stage till they reach the Ch'e Chia Ssu at Peking where they are sent to the Yamen concerned. Any despatch so sent must be enclosed in an official cover, ma-feng (馬封) having indicated on a slip attached to it, P'ai-tan (排單), the I Chan cities through which it has to pass; this slip is annotated at each place with the date of passage. According to the urgency of the message, the couriers, fu-i (夫役) travel from 200 to 600 li per day, and at each stage horses and men must, in principle, be kept in readiness.

In addition to the transmission of despatches, the I Chan also provides means of transport for officials on transfer, but in this case, by regulation, the travellers must hold an authority or huo-p'ai (火炉) to requisition horses and men at the official stages on the way."

The sums spent for the maintenance of this large Service were not centralised in Peking, but were deducted at each district town from the local taxes to be reported to the provincial Treasury, and thence to the Throne.

Minchu.

The native posting hongs were particularly well established in the populous provinces of China. "Letter traffic they considered their legitimate business, and they also engaged in the transmission of parcels, bank drafts and sycee and this is the most lucrative part of their business. These agencies are essentially shop agencies in part engaged also in other trade." Their operations, maintained by fast courier or rapid "postboats" are usually confined to one or two provinces or to certain districts. They were formerly in ne way hampered by official legislation; "fixed the limit of their responsibilities and adjusted their rates as they pleased the latter having frequently to be bargained for. One characteristic rule is that half the charge is paid by the sender and half by the addressee;

this practice often leads to extra demands on delivery when the second half of the charge, the chiu-tze (tip) is claimed."

Along the coast the appearance of steam brought for those Minchu working at places on the river a new order of things. For a long time no particular notice was taken of their doings, and when supervision over them became necessary they were found to have organised themselves into strong bodies holding a monopoly for the transmission by steamers of all interport native correspondence. With these, the I.P.O. came into direct contact as the Decree of 1896 called upon them to recognize the new institution. But from the first a most considerate policy was sketched out by the I. G. himself in the following words: "Mercantile firms have for ages been doing postal work all over the Empire, not only at the few ports where the I.P.O. is now beginning to function but at innumerable places at which it cannot be established for many a year, and have been making a livelihood and handling correspondence, parcels, etc., in a suitable and convenient manner for a very large public: they are thus necessary. It was therefore decided to encourage their continuance and development and in order to regularise matters and bring all into line, to begin by the registration of such firms as have business houses at the treaty ports, to arrange for the carriage of their interport mails, to require all who thus registered to send such interport mail matter etc. through the 1.P.O. and to affiliate them as agents of the I.P.O. for conveyance of letters, etc. to and from places inland. Special regulations have been drawn up in this sense for their guidance and observance, and while their constituents will continue to pay them as before for transmitting correspondence at native rates fixed by themselves, such firms, on the other hand, are to pay a transit fee to the I.P.O. which has undertaken the conveyance of their interport mails according to special tarff. Accordingly, these native establishments will function for some time almost independently alongside of the I.P.O. but they will eventually be absorbed and gradually merged in the public Postal Service of the Empire without being inconvenienced or suppressed." This liberal programme has been adhered to, and at some cost to the Service. With the enormous extension of recent years the Post Office has ceased to avail itself of the services of any Minchu for the carrying of correspondence to distant inland towns. The Minchu on the other hand avail themselves of the organization of the Post Office to transmit such part of the mail matter which they have collected the transmission of which would prove unremunerative, reserving the remainder for delivery themselves. The carrying by steamship or railway companies of Minchu mails is forbidden but smuggling by Minchu agents is rampant.

The Minchu were spread even over Szechuan and their services to Shensi, Kansu and the far west were well organised and efficiently equipped. It is in the three provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang and Kwangtung, blessed each with a network of canals that the Minchu are most flourishing. Letters are often carried between certain towns in the same province for a fee of one cent. The Post Office tariff is uniform at 3 cents throughout China.

The following figures show the number of letters carried on behalf of these agencies.

	No. of packages.	Weight Kilos.	No. of letters contained in
1905	262,902	104,929	8,896,782
1909	466,800	94,014	8,411,600
1916	155,417	20,808	2,624,301
1920	190,350	24,979	3,017,463

Registration,--gratuitous,--at the Post Office by Minchu was first made compulsory for those at the treaty ports, no official cognizance being taken of posting agencies in the interior until 1904 when Postmasters were directed to allow them to register and to transmit Minchu mails at letter rate on

gross weight. The packages handed in by registered Minchu were for a long time carried free by the Imperial Posts between treaty ports. It was only in 1905 that postage at letter rate on gross weight was charged on Minchu mails between Tientsin, Shanghai and Chefoo. Of the 9 million Minchu letters recorded in statistics as dealt with in the year 1904, the larger portion were exchanged between treaty ports and therefore carried free. Consequent on an agitation, worked up by the Minchu for free transmission by the Imperial institution of all their packages irrespective of destination or manner of transport, explanations were asked by the Government. of a legal tax for all letters official or private had already been established by Imperial Decree. The pretensions of the agitators led to the adoption of a rule that all Minchu mails handed to the Post Office for transmission by steamer or rail were to pay half the full tariff rate on gross weight which came into force on the 16th November 1905. Another important Imperial decision was subsequently notified: Minchu packages discovered being smuggled by steamers were rendered liable to seizure, the individual letters taxed and the offending letter-hong whether registered or not was to be prosecuted and punished. In September of 1911 the Ministry ruled that all clubbed (Minchu) packages should pay full tariff rates on the gross weight, instead of half tariff rates between treaty ports.

Only a fraction of the Minchu once flourishing now remains and they have not been able to maintain themselves where the Post Office has established day-and-night courier services. They continue in localities to offer a certain amount of competition to the Post Office, their superior merit in the eyes of a certain section of the public lying in the fact that they keep festival accounts with their customers and act moreover as direct private messengers between senders and addressees. Functioning moreover each in a small district they are able to offer their clients other facilities and privileges which the National Institution could not possibly under-

take.

ADMINISTRATION.

The administration is centred in the Directorate General of Posts in the Ministry of Communications. The Director General is H. E. Mr. Hsu Shih Chang, Vice Minister of Communications and the Co-Director General and Executive Chief Mr. H. Picard-Destelan. There is a Deputy Director General selected on the recommendation of the Co-Director General. There are seven departments each in charge of a Secretary (Ku chang):—

Chief Secretary, General Correspondence Department

Secretary, Domestic Development Department.

,, Union ,, Chinese ,, Postal Supply ,, Audit

Private Secretary

There is again the Savings Bank Department with a Secretary in charge, under the joint control of the Directors General.

A department in the Ministry known as Yu-Cheng-Ssu (郵政司) in charge of an official of the same title deals with matters submitted by the Directorate to the Minister of Communications.

Postal Commissioners are appointed by and are directly responsible to the Co-Director General. In the provinces ordinary communications with the Governor of the Province are carried on through the office of the Cheng Wu T'ing Chang (政務廳長 All the commissions (任命狀) of the Commissioners in charge of postal affairs in the provinces are sealed by the Minister of Communications.

Official correspondence is carried on in Chinese and English, except that conducted in French with Union Administrations. The Senior Chinese

Staff are all well acquainted with the English language.

ORGANISATION AND STAFF.

Post Offices were first opened at the larger treaty ports and located in the Custom Houses and controlled by Commissioners of Customs. network of postal communications slowly spread outwards from around these centres; subsequently the eighteen provinces and Manchuria were divided into postal districts, 35 in number with the Head Office in the treaty port of the districts, except in the case of Peking, where the Head Office of the Peking District was situated. The larger districts were subsequently subdivided into sub-districts, in charge of District Inspectors residing in the provincial capitals. As postal work increased in volume and complexity, Postal Commissioners were appointed to take over the larger districts; where no Postal Commissioner functioned, all postal affairs were under the ultimate control of the Commissioner of Customs, acting as District Postmaster ex-officio.

It was early realized that in a purely Chinese institution like the postal Service the long established administrative divisions of the country required to be acknowledged and that the Head Offices of districts would gradually be located in the provincial capitals. This tendency culminated in the reorganization of 1914. 21 postal districts were created. The 18 provinces of China proper now form 18 postal districts with the Head Office in the provincial capitals. Shanghai with a few surrounding offices constitutes a separate district, and Peking is likewise detached from Chihli. Manchuria and Sinkiang (Chinese Turkestan) form 3 separate districts with Head Offices in Mukden, Harbin and Tihwa. Tibet with headquarters at Lhassa formed a postal district until the Revolution. Each postal district is in charge of a Postal Commissioner, assisted by one or two Deputy Commissioners. Many postal districts are larger in extent and population than most countries in Europe. Under Head Offices postal establishments are classified according to their importance into 1st, 2nd and 3rd Class Offices, Sub-Offices, Agencies, Town Box-Offices, Rural Box-Offices and Rural Stations. The functions and facilities of offices in the matter of money order services, parcel posting, insured letters, express service, etc. depend on a number of requirements. The Executive and Office Staff are ranked as Commissioners, Deputy Commissioners, Assistants, Postal Officers, Clerks (郵務員), Yu-wu-sheng (郵務生), Sorters Linguist and Non-linguist (揀信生). Besides these there rank Agents, Postmen, Tingchai, Couriers, Rural Postmen, and Miscellaneous Staff.

The Staff returns in 1908 and 1920 read:

	1908		1920	
Foreign Staff	97		115	
Clerks and Senior Staff	1,315		1,235	
Yu-wu-sheng			2,604	
Sorters	289		2,536	
Agents	2,496		8,255	
Postmen	1,836		6,041	
Couriers	2,387		7,222	
Others	443	8,863	2,532	30,

Entrance for Chinese to all ranks above that of Courier is by com petitive examination. Those of the rank of Clerk and above are liable to be moved to any office in the country; Yu-wu-sheng and Sorters are usually only moved to offices within the province where engaged. pension scheme has been introduced, but employes of a certain service receive New Year Gratuities, or periodical Retiring Allowances and participate in the benefits of a Guarantee and Provident Fund. To this Fund, which is in the nature of a guarantee for the Service and a provision for old age for the employe, all members contribute 10% of their monthly pay, the Service adding a percentage to this, based on the ascertained profits on the year's working.

540

The nationalities	of the foreign employes are given below:	
	22 British 53 Italian	7
American	5 Portuguese 5 Belgian	3
Danish	3 Spanish 1 Russian	5
Japanese	2 Norwegian 4 Swedish	3
Jugo-Slav	1 Czecho Slovak 1 Swiss	1

The foreign staff is maintained at a numerical strength of 116; the expansion of the Service (and the statistics quoted above are only a measure of future development) provides scope for the talents of the most efficient of the Chinese staff, who are gradually taking a full share of the responsible administrative posts.

Development and Work.

At no time in the building of the Service have professional postal employes been engaged and though this may at first thought appear to have been a shortsighted policy, a close examination of the conditions under which the Service was initiated, of the limitations perforce imposed and of its evolution will justify the contention that nothing has been lost thereby. Foreign methods have all along had to be adapted to meet native requirements. Numerous formalities borrowed from the Union were objected to and tended to keep away a large clientele. Such as could be were simplified in the domestic circle of operations, without implying change in practice in international procedure. Many native requirements had to be met. The introduction of the compulsory insurance of parcels will illustrate this point. "The risk of loss and damage in the course of a long overland journey is great and when such did occur it was found that the Chinese regarded registration of parcels as insurance and insisted upon compensation in full. To explain the difference between registration and insurance and to appeal to the published rule that the Post Office is not responsible for uninsured parcels but in case of loss would as an act of grace grant an indemnity of \$5.—was useless, the senders insisted that a parcel entrusted to the Post Office must be delivered and if it were not the sender must be indemnified in full and in this contention they were upheld by the national authorities. Under these circumstances compulsory insurance became a necessity. It was anticipated that the introduction of this measure would result in a considerable diminution of the number of parcels sent, but it did not, the fact being that the Chinese held the belief that the parcel tariff was too low to ensure security and they regard the enhanced cost of transmission caused by insurance as nothing more than a reasonable charge for work done." Only in 1918 was the compulsory insurance measure rescinded.

A detailed account of development is without the scope of this article. It will suffice to say that the policy of the Administration in endeavouring to establish and extend the institution has been guided and hampered throughout by circumstances and limitations of widely different natures. Financial stringency, a raw recruiting field, well established competing agencies, native prejudice because of its foreign tint, a debased and irregular currency, annual floods, and brigandage, all impeded progress. No particular attempt at extension was made till granted by the Govern ment recognition as the National Institution. Starting with communication between Peking and a few treaty ports, short courier lines were established, extended, linked to one another, connected where necessary by junks, hongboats, postboats and steam launches on inland waterways, supplemented by camels, mulecarts, wheel barrows and rafts, and weaved into the postal web which now covers the surface of this vast country. Railway lines, eagerly availed of, hastened up communication but the number of couriers it is necessary to employ is still vast. The Post Office is now installed in all prefectural cities and hsien throughout the country and in most of

the smaller centres and towns. Every province is divided into inspecting

districts which are toured regularly by postal inspectors.

The parcel post system was formally introduced in 1898, and the money remittance system in 1897. All the facilities of the modern post offices were introduced as a competent native staff was trained. "Express Delivery" service between a few ports was experimentally tried in 1906. At the beginning of 1908 the leading bankers approached the Postal Commissioner at Hankow with a view to the adoption at that port by the I.P.O. of a special service, the "p'iao hao" for the quick delivery of bankers' letters. The plan of the proposed system was examined but it was generally conceded that the extension of the express delivery service would meet requirements and in 1909 the express service, applicable to all classes of correspondence, was extended to fifty new ports. In the course of 1910 special understandings with the Japanese and Russian Administrations made it obligatory on the C.P.O. to open an Insured Letter Service between certain stations along the railway lines, and subsequently, to meet the wishes of the mercantile community, this was extended throughcut the country. China participated in the Service of International Reply-Coupons from 1918.

The daily stages for foot couriers vary from 60 to 100 li (33 miles), routes often covered at night, and with dangers of many a nature bravely surmounted. The longest courier line in the world is that to Tihwa in Sinkiang via Urga. 12920 li (4307 miles). From Hankow a day-and-night courier service extends to Chengtu and Tatsienlu and letters from London have been delivered in Chengtu 30 days after posting in London. heavy mail service over the Yangtze rapids between Ichang and Chungking is partly maintained by a fleet of service-owned specially built fast postboats and the weight of mails carried in 1920 by the post-boat fleet was just short of a million kilos, the total mails transported over the same route by all conveyances totalling more than three million kilos. A courier line formerly linked the capital of Tibet with Peking, a Chinese Postal Commissioner being installed in Lhassa: unfortunately the revolution of 1911 caused a breakdown in arrangements and Tibet is no longer within the Chinese postal net. In the matter of postal facilities general it is worthy of mention that the Lamas of North West Kansu along the border of Tibet made request for the extension of the postal Service to their wild and remote regions.

Transmission by parcel post has of recent years frequently been, in troubled areas, the only safe means of transporting goods and the clientele once so introduced have generally remained permanent patrons of the institution. This is true to a lesser extent of the other services. A popular method of safe keeping money or of carrying funds is the purchase of money orders which are subsequently cashed by the purchaser himself.

A rural collection and delivery service experimentally started was greatly extended in 1918. Postmen, each with a supply of stamps and a handbell, are set on to specified tours collecting and delivering, passing through certain villages once or twice a week. The operation is not financially remunerative at the present time.

Steamer and Boat Lines.

On the Government owned railways mails are carried without charge, while on private-owned lines mails are carried at rates under contract. Mail escorts travel with all trains and special "Bureau Ambulants" function on the Peking-Mukden, Tientsin-Pukow, and C.E.R. lines, with the status of II Class Offices.

Launches running on inland waters carry letter mails free: China coast and river steamers were formerly remunerated on the basis of a refund of special permit fees but since 1919 payment is computed on a new basis. On the Yangtze vessels steamer-postmasters are installed.

Tariff and Stamps.

There were at one time three domestic tariffs:

- I. Treaty port or steam zone tariff
- II. Inland zone tariff
- III. Inter-zone tariff

In addition two distinctions were observed: Tariff 1 was local or domestic, and Tariffs II and III were provincial and interprovincial.

There is now only one domestic letter tariff throughout the whole of China proper. But a differentiation in the parcel tariff is maintained, parcels for certain distant districts paying double or treble postage.

The tariff of postal charges may claim to be the cheapest in the world. In the first four years of its existence the C.P.O. maintained a 4 cent rate for domestic letters but it was found too high to break up competition on the part of the long established native agencies, and it was therefore tentatively lowered to 1 cent in 1902. In 1904 it was raised to 2 cents. These low rates were inadequate to meet expenses and the present rate—3 cents—was put into operation in 1910. The unit of weight was simultaneously increased from 15 to 20 grammes. In certain privileged localities a specially low domestic rate is maintained to meet competition.

There have been 6 separate issues of postage stamps and two of Commemoration stamps. The first issue occurred in 1878. On the issue of the Imperial Decree constituting the National Post Office the currency of postage stamps was changed from candareen (tael currency) to cents (dollar currency).

The first enactment in this country by Government of a penal law to check fraud in stamps and the suppression of mail matter dates from an Edict of the 7th May 1906.

Progress.

From 1911 the year of its transfer from the Shui Wu Ch'u to the Yu Ch'uan Pu and of its functioning as an independent Service dates the greatest development. The following table best shows the record of progress:

	Offices & Agencies.	Articles Posted.	Parcels Posted.	Courier Lines li.	Steamer & Boat Lines li.
1901 1906 1911 1916 1920	176 2,096 6,201 8,797 10,469	3,500,000 31,994,143 116,748,914 233,234,373 400,886,935	126,000 400,126 954,740 2,232,100 4,126,220	153,000 319,000 421,000 603,300	17,000 45,000 64,700 74,600

During the last three years the C.O.D. (cash on delivery) parcel service has been patronised by native merchants to a large extent, mainly in one or two provinces.

	Number	Value	Weight
		\$	Kilos.
1917	12,625	97,500	18,421
1919	41,603	422,091	56,328
1920	46,580	652,834	80,271

As an indication of the responsibilities the Chinese Service will have to undertake in the future the following table comparing China with some neighbouring and European Administrations is instructive.

Country	Population	Year	Letters	Postcards	Newspaper & Printed Matter.	Free Corres- pondence.	Total	Aver- age.
China	340,000,000	1918	749,823,688	99,512,442	202,127,672	21,536,332	1,073,000,134	3.1
Japan	60,345,634	**	542,978,776	1,463,544,823	326,275,505	164,690,403	2,497,489,507	41.3
India	319.479,622	,,	509,736,369	565,131,610	57,661,450		1,132.529,429	3.5
Indo- China	16,000,000	,,	10,088,950	957,747	1,826,3_4	7,626,624	20,499,035	1.2
Strait Settle- ments	714,069	1913	5,648,725	596,358	2,507,763	366,299	9,119,146	12.7
Switzer- land	3,753,293	1913	187,747.484	83,596,167	322,709,137	57,738,228	390,286,743	173.5
Great Britain	46,122,973	1913	3,499,826,600	922,002,700	1,457,588,000		5,879,417.330	127.40
France	39,601,509	1914	1,232,740,740	329,979,890	1,355,351,558	120,926.000	3,078,599,697	77.7

Money Remittance System.

Many difficulties opposed the introduction of any foreign money order system among which may be mentioned that of the identification of individuals, the want of correctness in names, multiplicity of names or "styles" and absence of precision in addressees. In order to do away with the formalities attendant on foreign systems the plan was adopted of redeeming postage stamps under certain conditions. First introduced in a small way to convenience a certain clientele, and in no spirit of competition with native banks, the pressure of the Minchu whose "forte" lay in the transmission of money for their clients, caused the Post Office to extend its scope and the enormous popularity and success of the remitting service finally dispelled any misgivings as to this sphere of opera-The state of China's currency and the circulation in many parts of depreciated paper and coins render great vigilance necessary in the handling of the money order service. Since its introduction many alterations in procedure have been introduced as experience prompted, reducing formalities and preventing leakage. Foreign systems have been frequently studied but, everything considered, no satisfactory or more advantageous alternative has yet been devised. The final checking of all orders is done in the Money Order Clearance Office in the Audit Department at the Directorate General. The Service operates between 2020 offices in China, these being divided into three categories Money Order Office A*, A, and B.

Money Order Transactions.

Money Oraer	Transactions.	
· ·	Money Orders Issued	Money Orders Cashed
	\$	\$
1904	752,507.52	749,773,69
1911	5,937,582.36	6,008,958.95
1916	15,965,588.76	15,787,069.94
1918	35,335,846.56	34,798,589.80
1920	58,923,606.12	58,409,255.11

The average value of each money order issued in 1920 was \$21.71.

The money order service was used during the period 1918—1920 by the British and French Governments as a channel for payment of monthly allotments to families of many labourers serving in the Chinese Labour Corps. Those issued to the British Emigration Bureau in 1919 amounted to \$4,142,000 and to the French Authorities \$861,000.

A special provincial money order service provides for small coin currency remittances in Manchuria and functions in addition to the ordin-

ary service.

International Money Order Service: Agreements for the exchange of money orders have been concluded with Batavia, Macao, Hongkong and Great Britain. These have not yet been availed of to any large extent.

Finances.

The postal experiment was run for years by the Customs without any financial assistance from the Government, even after its recognition by Edict in 1896. Only in 1904 did the Chinese Government grant the necessary subsidies for the Service. The amount promised was HK. Tls. 700,000 annually. The subsidy was never paid in full, but from 1905 the Service ceased being a drain on the funds allotted to the I.G. for the manning of the Customs Service. At the time of the transfer of the Service to the Yu Chuan Pu the Post Office cash debt to the Customs totalled over three million dollars. The subsidy to the Service was completely stopped in 1911 at the revolution when the foreign Diplomatic Body placed an embargo on Customs revenue. By dint of the greatest economy and with some financial help from the Ministry services were maintained and during the year 1914 income overtook expenditure. The debt to the Customs is now being repaid in monthly instalments of \$51,000.00. With finances on a satisfactory basis the Co-director General has been able to proceed with numerous schemes all tending to distinct improvements. It will be noted that the net surplus for the year 1920 shows no improvement on the figures of the preceding year and this is to be attributed to the rise in cost of supplies and increased wages.

Postal Commissioners and District Accountants are responsible to the Cc-Director General for district funds. Receipts and expenditure are reported to the Directorate monthly and complete accounts rendered quarterly. When audited, the Co-Director General renders complete accounts for the Service to the Ministry. A yearly budget is submitted to the

Ministry.

1.1.11110	1	2	3	4
	Income	Expenditure	Surplus	Capital Expend.
		Working		(included in 2
		Expenses		expenditure.)
	\$	\$	\$	\$
1914	6,156,734.25	6,336,158.63		-
1915	6,798,580.28	6,559,864.56	238,715.72	
1916	7,630,416.84	6,693,013.58	937,403.26	311,918.26
1917	8,574,352.24	7,151,834.08	1,422,518.16	606,358.90
1918	9,496,783.18	7,589,469,80	1,907,313.38	814,379.88
1919	11,231,018.76	8,790,483.36	2,440,535.40	1,264,258.09
1920	12,679,121.98	10,467,053.07	2,212,068.91	1,263,326.32

Foreign Administration and Union Matters.

Two or three foreign post offices were early opened at Shanghai, the terminus of foreign mail steamers and they were essential for the transmission of the correspondence of their nationals. Foreign post offices gradually increased in number and established themselves at various treaty ports and numbered approximately 28 at the time of the issue of the Imperial Decree constituting the National Post Office.

The establishment of these offices in the treaty ports after the institution of the National Posts was contrary to the interests of the Chinese Posts. The British Post Offices at treaty ports instituted the penny postage and the U.S. Post Office at Shanghai the 2 gold cent rate for international correspondence. Again many foreigners living at inland places availed themselves of these rates for their home correspondence by posting packets of letters addressed to countries out of China to friends at treaty ports, or even direct to the foreign treaty port post offices, there to be opened and franked at the special rate and then transmitted. Such letters being international, postage was clearly due at international rate and in Chinese stamps. This view of the matter was subsequently brought to the notice of the foreign public inland and the practice ceased.

It should be noted that in dealing with international correspondence China from the first conformed entirely to the rules of a Union country. Shortly after the promulgation of the Imperial Decree China notified the Conseil Federal Suisse of her intention to join the Union as soon as organisation permitted and that meanwhile she would observe Union practice and rules. This declaration was confirmed at the Universal Postal

Congress at Washington by China's representatives.

Meanwhile agreements and conventions with several foreign administrations were signed and these regulated numerous matters from the taking of statistics and the accounting for transit dues to the exchange of mails and parcels and the treatment of such foreign post offices as had established themselves outside of the treaty ports. It was hoped that with the formal entry of China into the Union foreign post offices in China would be withdrawn.

In 1907 a considerable step was taken towards removing one cause of friction with the foreign post offices established in China. Both the British and French Administrations claimed under the terms of their agreements with China the right to hand over to the Chinese Administration for delivery letters originating in China which were posted at their offices franked with their stamps. As the Chinese domestic tariff was considerably lower, the claim was not likely to result in any serious diminution of Chinese postal receipts but the claim was resisted on principle as an invasion of China's domestic sphere, and both foreign administrations eventually accepted this view.

In 1908 at the request of the Union Administrations the C.P.O. at Shanghai was constituted into a central office to deal with the withdrawal of international correspondence and correction of addresses. The colour of certain Chinese stamps was changed in order to bring them into accord

with those conventionally adopted throughout the Union.

At Shanghai for many years the local delivery of international mail matter arriving by foreign mail-bots was effected by the C.P.O. This having developed into a costly service revised arrangements with the several post offices were made.

China having received an invitation from the Italian Government was represented at the Universal Postal Congress which opened at Rome on

the 7th April 1906.

In 1914 China proclaimed her intention of being present as a member of the Union at the Postal Congress due to open on the 10th September at Madrid. The Congress had necessarily to be postponed because of the European War. China's adhesion to the Universal Postal Convention dates from the 1st March 1914 but it was not until the 1st September that the Regulations of the Rome Convention come into actual operation in China. From the 1st September also dates China's adhesion to the Parcel Post Convention. On that date Mukden, Tientsin, Shanghai, Canton, etc. began to operate as Exchange Offices, and Bureaux Ambulants were established on the Peking-Mukden and Tientsin-Pukow Railways.

In 1917 China severed diplomatic relations with Germany and Austria Jungary and Chinese Post Offices ceased to have any dealings with German

Postal Agencies, which were subsequently closed.

In 1920 the Chinese Minister in Switzerland notified to the Swiss Federal Government the adhesion of China to the Agreement of Rome for the Exchange of Insured Letters and Boxes as from the 1st January 1920 and to the Agreement of Rome for the Exchange of Money Orders, to take effect on the 24th April 1920.

The Universal Postal Congress postponed in 1914 opened at Madrid on 1st October 1920. China was represented by Mr. Liou Fou Tcheng (到行政) Director General of Posts as Plenipotentiary Delegate and Messrs. J. M. C. Rousse, and H. V. Poullain. Commissioners, as ordinary delegates. Though the Chinese Delegation brought up the question of alien establishments in China no definite decision was come to on the matter, it being considered that the question was within the purview of the Foreign Offices. However a measure was passed to the effect that only those foreign postal agencies could be considered as within the Union as were established in a foreign country not itself within the Universal Postal Union. Furthermore at China's insistence an important measure was passed by which all parties engaged themselves effectively to restrict transmission in their mails of opium, cocaine and other narcotics.

China's postponement of formal entry into the Union was due to the desire to join as a fully efficient member. Previous to this the foreign post offices established at the treaty ports were recognised and mails between China and the Union and mails between Chinese Offices transmitted by foreign mail services were generally exchanged through the medium of foreign postal agencies in China. But from the date of assuming full Union membership, regulations and privileges became effective for China in the natural course, and no further mails were handed to foreign agencies in China for transmission. Official recognition of foreign postal establishments in China was withdrawn, and protest was made to Berne against their continuance.

When in 1920 China ceased official recognition of former Russian officials in China the Russian Post Offices functioning in this country were closed by order of the Central Government. The transportation of mails on the C. E. R. formerly effected through the Russian Postal service is now undertaken by the Chinese Posts. The Alien postal agencies at present in China, and which it is hoped will soon be withdrawn, are listed nationally as follows:

France	
The Japanese Postal Establishments in China are classed	as follows:
First Class Offices	7
2nd Class Offices	23
3rd ,, ,,	4
Unclassed ,,	10
Sub-Offices	3
· Box	1
Agencies	33
Letter Boxes	33
Field Post Offices	10

The Post Office Savings Bank.

The introduction of a Post Office Savings Bank System had been contemplated for some time and H E. Hsü Shih-chang, now the President of the Chinese Republic, when Minister of the Board of Posts and Communications selected a number of students who were sent to Europe to

be trained in Postal Savings Bank work. In 1918 H. E. Tsao, Minister of Communications, moved in the matter and on the 24th November a Presidential Mandate was issued promulgating the "Rules of the Post Office Savings Bank." On the 1st July 1919 Post Office Savings Banks were started in 11 District Head Offices, viz.

Peking, Tientsin, Taiyuan, Kaifeng, Tsinan, Hankow, Nanchang, Nanking, Shanghai, Anking and Hangchow. On the 15th October the system was extended to 69 offices under the control of these District Head Offices.

Since then 254 offices have been added to the list.

There is a Savings Bank Department in charge of a Secretary in the Directorate General of Posts. Affairs are under the joint control of the Director General and Co-Director General of Posts. Questions concerning Saving Bank Funds may be referred to the Board of the Post Office Savings Bank which consists of the following: The Minister of Finance, the Chief of the Audit Bureau, the Minister of Communications, the Director General of Posts, the Co-Director General of Posts, the Chief of the Postal Department of the Ministry of Communications and one special delegate appointed by the Cabinet. However there is a proviso that any resolution passed that may be considered as adversely affecting the interests of the the Savings Bank the Public or the Post Office may be brought up again by the Directorate General of Posts for discussion before it takes effect.

FOR STATISTICS SEE PAGES 481-9.

FOREIGN POST OFFICES IN CHINA.

GREAT BRITAIN

Amoy Hankow Swatow
Canton Hoihow Tientsin
Chefoo Ningpo Weihaiwei
Foochow Srenghai (Kashgar)
In Tibet: Gyantse; Phagri; Yatung

FRANCE

Amoy Hoihow Peking
Canton Kuangchouwan Shanghai
Chefoo Mengtze Tientsin
Foochow Ningpo Yunnaufu
Hankow Pakhoi (Cnungking)

JAPAN

Soochow Amov Kiukiang Swatow Nanking Chefoo Changsha Newchwang Tientsin. Peking Tongku Chinkiang Wuhn Shanhaikuan Foochow Kiaochao Hangchow Shasi Hankow Shanghai

Leased Territory:—Dairen Port Arthur, Chinchow, Liüshutun, Pitzewo, Pulantien.

Manchuria:—Antung, Changchun, Changtu, Fenghuangcheng, Fushun, Haicheng, Hsinmintun (Sinminfu), Hsiunyocheng, Kaipingi, Kaiyuan, Kungchuling, Liaoyang, Mukden. Penhsiku, Suchiatun, Supingcheh, Takushan, Tashihchiao, Tatungkow, Tiehing, Tsaohokow, Wanfantien, Yentai.

United States. Shanghai.

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9th Year of Chung Hua Ming Kuo (1920)	Offices with Special Functions*	- 7	7.421-224 7.421-	5 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 5	1,9941,	Offices allowed Steam-served privileges for Domestic Parcels Insured Letter Offices. Offices accepting parcels under Union regulations. Post Office Saviege Barks.
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	bns and bns ssi ffices	Head Ist, brd Cla Orduč	277 277 277 277 277 277 277 277 277 277	142 31 46 31	1,932	Donestic Parcel Insurance and Money Order Issuing Offices. Money Order Cashing Offices. Express Delivery Offices. Steam Served Offices.
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	District		Peking (loc Chihli Shansi Shansi Honan Shansi Shensi Shensi Shensi Shensi Shansu Shantung Shantung Szechuan Hupeh Hupeh Hugeh Kiangsu Kiangsu Shanghai (l	Kwangtung Kwangsi Yunnan Kweichow	T	12246
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APPENDIX 2.

MATT. MATTER DOSTED DIBING OTH VEND CHAIR 102

	were:	Delivery. Posted for Articles Local	4,686,700	2,431,500	27,700	175,000	29,400	1,500	400	373,900	185,600	546,200	1,600,600	170,200	138,700	1,421,200	8,446,500	63,400	919,500	282,300	3,205,300	25,800	32,200	79.500	
	the Total were:	Express Insured Articles, Letters.	2,625	2,052	36	408	l	Î	1	2,929	884	* 1	1,101	143	178	576	2,204	77	356	1,132	4,518	132	113	- 1	-
	5	Express Articles.	402,300	457,000	27,570	159,600	26,400	5,500	1	238,400	187,200	260,300	299,000	79,300	133,300	891,400	1,116,100	187,500	246,300	51,800	49,600	7,200	11,000	28,000	
	Included	Registered Articles.	1,370,500	2,339,400	827,800	1,839,900	619,000	521,200	149,400	2,878,900	1,400,700	3,659,300	1,756,800	1,216,400	626,400	1,932,900	2,075,900 1,116,100	1,085,700	1,224,100	606,500	590,500	377,300	729,800	424.200	The second
.K. 1920.		Total.	19,736,825	29,798,652	7,038,806	13,701,709	4,343,900	1,554,900	504,600	36,019,429	18,914,184	23,734,200	23,425,701	8,953,943	9,304,078	34,602,976	82,326,704	11,290,677	21,385,956	9,560,332	36,429,318	3,403,532	3,034,513	1,912,000	-
9TH YEAR C.H.M.K.	Free Correspondence.	other Articles.	378,100	475,800	261,100	816,700	15,400	181,600	5,200	130,800	80,500	79,000	41,800	9,700	23,300	263,600	26,000	22,000	336,300	39,300	42,100	25,200	12,200	38,100	and or other designation of the latest desig
H YEA	Forresp	Letters.	250,600	319,700	81,400	280,600	31,400	22,600	15,000	416,900	232,400	674,100	717,700	25,400	30,690	276,400	446,800	324,600	125,500	104,800	127,500	183,500	59,200	48,900	-
	Samples	of Merch- 1 andise.	8,400	22,000	3,100	16,100	4,800	009	200	55,700	27,900	24,500	14,400	4,000	0,600	43,200	80,900	18,100	71,200	15,900	5,800	1,700	4,100	6,000	-
DURING		Com- mercial Papers.	1,400	8,100	1,100	6,200	2,100	200	:	135,700	34,300	29,800	21,500	9,300	2,600	61,700	178,300	4,100	95,900	7,200	12,600	5,800	3,800	200	-
POSTED		Newspapers and Printed Matter.	6,688,300	3,997,600	1,046,200	1,343,400	317,200	76,600	6.200	4,466,500	2,605,700	3,515,400	3,197,100	700,900	2,663,800	3,055,000	38,695,900	870,500	3,180,100	1,071,300	2,091,700	470,800	324,700	143,100	or con
LEK		Reply.	1,100	200	1,000	009	1,700	100	:	100	200	2,500	300	:	1,800	1,200	2,800	:	400	1,200	200	100	2,300	1,900	20 2000
MAIL MAITER POSTED	Postcards.	Single.	1,223,100	1,582,300	432,500	928,700	134,000	18,500	2,000	1,743,900	877,700	1,367,600	1,837,700	912,100	563,800	9,028,700	9,019,300	1,657,900	5,819,900	725,300	152,700	68,800	66,300	247,700	28 412 500
		Un- franked	12,100	10,600	200	2,200	300	400	200	36,300	2,800	4,900	19,900	10,100	0,09	27,400	58,000	10,800	25,200	5,800	18,900	2,000	3,500	200	000 000
(A)	Letters.	Franked.	11,173,725	23,349,052	5,211,906	10,307,209	3,837,000	1,254,300	472,800	29,033,529	15,049,384	18,036,400	17,575,301	7,282,443	6,001,978	21,845,776	33,818,704	8,259,677	11,731,456	7,589,532	33,977,818	2,645,632	2,558,413	1,425,100	279 477 175
	1	Districts.	Peking (local)	Chihli	Shansi	Honan	Shensi	Kansu	Sinkiang	Manchuria	Shantung	Szechuan	Hupeh	Hunan	Kiangsi	Kiangsu	Shanghai (local)	Anhui	Chekiang	Fukien	Kwangtung	Kwangsi	Yunnan	Kweichow	Testal

APPENDIX 3.

Number of Articles Posted for Local Delivery during 9th Year, C.H.M.K. (1920) with Comparative Totals for previous year.

DISTRICTS.	Letters	Other Articles	Total C.H.M.K. 9th Year (1920)	Total C.H.M.K. 8th Year (1919)
Peking (local)	2,499,200	2,187,500	4,686,700	2,655,200
Chihli	954,800	1,476,700	2,431,500	2,422,500
Shansi	25,300	2,400	27,700	18,100
Honan	125,200	49,800	175,000	219,300
Shensi	20,000	9,400	29,400	24,900
Kansu	1,300	200	1,500 •	2,300
Sinkiang	400		400	300
Manchuria	282,800	91,100	373,900	365,700
Shantung	125,300	60,300	185,600	161,700
Szechuan	459,100	87,100	546,200	491,000
Hupeh	1,154,300	446,300	1,600,600	1,230,700
Hunan	157,900	12,300	170,200	152,900
Kiangsi	110,400	28,300	138,700	122,200
Kiangsu	941,100	480,100	1,421,200	1,249,400
Shanghai (local)	6,034,800	2,411,700	8,446,500	7,347,400
Anhui	58,600	4,800	63,400	48,,900
Chekiang	554,500	365,000	919,500	855,700
Fukien	241,400	40,900	282,300	214,900
Kwangtung	3,133,700	71,600	3,205,300	3,243,100
Kwangsi	18,000	7,800	25,800	20,600
Yunnan	25,200	7,000	32,200	25,100
Kweichow	64,200	15,300	79,500	56,100
Total	16,987,500	7,855,600	24,843.100	20,928,000

APPENDIX 4.

Number of Articles Collected from Letter Boxes, Box-Offices and Pillar
Boxes during 9th Year C.H.M.K. (1920) with
Comparative Totals for Previous Year.

Districts.	Letters	Other Articles	Total C.H.M.K. 9th Year (1920)	Total C.H.M.K. 8th Year (1919)
Peking (local)	5,224,900	2,889,500	8,114,400	5,957,000
Chihli	2,932,700	718,800	3,651,500	3,239,500
Shansi	291,800	25,500	317,300	223,500
Honan	2,062,100	361,800	2,423,900	2,058,100
Shensi	368,700	40,000	408,700	387,900
Kansu	82,300	3,000	85,300	82,800
Sinkiang	14,200	_	14,200	9,500
Manchuria	4,579,100	523,800	5,102,900	4,645,700
Shantung	1,952,700	114,600	2,067,300	1,546,800
Szechuan	1,283,600	197,300	1,480,900	1,257.300
Hupeh	3,280,000	. 562,700	3,842,700	3,291,700
Hunan	2,130,200	122,600	2,252,800	1,829,800
Kiangsi	748,900	303,300	1,052,200	949,300
Kiangsu	5,638,200	2,453,700	8,091,900	7,163,800
Shanghai (local)	20,064,300	3,826,400	23,890,700	19,506,000
Anhui.	1,309,300	65,900	1,375,200	1,189,600
Chekiang	2,962,300	1,895,000	4,857,300	4,430,900
Fukien	1,490,400	149,700	1,460,100	1,296,800
Kwangtung	11,242,000	484,900	11,726,900	11,546,600
Kwangsi	482,600	16,100	498,700	400,100
Yunnan	127,000	3,000	130,000	152,800
Kweichow	166,200	65,800	232,000	173,900
Total	68,433,500	14,823,400	83,256,900	71,339,400

APPENDIX 5.

Comparative Table showing number and value of Insured Letters

posted during 1917.1920.

								COLUMN SPECIAL DESIGNATION OF THE PERSON NAMED IN COLUMN SPECIAL DESIGNATION OF THE PERSON NAMED
Districts	6th C.H.M I	Year K. (1917)	7th C.H.M.	Year K. (1918)	8th C.H.M.I	Year K. (1919)	9th C.H.M.	Year K. (1920)
	Number	Insured for	Number	Insured for	Number	Insured for	Number	Insured for
		\$		\$		\$		\$
Peking (local) Chihli	10,652	699,094	9,033	907,408	4,356 3,339	205,344 129,563	2,625 2,052	143,752 91,212
Shansi	96	5,531	44	2,645	31	1,497	36	1,844
Honan	1,486	101,020	526	22,645	362	18,032	409	21,532
Shensi		dianame		-		_		_
Kansu			account to	_		_		
Sinkiang		-		—		_	_	
Manchuria.	5,536	441,988	5,206	515,260	4,384	351,177	2,929	166.131
Shantung	1,475	70,510	1,056	51,582	973	50,079	884	63,733
Szechuan		-	_	-	40			-
Hupeh	1,552	78,152	1,257	51,378	1.090	51,499	1,101	43,145
Hunan		_		_	77	9,139	143	12,584
Kiangsi	499	13,130	272	6,524	150	3,650	178	13,838
Kiangsu Shanghai	1,149	55,183	1,053	56,454	656	41,286	576	32,126
(local)	3,064	283,694	3,042	367,314	2,929	386.255	2,204	138,512
Anhui	87	5,19 3	72	4,370	61	4,229	77	3,071
Chekiang	694	27,312	747	35,264	480	21,709	356	44,689
Fukien	1,467	76,606	1,223	74,975	990	67,049	1,132	78,099
Kwangtung	4,470	268,122	5,218	322,925	5,647	401,177	4,518	328,470
Kwangsi :.		-	26	740	141	8.921	132	5,778
Yunnan	3	150	3	525	6	930	113	6,594
Kweichow.		_	_				derivation.	
Total	32,140	2 ,125,685	28,778	2,420,009	25,672	1,751,536	19,465	1,195,110

APPENDIX 6.

Comparative Table showing Amounts of Mail Matter posted by Minchü during 1917-1920.

	**						_		_			_					1
[.K.	Number. of Letters Contained in	73,333 101,350	480 13,600	1 1	1	1	21,900	322,100	34,300	229,300	96.000	222,100	582,600	002,000	1	1	3,017,463
Year C.H.M.K (1919)	Weight Kilos.	603 1,008	157	1 1	1	1	400	3,242	530	1,858	1,400	1,050	2,000	3,200		1	24,979
9th Ye	Number of Packages	2,100	1,800		1	1	1,600	29,500	7,300	23,900	17,800	9,200	19,500	14,000	1	1	190,350
A.K.	Number of Letters Contained in	72,910 107,530	700		-	1	312 21,100	290,700	35,700	173,200	99,700	116,500	882,400	00c,08c	1	- Inches	2,903,352
Year C.H.M.K (1920)	Weight Kilos.	573 1,039	111	1 1	ļ	1	280	2,774	009	1,850 6,144	1,300		4,900	2,900			23,294
8th Y	Number of Packages	2,410	200		1		1,500	25,600	7,800	24,400				15,100	1 1		163,812
M.K.	Number of Letters Contained in	144,700	500	1	1	1	17.200	250,100	37,600			75,000	653,500	584,906			2,559,314
Year C.H.M.K (1918)	Weight G	1,326	11	1		1	250	2,432	009	1,700 5,892	1,200	009	4,300	2,000		1	21,537
7th Y	Number of Packages	4,850	1,800			1	1.400	26,300	8,600	22,600	16,500	4,200	16,500	15,900	1	1	156,668
M.K.	Number. of Letters Contained in	175,530	600	1		1	1,414	247,500	39,600	224,700	102,800	86,300	645,800	589,500		1	2,730,244
Year C.H.M.K (1917)	Weight. C	1,193	16	1	1 1	1	19	2,707	009	2,000	1,100		4,100		-	1	21,388
6th Y	Number of Packages	5,420	200		1 1	1	154	27,900	009 6	22,500	16.600	3,300	14,800	15,090	1		161,464
	Districts	Peking (local)	Shansi	Shensi	Sinkiano	Manchuria	Shantung	Hupeh	Kianosi	Kiangsu	(local)	Chekiang	Fukien	Kwangtung.	Awangsı	r unnan	Total

Parcels Posted during 9th Year C.H.M.K. (1920).

Insured Weight for Kilos. 223,100 18,900 115,900 6,900 115,900 852 6,900 5,000 20,500 84,900 5,000 20,500 14,500 14,500 2,600 14,500 6,11,695	Number 400 1,500 1,000 1000 1000 6000	Sum to be re- covered 3,400 13,300 13,500 2,100	Weight. Kilos. 1,324 2,800	Z	Value. \$ 4,717,800 6,608,800 266,500 1,413,520 843,200 860,700 4,798,400 5,326,800	_ P
Kil	+	\$ 5,400 13,300 13,300 10,300	Kilos. 1,324 2,800 — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —		4,0, 1, 4,0,0	निया निर्मा
19		3,400	1,324		4,0, H, 4,00,0.	୍ଟିଷ ୍ଟ୍ର
	-î	13,300	2,800		, 0, H, 4, r0, c.	ेळी मंनीन
		2.100		69,640 146,760 64,400 42,100 5,200 334,500 282,200	4,000	
19		2.100		146,760 64,400 42,100 5,200 334,500 282,200	4,00,0	ਜੰਜੀਜ
		23,100		64,400 42,100 5,200 334,500 282,200	4 10,0	
		2,100	111	42,100 5,200 334,500 282,200	4,00,0	- H
		2,100	-	5,200 334,500 282,200	4,00,0	H H -
		2,100	000	334,500 282,200	4,00,0	1. H
		2,100	000	282,200		
		500	000			-
9		2000	200	236,000		1.408.500
9		4,823	1,147	289,300		-
9	1	1	-	45,400	_	
9	180	1,100	009	65,680		
			1	419,600	419,600 10,995,339	Ę,
481	15,300	178,111	38,400		716,500 17,085,326	4
			1	58,600		
	27,900	449,500	35,600	193,300	7,133,400	710,800
	1	1	1	198,300	683,600	727,100
	1	1		135,700		593,500
	1	1	1	12,040	`	
94,500 5,300			-	39,700		
]	1		24,500	305,200	
157,610,10,007,105 1,288,690	46,580	652,834	80,271	4,216,220	70,565,108	20,776,137
669,000 12,400 438,100 390 94,500	1,2	85,500 3,200 46,500 85 5,300 	85,500 27,900 46,500 46,580 690 46,580 690 46,580 690 600 600 600 600 600 600 600 600 60	85,500 27,900 449,500 46,500 — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —	85,500 27,900 449,500 35,600 3,200 — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —	85,500 27,900 449,500 55,600 193,300 7, 3,200

APPENDIX 8.

Money Order Transactions during 9th Year, C.H.M.K. (1920) with comparative figures for previous year.

	The second secon	Issued	1.			Cash	ed.	
Districts		K. (1919) C.H.M.K. Year 9th Ye			C.H.M.E 8th	(1919) Year	9th C.H.M.	Year K. (1920)
	Number	Value.	Number	Value.	Number	Value.	Number	Value.
Peking		\$		\$		\$		\$
(local)	68,100	1,372,000	216,800	4,337,800	68.500	1,484,300	155,400	3,611,100
Chihli	228,600	4,245,400	225,600	4,484,900	533.500	9,231,700	462,100	10,374.500
Shansi	32,300	772,900	44,700	1,002,600	24,200	694,400	37,800	1.093,300
Honan	131,800	2,622,200	176,700	3,656,100	134,400	2,445,900	179,300	3,459,200
Shensi :	31,700	1,103,400	46,600	1,895,400	10,400	481,000	14,200	698,000
Kansu	6,100	277.600	6,100	281,800	1,800	63,900	2.400	91.600
Sinkiang	3,800	106.100	4,500	113.400	1.600	12,300	2,200	20,300
Manchuria	193,600	3,691,800	317,700	7,034,300	106,300	1.749,100	113,600	2.176.900
Shantung	403,000	6.446,700	214,900	6.180,700	276,100	5.400.800	329,800	7.756.700
Szechuan	74,000	2,070,000	104,500	3,724,700	61,100	1,534,200	81,400	2.310,000
Hupeh	137,900	2,693.100	169,700	3.513.800	84,300	1,777,300	103.900	2.658.900
Hunan	124,900	3.038.900	115,100	3,199,400	60.100	1.719.100	87,800	2.833.600
Kiangsi	61.600	955,200	81.600	1,422,700	45,200	893,900	54,100	1.034,600
Kiangsu	263,600	3,866,100	323.600	5,374,000	326,000	4.846.400	386,800	6.205.000
Shanghai (local)	133,800	1,920,900	183,500	2,855,100	178,100	3,029,100	217,800	4.064,700
Anhui	154,200	3,273,500	184,700	3,911,200	157.800	3.289.300	171,200	3.591.400
Chekiang	99,800	1,411.500	131,700	1,994,800	127,700	2.086,400	166,100	2.800.800
Fukien	75,100	1,434,900	76,500	1,583,500	48,200	983,200	56.000	1.200.300
Kwangtung	43,700	1,017,100	49,300	1,174,700	39,500	928,200	47,800	1,133,300
Kwangsi	10,100	298,800	13,800	476,800	8.700	219.800	11,700	330,700
Yunnan	23,000	741,200	11,700	250.900	20,000	559,700	16,600	450,700
Kweichow	14,600	456,700	14,400	455.000	15,700	427,500	15,500	463,700
Total	2,315,300	43,816,000	2,713,700	58,923.600	2,329,200	43,857,500	2,713,500	59,409,300

APPENDIX 9.

POST OFFICE SAVINGS BANK

Standard Dollar Accounts. Provisional figures	
Total deposits from opening of Savings Banks to 31st December, 1920	1,286,655.84
Total withdrawals from opening of Savings Banks to 31st December, 1920	637,158.45
Total due to depositors on 31st December, 1920	649,497.39
Small Coin Accounts	
Total deposits to 31st December, 1920	170,108.32 39,443.00 130,665.32
investments, as on 31st December 1920	
Chinese Government 1913 5% Reorganisation Loan Shanghai Land Investment Co., Debentures Peking-Suiyuan Railway Loan Bonds Bank of Communications, Fixed Deposits Internal Loan Bonds, 3rd Year M.K. Internal Loan Bonds, 4th Year M.K. Internal Loan Bonds, 7th Year M.K., Short Term	34,921.93 21,896.04 30,000.00 65,000.00 47,064.99 122,584.38 120,214.30
	\$ 441,681.64

TELEGRAPHS.

The Chinese telegraph system dates from December 24, 1881, when the line from Shanghai to Tientsin was officially opened. Prior to this two short lines—Shanghai to Woosung, and Tientsin to Taku—had been constructed under foreign and Chinese auspices respectively, and submarine cables were in operation at Shanghai and Hongkong. During 1882 the telegraph line was carried up the Yangtze Valley from Shanghai, at first to Chinkiang and Nanking, and by 1884 to Hankow.

The Chinese Telegraph Administration—a commercial undertaking started by Sheng Kung pao—was formed in April, 1882, under Government control, and took charge of all the Government lines. A second private company—the Wahop Company, formed in May, 1882—built a line from Canton to Kowloon (July, 1883), and connexion with Hongkong was made in January, 1884. In August, 1884, Peking was linked up with Tientsin. A line connecting Shanghai and Canton, built by the Government, was opened in October, 1884, and about the same time the Shanghai-Tientsin line was extended to Shanhaikuan and Paotingfu, with branches from Tsinanfu to Chefoo and Tsingtao. In 1897 a line across Mongolia from Kiachta to Peking gave China land-telegraphic communication with Europe.

Telegraph conventions have been made with the four cable companies operating in China; with Russia and Japan regarding the Manchurian telegraph system; with Japan regarding the cables between Dairen and Chefoo and between Shanghai and Nagasaki with Germany regarding the German cables connecting Shanghai, Tsingtao and Chefoo; with India and France regarding the connection at the Burmese and Indo Chinese frontiers,

The cable companies operating in China are :-

1. The Great Northern Telegraph Co., Ltd., of Denmark.

 The Eastern Extension, Australasia and China Telegraph Co., Ltd., (British).

3. The Commercial Pacific Cable Co. (American).

By an agreement made in April, 1911, the Great Northern and Eastern Extension Companies advanced to the Chinese Telegraph Administration the sum of £500,000 for the immediate development of telegraphs and telephones in China. The foreign companies make half-yearly payments to the Chinese Telegraphs of a percentage of their revenue from foreign telegrams, and the advance was made against these payments for the next eighteen years, at 5 per cent interest; repayment of the loan and interest to be effected by thirty-six half-yearly instalments. Until 1930 under the agreements with these Companies, China is debarred from allowing any other land telegraph stations to communicate telegraphically with Europe or America.

CHINESE GOVERNMENT TELEGRAPHS.

Until 1908 the Chipese land-lines were operated by a Chinese company under Government control. In that year the Ministry of Communications took over all land-lines from the Company and the Provincial Governments. The Head Office of the Telegraph Administration remained at Shanghai until 1912, when it was transferred to the Telegraph Bureau of the Ministry of Communications. Wheatstone apparatus has been installed on the following circuits: Peking-Tientsin, Peking-Shanghai, Peking-Hankow, Peking-Taiyüanfu, Peking-Chengchowho, Peking-Sianfu, Mukden, Harbin, Tientsin-Shanghai, Tientsin-Mukden, Tientsin-Chefoo, Hankow-Shanghai, Hankow-Canton, Hankow-Changsha, Hankow-Chungking, Chungking-Yünnanfu, Shanghai-Foochow.

STATISTICS. (30th September, 1920).

(30th September, 1920 Length of land-lines: 49,259 miles. Length of wires: 73,873 miles.

Submarine cables: 1,002.53 miles.

River cables: 46 miles.

Underground cables: 7.3 miles. Morse instruments in use: 1998. Wheatstone instruments in use: 51. Number of telegraph offices: 837.

Number of domestic telegrams transmitted in 1919: 5,197,596, number of words: 171,210,159.

Length and dates of construction of principal lines:-

Shanghai-Tientsin, 1025 m. (1882). Shanghai-Canton, 1820 m. (1882). Hankow-Luchow, 1047 m. (1886). Sianfu-Peking, 964 m. (1890). Peking_Kiachta, 1061 m. (1897) Shanghai-Hankow, 873 m. (1884). Hankow-Peking, 974 m. (1910). Kiukiang-Canton, 988 m. (1884).

Telegraph Schools at: Shanghai, Tientsin, Peking, Wuchang, Yunnan,

Nanning, Mukden, Shengking, Lanchow, Tiwha.

Junctions with other systems at: Suikai, Tunghing, Hokow, Chennan-kwan, Manyun, Maimatchen, Tarcheng, Helampo, Hunchun, Shanghai, Chefoo, Tsingtao, Foochow, Amoy and Hongkong.

Tariff: From June 1, 1912, the following tariff for domestic telegrams

has been in force:

Telegrams in Foreign Languages-

To all places in the same Province, 9 cents per word. To all other places in China, 18 cents per word. Press telegrams (throughout China), 6 cents per word Telegrams in Chinese-

To all places in the same Province, 6 cents per word.

To all other places in China, 12 cents per word.

Press messages (throughout China), 3 cents per word.

Telegrams in Chinese characters are transmitted in the form of numerals which are decoded either by reference to a standard code book or by the use of a stamp with the numerals on one side and the characters on the other.

Foreign Telegrams.

The tariff for messages to all parts of Europe except Russia in Europe and Caucasus is Francs 3.75 per word (on the 31st December, 1920, equivalent to \$1.05),* with half rates for press messages; to Russia in Europe and Caucasus Francs 1.50 per word (on the 31st December equivalent to \$0.55).† Deferred telegrams to most countries in Europe are transmitted at half the ordinary rates.

FOREIGN STAFF.

Foreign employes in the Chinese Telegraph Administration's service:

A. H. Eriksen, Adviser and Foreign Chief Superintendent,

Ministry of Communications, Peking.

V. Petersen, Inspecting Engineer,

Ministry of Communications, Peking.

E. B. Mengel, Superintendent, Yünnanfu.

H. T. Langeback, Superintendent, Tientsin.

K. Albertsen, Superintendent, Peking.

D. Pedersen, Superintendent, Chinese Telegraph Workshop, Shanghai.

A. Jörgensen, Adviser on Wireless Telegraphy, Ministry of Communications, Peking.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY.

The first wireless plant to be installed for commercial use, in China, was a private installation in the Palace Hotel, at Shanghai. Owing to Chinese protests, the station, which was of very limited range, was closed down. A complete list of wireless installations now operated in China by or on behalf of the Chinese Government, and by Foreign Powers, will be found on page 506. The large Mitsui station, which is under construction at Hsuangchiao, between Peking and Tungchow, is approaching completion. Acute differences of opinion have arisen in connection with the recently concluded Federal Wireless Loan, providing for the erection of a high-power wireless station at Shanghai, and less powerful installations at Peking, Hankow, Canten and Harbin, both the Marconi and Mitsui Companies claiming that it violates the terms of contracts previously concluded with them.

The French Government station at Koukaza, Shanghai, received messages direct from Lyons, daily, during the last rew months of the war.

The Marconi (Chinese Government) installation at Urga, which was only completed a few days before the capture of that city by Baron Ungern's forces, is reported to have been damaged by the invaders, and has not since been working.

In view of the controversy that has arisen in connection with the signature of the Federal Wireless Loan it is thought desirable to include the texts, so far as they can be secured, of the Marconi, Mitsui and Federal contracts The versions of the Mitsui and Federal contracts reproduced here are translations from the Chinese text of these documents,

^{*} On April 1, 1921, equivalent to \$1.50.

[†] On April 1, 1921, equivalent to \$0.80.

and cannot be relied upon as absolutely accurate. It is believed, however, that they embody the main terms of both agreements. The Marconi agreements are reprinted from the official English text. It will be seen that the Mitsui Company claims a monopoly of long distance wireless telegraphy for a term of thirty years; and that the Marconi Company claims the right to supply (through the Chinese National Wireless Telegraph Company) all the Chinese Government's wireless requirements "if the goods supplied by the Chinese Company are not lower in quality or higher in price to those offered by other Companies" The Federal Agreement is supported by the American Government on the basis of the American-Chinese Treaty of 1858, Art 30 of which provides that any right, privilege, or favour, granted to any other nation by China shall "at once freely enure to the benefit of the United States, its public officers, merchants, and citizens"

CHINA'S WIRELESS AGREEMENTS.

The first contract entered into by China with the Marconi Company was on August 27, 1918, for 200 Wireless Telephone sets.

Marconi Agreement for Wireless Stations in China.

The following is the text of the agreement between the Ministry of Communications and Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Company, Ltd. for the construction of three wireless stations, signed at Peking on October 9, 1918:

Agreement made at Peking on October 9, 1918, between the Government of the Republic of China, hereafter referred to as "the Government" and Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Company, referred to as "the Company."

1.—The Government being desirous of establishing reliable communication between Kashgar and Sianfu and now wishing to purchase and erect three wireless telegraph stations the Company agrees to furnish the Government with the necessary funds for such purchase and erection to the amount of £200,000, and the Government now hereby places the order with the Company for three Marconi are wireless telegraph stations of the latest type each of a transformer input of 25 K.W. and having a guaranteed day-

light range of seven hundred miles.

2.—Each station is to be complete in all particulars and to be specially designed so that the maximum weight of any one parcel shall not exceed 550-lb. to facilitate inland transportation in China. Each station shall comprise a complete generating unit capable of developing and maintaining a 25 K. W. load from the terminals of the alternating current generator, and the direct current dynamo shall have sufficient capacity to supply current for ten 60 watt lamps for light purposes. Engines are to be petrol driven and supplied with mechanical or electrical starters, petrol tank, and adequate cooling provisions. Switchboard to be supplied with all necessary switches, control rheostats, measuring instruments, fuse terminals, fuses and a supply of the latter for renewals.

The wireless transmitter to be of the latest type and the manipulating key to be free of danger to the operator. Receiver to be of the latest amplifying valve type capable of receiving undamped as well as damped waves. All the spare parts usually supplied to isolated wireless stations to be furnished and in addition spares for the receiver shall consist of twelve extra valves, two low voltage batteries for filament and two high

voltage batteries for oscillating circuits to each station.

Each station to be supplied with three steel lattice towers 300 feet in height, together with all necessary thimbles, shackles, triatic stays, spreaders and insulators. Aerial to be made up in conformity with the best and latest practice, and sufficient surplus of antennae wire to be furnished for normal repairs. Earth capacity to follow the best practice and all material therefor to be supplied by the Company. A kit of tools for maintenance

and normal repairs shall be supplied to each station. Detailed specifications with prices of every item to be furnished as soon as obtainable by mail from London, and each station shall be provided with full firing diagrams together with complete working instructions for each unit. It is understood that the three stations hereinabove ordered will be erected at Kashgar, Urumchi and Lanchowfu respectively, and that the Company guarantees the equipment supplied to be capable of establishing continuous (i e., day and night) communication between Kashgar and Urumchi. But the distance between Urumchi and Lanchowfu being over 1,000 miles the equipment is only guaranteed to be capable of establishing night communication between these two points and should it later be found necessary to instal an intermediate Station at Hami or elsewhere to maintain daylight communication between Urumchi and Lanchowfu the Government agrees to purchase the equipment therefor from the Company at the same price as that quoted hereunder. The Company will present to the Government a Receiver of the latest Amplifying Valve type, delivery at Shanghai, freight and insurance paid, which shall be installed by the Government at their station in Sianfu for receiving from Lanchowfu and, in consideration thereof, should the Government find that the transmitting apparatus to be installed by the Government at Sianfu is incapable of communicating with Lanchowfu, then the Government shall purchase transmitting apparatus from the Company of the necessary power at the then market price of apparatus of the power required.

- 3.—The price of each Station to be TWENTY-TWO THOUSAND POUNDS STERLING (£22,000) f.o.b. British Port, and the total purchase price £66,000, shall be deducted from the £200,000 hereinabove provided for, leaving a balance of ONE HUNDRED AND THIRTY-FOUR THOU-SAND POUNDS STERLING (£134,000) to be advanced by the Company, in cash, to the Government when and as required to be expended for the transportation and erection of the three Wireless Telegraph Stations hereinabove ordered and described. The said sum of £134,000 being subject to call when and as required for transportation, construction and similar purposes, the amounts required from time to time shall be advanced upon receipt of written request from the official appointed for that purpose by the Government, and endorsed by the Supervising Engineer furnished by the Company, but the Company is hereby given authority to make disbursements covering freight and insurance charges on shipments of equipment from British Ports, such expenditure to be supported by proper vouchers. It is specifically understood that in advancing the said sum of £134,000, the Company does not guarantee this amount to be sufficient to meet transportation and erection costs and that any additional money required for this purpose shall be furnished by the Government.
- 4.—The said sum of £200,000 shall be repayable in sterling in four equal annual instalments beginning two and one half years from the date of arrival of complete equipment in Shanghai. However, the Government shall have the right to repay the whole, or any outstanding balance of, the said sum of £200,000, at any time prior to the date or dates, upon which such amounts are due providing three months notice be given, in writing, to the Company of the Government's intention to make payments in advance of due date.
- 5.—As aforesaid the sum of £200,000 is divided in the manner following:—

£66,000,—cost of equipment f.o.b. British Port.

£134,000,—advance to the Government toward transportation and erection expenses.

Interest on £66,000 at the rate of eight per centum per annum is payable, in sterling, six months from the date the equipment therein purchased

is delivered in Shanghai, and also interest at the rate of eight per centum per annum is payable in sterling on each amount advanced from the £134,000 for transportation and erection purposes, from the date each advance is made, all interest payments being due and payable on the ninth days of October and April of each year following the date of this Agreement. Interest and principal shall be payable through a Bank in Peking to be later appointed by the Company or through the London County and Westminster Bank in London.

6.—For the purpose of supervising the erection of the three Stations hereinabove ordered the Company agrees to furnish for three years a thoroughly competent Wireless Engineer experienced in the erection of Stations similar to those referred to herein, the Government to pay said Engineer's salary of Chinese Silver Dollars eight hundred per month from the date of his arrival in Shanghai and until the date of his departure from Shanghai, and to defray all travelling expenses from the time of his assignment until returned to London, and he shall receive all legitimate travelling expenses that he may incur.

The said Engineer shall be placed at the disposal of the Government within five months after the execution of these presents, to be available for consultations with officials of the Government regarding the selection of sites, purchase of material, etc., before construction work commences.

7.—The said Supervising Construction Engineer shall have full authority over all subordinate construction engineers appointed by the Government but shall report and be responsible to the official in Peking of the Department of Communications designated by the Government who shall. however, have the right to appoint an auditor to accompany the construction gang to approve purchases and disbursements made by the Supervising Engineer in behalf of the Government. The above terms and conditions of employment of the Engineer shall be embodied in an agreement of employment in the form in use by the Board of Communications in respect of foreign employees, to be signed by the Engineer upon arrival.

8.—The Company agrees to have all equipment for the three Stations ready for shipment from a British Port within six months from the date of this Agreement, unless the Company's works are prevented from so

doing by energency war orders of Allied Governments.

9.—The Company agrees to indemnify the Government through a respossible Agency acceptable to both parties in the event that the contemplated Stations fail to communicate between Kashgar. Urumchi and Lanchowfu as specified in Clause 2 hereof, such indemnity not to exceed the amount accruing to the Company under this Agreement, such guarantee in writing of the responsible third party to be in the hands of the Government before the date the equipment arrives in Shanghai.

10.—The Government agrees to arrange all transportation facilities to purchase all necessary material and to select the most reliable and experienced Engineers at their disposal at the earliest possible moment in order that the three stations herein purchased may be completed without

undue delay.

11.—This Agreement shall be executed in two exemplars each of Chinese and English versions. In case of discrepancy or in the event of doubt arising regarding the interpretation of this Agreement the English version shall rule. Immediately after execution this Agreement shall be officially communicated to the British Minister in Peking by the Waichiaopu.

In Witness Whereof this Agreement is signed on behalf of the Government of the Republic of China by the Ministry of Communications, and sealed with the Seal of the Ministry of Communications, and is signed on behalf of Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Co., Limited by its duly authorized attorney.

AGREEMENT FOR FORMATION OF THE CHINESE NATIONAL WIRELESS TELEGRAPH COMPANY.

AGREEMENT.

CHINESE NATIONAL WIRELESS TELEGRAPH COMPANY.

THIS AGREEMENT made on this 24th day of May 1919, or the 24th day of the fifth month of the eighth year of the Republic of China, at Peking, China, by and between the Government of the REPUBLIC OF CHINA, represented by the MINISTRY OF WAR. of the one part, hereinafter referred to as "the Government." and MARCONI'S WIRELESS TELEGRAPH COMPANY, LIMITED. a Limited Liability Company, organized under the Company Laws of England, and having its registered Office at Marconi House, Strand, London, of the second part, hereinafter referred to as "the Marconi Company,"

WITNESSETH THAT:

WHEREAS in Clause 12 of an Agreement between the parties hereto, bearing date the 27th day of August, 1918, or the 27th day of the eighth month of the seventh year of the Republic of China, it was provided as follows:

"In consideration of the above the Government promises that in the "event the Government decides to establish a repair shop or factory for "the maintenance of wireless installations in China, or for the manufacture "of wireless apparatus, the Government will first open discussion with the "Company with a view of arranging joint operation of such factory by the "Government and the Company."

NOW THEREFORE the parties hereto having, in pursuance of the above provision, duly discussed arrangements for joint operation, it is, ir consideration of the mutual benefits to be derived therefrom hereby under-

stood and agreed as follows :--

- 1.—A joint stock limited liability Company, under the terms and conditions hereinafter contained, is hereby constituted, of which this Agreement as and when communicated to His Britannic Majesty's Minister at Peking through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, shall form the special charter. The terms and conditions of this Agreement as such special charter may not be hereafter varied save by the mutual consent of the parties hereto, expressed with the same formality as attends the execution and communication of these presents.
- 2.—(a) The said Company shall be known as "The Chinese National Wireless Telegraph Company" (hereinafter referred to as "The Chinese Company.")

(b) After this Agreement has been in force for a period of twenty years and at any time thereafter, if the Government wishes it will have

the right to exercise either one of the two following options:

First, the Government will have the right to purchase at a fair and reasonable price under conditions then existing all the shares of the Marconi Company, its patent rights, designs, drawings, etc., in the Chinese Company.

Second, the Government will have the right to liquidate its share in the Chinese Company, but when the price offered by the Marconi Company is equal to that offered by any others, then the Marconi Company will have the first option to purchase.

In either case the Government must give one year's notice in writing, specifying which of the two above options it wishes to exercise, at the conclusion of which this Agreement shall be terminated.

(c) The liability of its shareholders shall be limited to the amount of their subscriptions.

(d) The object of the said Chinese Company shall be to manufacture wireless telegraph and telephone apparatus, material and supplies, to deal in such apparatus, material and supplies, and to repair and maintain wireless installations now existing and hereafter established, but nothing in this Agreement confers any right upon the Chinese Company to operate commercial Wireless Stations in China.

3.—The Marconi Company hereby grants to the Chinese Company the right to the use in China, so long as it is a party to the terms and conditions of this Agreement, of all the Marconi Company's patents, rights, designs, drawings, and secret processes, past present and future, for wire-

less telegraphy and telephony.

- 4.—(a) In consideration of the grant set forth in Clause 3 above the Government agrees that the net divisible profits of the Chinese Company shall be divided into three equal parts: The Government and the Marconi Company each receiving one part, as shareholders, and the remaining one third is to be paid to the Marconi Company. However, should the Government exercise its right to purchase the entire Chinese Company as provided for in Clause 2 (b) the latter payment will thereupon be automatically discontinued also.
- (b) If hereafter at any time before the Government has exercised its right to purchase the entire Company as provided for in Clause 2 (b) the Government should desire to abolish the payment of the one third of the net divisible profits to the Marconi Company in consideration of the grant of patent, and other, rights as provided in the section next preceding, the Government may do so by paying a lump sum to the Marconi Company in an amount to be determined by agreement between the Government and the Marconi Company, which amount shall not exceed Three Hundred Thonsand Pounds (£300,000.0.0.) Should the Government avail itself of this right, thereafter all net divisible profits made by the Chinese Company shall be equally divided between the Government and the Marconi Company.

5.—(a) The Capital of the Chinese Company shall be SEVEN HUN-DRED THOUSAND POUNDS, (£700,000.0.0) divided into 700,000 shares of £1 each.

- (b) Immediately on the signing of this Agreement Capital amounting to £200,000.0.0, shall be paid up, one half, viz, £100,000.0, by the Government and one half, viz, £100,000.0, by the Marconi Company.
- (c) Further subscriptions for shares shall be in instalments as and when required and in the same proportions as above mentioned, such increases to be determined by resolution of the Board of Directors hereinafter provided for; but any increase in Capital shall only take place in the event of the business of the Chinese company justifying such increase.
- 6.—The Government, recognising that the Chinese Company's success depends upon mutual co-operation, hereby agrees that, if the goods supplied by the Chinese Company are not lower in quality nor higher in price to those offered by other Companies, the Government will purchase exclusively from the Chinese Company all its present and future requirements in wireless telegraph and telephone apparatus, material and supplies, and further if the Government suffers no loss by giving such work to the Chinese Company, the Chinese Company shall be exclusively entrusted with the repair and maintenance of all wireless telegraph and telephone apparatus and equipment in China.

7.—The instalments due from the Government in respect of the shares allotted to them shall be advanced by the Marconi Company on behalf of the Government, against, and in consideration of which advances, as

and when made, the Government shall issue to the Marconi Company negotiable Treasury Notes in Sterling amount equal to the respective advances, the said Treasury Notes to bear interest at the rate of EIGHT per centum per annum payable, in sterling, semi-annually and maturing ten years from their respective dates, and of such demominations, within the sum represented, as the Marconi Company may desire. Should the Government wish to repay the amount advanced by the Marconi Company, before maturity, it may discuss the matter with the Marconi Company.

- 8.—Pending full payment of all Treasury Notes issued under the terms of this Agreement, all the interest of the Government in the investment and the profits of the undertaking shall stand pledged to the Marconi Company as security for such payment. The Government, however, shall at all times receive its proportion of the profits of the Chinese Company always provided that interest and redemption on the Treasury Notes above referrred to is duly paid as such payments become due.
- 9.—The supreme control of the Chinese Company shall be vested in a Board of Directors consisting of three appointees of the Government and three appointees of the Marconi Company; to the Marconi Company in respect of any of the Treasury Notes issued against advances on shares subscription account as provided in Clause 7 above, one of the three appointees of the Marconi Company, to be designated by that Company, shall be entitled to an additional vote.
- 10.—(a) The Chinese Company shall utilize materials produced in China in preference to imported materials in all cases in which such materials are neither lower in quality nor higher in price than the imported materials.
- (b) The Chinese Company shall employ Chinese on its personnel so far as may be found possible from the point of view of competency and economy.
- (c) So soon as the Chinese Company's works are in operation a school shall be established near the works for the technical education of students whereby they may obtain practical as well as theoretical training to enable them to fill important positions in the Chinese Company. The expenses of the school shall be borne by the Chinese Company.
- 11.—So soon as this Agreement comes into effect the parties hereto shall proceed to the selection of a suitable site for the works of the Chinese Company, and to the appointment of the Board of Directors, who shall forthwith proceed to the settlement of arrangements for the acquisition of the site so selected, and for the erection, and equipment of the works.
- 12.—The Marconi Company hereby covenants that during the period when the Chinese Company shall under the terms of Clause 3 above be entitled to the use of the patent rights, designs, drawings and secret processes of the Marconi Company, the Marconi Company will not grant similar rights to any other person for use in China in whole or in part, and during the period of this Agreement the Marconi Company and their associated Companies shall not sell Wireless telegraph and telephone apparatus materials and supplies in China except through the Chinese Company, and the Government, on its part, covenants that it will use all its power during the said period to prevent any other person within China infringing any of these rights causing loss to the Chinese Company, provided that previous application is made by the Chinese Company to the Government asking for the necessary protection.

13.—In the event of dispute between the parties hereto regarding the amount to be paid to the Marconi Company under Clause 2 (b) or any other Clause in this Agreement, the matter shall be referred to a Court of Arbitrators consisting of two nominees of the Government, two nominees

of the Marconi Company and a fifth to be selected by these four, making

in all five members, the majority vote thereof to be final.

14.—The Government agrees hereby that forthwith upon the execution of this Agreement it will cause this Agreement to be communicated to His Britannic Majesty's Minister at Peking by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, whereupon this Agreement shall come into full force and effect.

15.—This Agreement shall be executed in two exemplars each of Chinese and English versions. In case of discrepancy or in the event of doubt arising regarding the interpretation of this Agreement the English

version shall rule.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF this Agreement is signed on behalf of the Government of the Republic of China by the Ministry of War, and sealed with the Seal of the Ministry of War, and is signed on behalf of Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Company, Limited, by its duly authorized Attorney.

MARCONI'S WIRELESS TELEGRAPH COMPANY, LIMITED.

Sgd, and Chopped in Chinese: Ting Ching. (Sgd.) A. H. Ginman.

Duly Authorized by the Minister of War.

Attorney-in-fact.

In the presence of:

In the presence of:

(Sgd.) Sohtsu G. King. (Sgd.) G. W. Frodsham.

MITSUI WIRELESS AGREEMENT.

Text of Sino-Japanese Wireless Installation Agreement.

The following is the text of the Agreement concluded on February 21, 1918, between the Chinese Ministry of the Navy and Messrs The Mitsui Co., for the erection of a high power wireless installation:—

Translated from Chinese by the "Peking Leader."

It is proposed to erect in China a great wireless telegraphic installation that shall be capable of communicating telegraphically direct with Japanese, European or American great installations. The conditions of Agreement are as follows:—

1.—This Agreement is contracted by the Chinese Ministry of the Navy of the one part (bereinafter called "the Chinese Government") and by Messrs The Mitsui Co., a Japanese firm, undertaking the contract (bereinafter called "the Contractors") of the other part, and the two contracting parties have mutually agreed upon the conditions of this Agreement

2.—The Chinese Government have consented to allow the Contractors to erect a great wireless installation whose forwarding and receiving apparatus shall be capable of communicating messages with Japan, Europe and America. The site of the installation shall, after being designated by the Chinese Government, be either bought or leased for the purposes of erection

3.—The cost for the lease or purchase of lands, erection of buildings and masts or towers, and the construction, transport and erection of the plant, etc., is estimated to be £536,267 (the estimates are attached hereinafter) a sum which the contractors shall raise and shall also assume entire responsibility for all matters connected with the construction and equipment.

4.—The above-mentioned capital sum of £536,267, which is for the purpose of constructing the telegraphic installation shall be repaid in &

equal annual instalments, that is to say, the whole of this capital shall be divided into 30 equal parts, of which one part shall be paid each year. The part that remains unpaid shall bear interest at the rate of eight per cent. per annum, to be included in the yearly instalment of repayment. The date for each yearly instalment of repayment shall be fixed to be on the 31st of December, solar calendar, to commence from the year that

operations begin.

5.—The Contractors' security for the above capital and for the interest shall be from the remaining balance of the receipts of the telegraphic installation after due deduction of all disbursements that are to be drawn from that source, hence the Contractors have to assume sole responsibility for the repayment of all disbursements; should the receipts be insufficient to meet the disbursements then for the repayments of capital and interest the Contractors shall also assume responsibility, but the Chinese Government shall confer upon the Contractors full controlling powers within the period of 30 years' duration.

6.—During the period of sole control of the telegraphic installation by the Contractors, the Chinese Government shall be entitled to a royalty of ten per cent of the receipts of the workings of the telegraphic installation, which is to be calculated in accordance with the whole year of the solar calendar and shall be payable at the end of each year. Should the receipts earned for the whole year's workings of the telegraphic installation be insufficient to cover the payments of disbursements then the Chinese Government shall still be entitled to a ten per centum of the total receipts col-

tected during the whole year.

7.—The Chinese Government have power to appoint officers in the installation to oversee and supervise accounts, in order that a proper check may be established over the royalty as set forth in Article 6. Besides the appointment of above-mentioned officials, students may be appointed to practise at the station, but the Chinese Government shall bear the whole

of the expenses that these students may cost.

8.—Owing to the very great responsibility involved with regard to receipts of the working of the station, the Chinese Government must accord its assent to unrestricted communication with wireless stations in all foreign countries and with seaports and ships, with a view to future development, but in communication with wireless stations in the interior of China, with the exception of military communications which shall obey the orders of military organizations, all other commercial communications in the interior of China shall be uniformly refused acceptance. In the event of the Chinese Government being on a war footing this station shall obey all martial orders laid down in China.

9.—At any time within the 30 years period, the Government may take back for itself the station. At that time all outstanding balance yet unpaid and accrued interest of 8 per cent. up to that date shall be wholly liquidated by the Chinese Government; the Contractors shall then at the same time have vitiated all their rights of movements vis a vis the station. According to the above-mentioned procedure, the Contractors shall previous to the handing over of the station to the Chinese Government make an inventory in the Chinese and English languages of all articles and things that compose the Station and present the inventory to the Ministry.

10.—Should the Chinese Government be unable to repay the sums in accordance with what is stipulated in Article 9, then the Government has no power to remove from the Contractors their control of the Station. Should the Government act in any manner of such a nature it must recognize the Contractors' possession of proprietory rights over the Telegraphic Station.

11.—Since the Contractors have to bear the responsibility of repayment of capital and payment of annual interest during the term of 30 years,

therefore the Contractors have the right to transfer the Telegraphic Station to another Company, but the consent of the Chinese Government must be

obtained otherwise it would not be lawful.

12.—At the end of the period of 30 years (should provision of Article 9 have not been acted upon) then irrespective of the capital having been totally redeemed or otherwise, this Telegraphic Station shall then wholly be handed over to the Chinese Government without price and the Government shall take over the Station, the Contractors making no demand for recompense whatsoever but the Government shall give six months' previous notice, otherwise the Contractors shall appropriate a 5 per cent. of the annual receipts up to the fifth year as remuneration.

13.—After the Chinese Government shall have taken over the Telegraphic Station as a Government property, the service of the personnel of the Station shall be retained by the Government, who shall pay them their cash salaries. Should there be any one unsuitable, that person may be discharged from the service, but during the term of control by the Contractors all members of the staff shall be found by the Contractors who shall pay them their salaries, such salaries shall be drawn from the receipts

of the Station.

14—Should greater power be added or additional plant be purchased during the term of 30 years of control of the Station by the Contractors, the Contractors shall assume responsibility for such augmentations, but the censent of the Chinese Government for such addition of capital outlay must be obtained and the repayment of such additional outlay shall still be within the same period of 30 years as aforesaid—that is devoted to repayment of capital and payment of interest.

15.—The Chinese Government shall issue Huchaos (exemption certificates) for the Contractors to facilitate the transport of all kinds of machinery, material and exempt such from likin and other inland miscellaneous charges, but the Contractors must furnish full lists of all machinery and material in order that they may be examined and then huchaos be issued for these consignments. As to other matters, the regular ordinary re-

gulations in force in China shall be followed.

16.—Should Chinese products of suitable quality and cheaper price be available for use among the material needed for the Telegraphic Station

such products shall be given first preference.

17.—This Agreement is done in three exemplars, each in the Chinese and English languages. Should there arise any difference in interpretation of any point, the English version shall be the authoritative text.

(Sdg.) The Ministry of the Navy of the Republic of China.

The Representative of Messrs The Mitsui Co.

Done in the

7th Year of the Republic of China, on the 21st Day of February.

NOTE TO THE MINISTRY OF THE NAVY FROM MITSUI CO.

21st February. 1918.

Gentlemen,—With reference to the Supplementary Articles Agreement. in Article 2 it is stated that while the control of the Telergaphic Station is assumed by the Chinese Government all disbursements and the service of the amortization of the Capital and interest payments shall be wholly assumed by the Chinese Government, should your Ministry entertain misunderstandings as to this Clause our firm is willing to undertake the control of the Station on behalf of your Government under instructions from your Government, and our firm will also undertake to repay capital and

interest and all disbursements shall be paid, and act in accordance with the Articles of conditions as agreed upon in the Proper Agreement. The three Clauses set forth below are for the purpose of safeguarding the interests of our firm and are as follows:

1.—The Chinese Government must give one year's previous notice in

order that reliable measures as to procedure may be devised.

2.—During the period that the Telegraphic Station is under the control of the Chinese Government, the interest on the capital and all disbursements shall be borne by the Chinese Government independently in accordance with the stipulations set forth in the present Agreement.

3.—During the period that the Telegraphic Station is under the control of our firm, our firm shall be allowed to collect charges for transmission of

all official and commercial messages.

With respects, etc.

This note is attached to the end of the Supplementary Article Agreement. As both parties are mutually agreeable this is sealed in testimony.

Ministry of the Navy of the Republic of China.

Representative of Messrs Mitsui Co.

SUPPLEMENTARY ARTICLES TO THE AGREEMENT.

The Ministry of the Navy (hereinafter called "the Chinese Government") with the Japanese firm, Messrs Mitsui & Co., the contracting Engineers (hereinafter called "the contractors") have mutually come to an agreement upon supplementary articles, in the 7th year on the 21st day of February, for the construction of a wireless telegraph station.

According to the agreement the Chinese Government may at any time repay the outstanding unpaid balance and take over the station as a Gov-

ernment property.

Now it is agreed that the procedure to be adopted after the completion of the erection of the telegraph station shall be that the station shall be immediately taken over by the Chinese Government. The expenses necessary for its erection shall be raised by the contractors for the Chinese Government, hence the following supplementary articles have been mutually agreed upon by the Chinese Government and the contractors, and are as follows:

1.—The contractors undertake to raise a loan for a total sum of £536,267 for the Chinese Government which shall be placed to the credit of the contractors in a Japanese bank for the purpose of constructing a

wireless telegraph station.

- 2.—The repayment of the above-mentioned capital sum by the Chinese Government shall be spread over thirty years, that is to say, the total capital shall be divided into thirty equal parts and one part shall be repaid each year, amounting to a sum of £17,875.11.4; the unpaid outstanding balance shall bear interest of eight per cent. per annum, to be payable an the same date as the date of repayment of the annual instalment, to which it shall be added.
- 3.—The date of repayment of capital each year shall be fixed to be on December 31 of the Solar Calendar. The first year for commencing the repayment shall be from the tenth year after the year that the station commences to operate after its construction and erection are completed and it can communicate telegraphically with the stations erected in Japan, Europe and America.
- 4.—The rate for the repayment of interest by the Chinese Government shall be according to Article 2 of the Supplementary Agreement, and interest shall commence to be paid on December 31 of the year that the erection of the telegraph station is completed.

5.—According to this agreement of supplementary articles, since the control of the telegraphic station and the powers of its commercial management shall be taken over again by the Chinese Government, therefore, should the telegraphic station receipts from its workings be insufficient to meet the payment of disbursements and so forth the contractors shall not assume any responsibility and Article 5 of the proper agreement shall also be vitiated.

6.—After the taking over again of the telegraphic station by the Chinese Government should there, in the course of its commercial operation, arise any impediment from other overseas cable companies with whom the Chinese Government have already entered into any agreements, then the contractors shall act under the instructions of the Chinese Government, whereby the contractors shall devise means to remove any restrictive conditions by negotiation with those cable companies with the station, and should no satisfactory solution be arrived at then the repayments of the instalments that the Chinese Government ought to repay shall be postponed for the time being until some solution shall have been come to, after which repayments may be resumed.

7.—The present supplementary articles of agreement shall be an integral part of the proper agreement and shall be identically acted upon in ac-

cordance with Article 17 of the proper agreement.

(Ministry of the Navy of the Republic of China) (The Japanese firm, Mitsui & Co., Representative, Omura). Done in the 7th year of the Republic of China, on the 21st day of February.

NOTE TO THE MINISTRY OF THE NAVY, FROM MITSUI CO.

Gentlemen,—The agreements entered into between your Government and the Great Northern and Eastern Extension Cable Companies stating that prior to the year 1930 no other land telegraph station shall be allowed to communicate telegraphically with Europe and America and so forth, our firm shall duly respect this clause within the limits prior to the year 1930 as provided for in Article 6 of our Supplementary Articles Agreement. From the year 1931 your Government's agreement with the Great Northern and Eastern Extension Cable Companies will terminate and lose its virtue. and our firm then shall be able to connect with Europe and America and all the world round by commercial communication without restriction. We, therefore, hereby make this declaration, and respectfully request you to take note. This note is attached to the end of our Supplementary Articles Agreement. As both parties are in mutual agreement seals are affixed in testimony. (Mitsui & Co.), February 21.

To the Ministry of the Navy, from Mr. Omura.

Gentlemen.—Regarding the agreement that our firm has entered into with your Ministry for the construction of a great wireless telegraph station, all the necessary materials required are selected from noted factories in Japan and are either purchased from Europe or America and are all of the best quality and in no case will any inferior material be employed in substitution. We hereby make this declaration and respectfully request you to take note. This note is attached to the Supplementary Articles Agreement and as both parties are in agreement seals are affixed in testimony (Mitsui & Co., Representative Omura), February 21.

DECLARATION.

Whereas the Proper and Supplementary Agreements for the construction of a large wireless telegraph station were completed on February 21, 1918, and whereas, it is mutually agreed by both parties that during the term of 30 years no other party shall be allowed to erect a similar wireless telegraph station for communicating telegraphically with Japan, Europe and America, neither may the Chinese Government itself erect an installation, and the Cabinet have in meeting passed the application, and whereas the conditions of the agreement have been mutually agreed upon and the agreement has been signed by both the contracting parties at the end of the document and, furthermore, the statement as set forth in the preceding has been mutually agreed upon by both the contracting parties and that the procedure set forth in Article 17 (8?) of the Proper Agreement shall be adopted.

7th year of the Republic of China, March 5. (Mitsui & Co., Omura).

FEDERAL WIRELESS LOAN.

In January 1921, an agreement was signed between the Ministry of Communications and the American Federal Wireless Telephone and Telegraph Corporation. The official text has not been published. The following alleged version appeared in a Japanese paper, the China Advertiser.

The following is the text of the Wireless loan Agreement concluded between the Chinese Government Federal Wireless Telephone and Telegraph

Corporation, translated from a Chinese version :-

Article 1. This Agreement is concluded between the Chinese Republic, hereinafter to be called the Chinese Government, and the contractor for the Federal Wireless Telephone and Telegraph Corporation, hereinafter to be called the Contractor.

Article 2. The Chinese Government authorises the Contractor to establish a high-power wireless station of one thousand kilowatts at Shanghai, which can directly send messages to, and receive them from various wireless stations in the world.

Article 3. The Chinese Government authorises the Contractor to establish medium-power wireless stations of 600 kilowatts at Peking, Canton, Hankow and Harbin, one at each place and four in all, each able directly to send messages to, and receive them from wireless stations in Japan, Philippines, San Francisco and Singapore.

Article 4. The Chinese Government grants the Contractor the right to buy or lease land necessary for the establishment of the wireless stations.

Article 5. The Contractor shall furnish a sum of gold dollars 4,620,000, required for the establishment, transportation and setting up of the five wireless installations, as well as for the lease or purchase of the required tract of land at the place of erection, the construction of buildings, and the erection of wireless poles, etc., the Contractor being responsible for all the work connected with the establishment of the five wireless stations.

Article 6. The sum of gold dollars 4,620,000 required for the establishment of the five wireless stations, mentioned in Article 5, shall be paid back by the Chinese Government in ten annual instalments, that is the amount is to be divided into ten equal parts, one part being repaid each year. For the parts unpaid, the Chinese Government shall pay annual interest at 7 percent, which shall be paid at the time when the payment of the annual instalment of the capital takes place, the date of payment being December 1st, each year. This Article takes effect when all the five wireless installations become operative.

Article 7. The amortisation of the annual instalments of the capital and payment of interest stipulated in Article 6 shall be paid out of the revenue of the wireless installations to be established by the Contractor in the

fellowing manner: - When the books are balanced every year interest shall first be paid out of the revenue, and then the portion of the capital due that year shall be deducted from the surplus. Should the revenue happen to be insufficient to cover disbursements, or enough to pay the interest due, but not enough to pay the capital to be redeemed that year the Chinese Government shall make the deficit good when it takes over the delivery of the wireless installations.

Article 8. The Chinese Government gives the Contractor the right of full control of the wireless installations erected by him for the period

of ten years.

Article 9. During the period of the Contractor's control of the wireless installations, the Chinese Government can detail officials to each wireless station to supervise the work, the Chinese Government retaining the right of examining books and sending men to be trained for the work. The Chinese Government shall pay all expenses in connection with such probationers

Article 10. During the period of the Contractor's control he shall pay to the Chinese Government an annual royalty, equivalent to ten percent of the gross receipts of each wireless station, the Contractor being bound to pay such royalty at each year end, regardless of whether the revenue is insufficient to cover disbursements, or not.

Article 11. The Chinese Government shall pay salaries of the officials

detailed to each wireless station for supervision.

Article 12. The Chinese Government authorises the Contractor to exchange messages freely with foreign wireless stations through the wireless installations established by the Contractor, sincerely hoping that his business will prosper.

Article 13. The Contractor agrees to hand over all the wireless installations to the Chinese Government any time within the stipulated period of ten years, should the Chinese Government redeem the capital advanced by the Contractor, or the portion of the capital still remaining unpaid,

together with interest thereto up to the date of redemption.

Article 14. Should the Chinese Government not pay back the amount standing due to the Contractor as mentioned in Article 13 within the period of ten years, it cannot deprive the Contractor of his power of control of the wireless stations, the ownership of the Chinese Government of the wireless stations being established only when such payments have been made.

Article 15. If after the expiration of ten years, the Chinese Government is unable to repay the cost of the wireless installations in order to take over the control, or the capital and interest thereto are not fully paid up, the Chinese Government shall issue bonds in payment of the outstanding capital and interest thereto, and place the wireless installations erected by the Contractor under Sino-American joint control.

Article 16. After the Chinese Government has nationalised the wireless stations, all the personnel engaged by the Contractor previously shall be kept engaged at the salaries they were receiving from the Contractor. case the Chinese Government considers the men employed not satisfactory,

they shall be discharged.

Article 17. In order to facilitate the erection of the wireless stations, the Chinese Government shall issue permits to the Contractor, so that the materials and machinery required by the wireless stations can be transported without hindrance, and they shall be exempted from the imposition of all taxes and duties.

Article 18. During the period of the Contractor's control, if the wireless installations are to be increased or more machinery is to be purchased, the Chinese Government shall be applied to for permission otherwise the action will be legally invalid.

Article 19. The additional capital invested by the Contractor through the increase of electric power or the purchase of machinery, and interest, accruing therefrom, shall also be amortised out of the revenue of the wireless service.

Article 20. This agreement shall be rendered in the Chinese. English and French languages, the Agreement being drawn up in two sets of triplicate. In case of a dispute arising regarding the interpretation of the Agreement, it shall be decided by the French text.

Dated January 8, 1921.

SUPPLEMENTARY PROVISIONS.

Whereas an agreement has been reached between the Communications Department of the Chinese Government, hereinafter to be called the Chinese Government and Wireless Telephone and Teiegraph Corporation, hereinafter to be called the Contractor, on January 8th in the 10th Year of the Republic (1921) that the Chinese Government, in virtue of the Agreement drawn up for the establishment of wireless stations, can take delivery of the installations any time by repaying the money advanced by the Contractor, the said Agreement covenanting the method of redemption of the loan by the Chinese Government after the completion of the wireless installations, the erection of the wireless installations by the Contractor on behalf of the Chinese Government, and the Contractor raising the necessary funds, as well as the method of paying interest on the capital advanced by the Contractor, the following supplementary provisions are concluded between the Chinese Government and the Contractor:—

Article 1. The Contractor agrees to raise gold \$4,620,000 on behalf of the Chinese Government for the establishment of the wireless installations. This amount shall be deposited in an American bank in the name of the Contractor, and shall not be used for any other purposes than the erection of the specified wireless installations.

Article 2. The Chinese Government shall repay the gold dollars 4,620,000 advanced by the Contractor in ten yearly instalments, amortising a sum of

gold \$420,000 every year.

Article 3. The Chinese Government shall pay annual interest on the amount of the unpaid portion of the advance, at a rate of 7 percent per annum, payment of the said interest taking place at the time of the amortization of the capital every year.

Article 4. The first instalment of the capital to be paid back to the Contractor by the Chinese Government, as well as the interest, shall be handed over to the Contractor by the Chinese Government before December 31st of the year in which the wireless installations have been completed and operations have been commenced.

Article 5. In virtue of this supplementary provision, should the wireless installations have been redeemed by the Chinese Government, all the controlling rights of the wireless installations shall revert to the Chinese Government, the Contractor being released from all responsibility therefor and Article 8 in the Agreement becoming invalid.

Article 6. This supplementary provision shall be observed as a part

of the Agreement.

Dated January 8, 1921.

(Both the British and Japanese Legations protested against the above Agreement, as having been concluded in violation of the rights of their nationals under existing contracts.)

COMPLETED WIBELESS STATIONS IN CHINA. CHINESE LEASEDTERRITORY AND HONGKONG.

OMG.	Wave Length in Meters	2,400 300,600, 1,500 2100,3500 2100,3500 2100,4637, 4200,4006 300,630,1800 2100,1800 300,000,1800 1270,1800	
STATIONS IN CHINA, CHINESE LEASED I ENVISION AND HONGROUND	System of Radio Tele- graphy with the Char- acteristics of the system of emission	Telefunken Quenched Teishirsho musical Spark Teishirsho musical Spark Marconi boulsen Arc Teishinsho slow spark Telefunken Quenched musical spark Telefunken Quenched musical spark Fe. eral Pou sen Arc Teishinsho musical " " " slow Telefunken Quenched musical spark " " " " Slow Telefunken Quenched musical spark " " " " " " Marconi high British Government Are musical spark " " Marconi high British Government Are Marconi high British Government Are Marconi high frequency arc Elettrique musical mote french Govern- ment French Govern-	1
TIME	Approxi- mate Power Used	25 KW 10 KW 15 KW 15 KW 16 KW 17 KW 18 KW 19 KW 10	Z KW
DECEMBED TO	Normal Range in Nautical Miles	2,000 1,200 1,	
TITIO EN	Ca!l Signal	PESW NPP NPP NPP NPP NPP NPP NPP NPP NPP NP	1
TITIVES, O	By whom Controlled	Japanese Japanese Japanese Japanese Japanese Japanese Chinese Chinese Chinese Japanese Japanese Japanese Chinese Chine	Berrish
IND TIN C	Ownership	Russian Japunese Japanese Japanese Japanese Chinese French French	British
Trees SIAIIO	Province or Territory	Manchuria Manchuria Manchuria Manchuria Manchuria Manchuria Manchuria Manchuria Manchuria Cristi Chibli Chi	
COMPLEIED WIRELESS	CITY	Harbin Manchouli Kungchuliug Lunctsinisung Dally Urga Kalgan Peking (Japanese Legation) Peking (Temple of Heaven) Peking (Temple of Heaven) Peking (U.S. Legation) Tsinan Tsingtao Har kow Wuchang Shan hai (Chinese Telegraph Administination Building) Shanghai (French Settlement) Shanghai (French Settlement) Shanghai (French Settlement) Shanghai (Foochow Canton Hone,kong (Hongkong Island, Cape D'Aguila) Kwangchow-wan Yunnanfu	Kashgar

At different times the Japanese have erected field wireless sets in Manchuru and operated the same from Hunchun (渾春), and Yungling (永陵).

Also the Chinese army have operated field sets from Nanyuan (南苑) (outside of Peking), Chengchow (鄭州) and Paotingfu (保定序), etc. None of these sets are permanently located however.

Also there are many radio stations fitted for receiving only, which are not listed—as the Italian Legation, Peking, Chinese station near Chi-huamen (齊化門), Peking, U. S. Consulate in Shanghai, Japanese military Barracks in Liaoyang (證陽), Manchuria, U. S. Army Headquarters, Tientsin, etc.

RADIO STATIONS TO BE ERECTED BY FOREIGN COMPANIES FOR THE CHINESE GOVERNMENT.

CITY	Province	Com	pany	Approximate Power		
Harbin Shanghai Shanghai Peking Canton Kashgar Urumchi Uliassutai Kweihuating Sian	Mongolia Shensi	(Ameri do do do do The Marcon	Wireless Co, can Co, do	1,000 60 60 60 28 25 25	KW KW KW KW KW KW KW KW known	
	RADIO STA	TIONS NOW	BEING ERECT	ED,		
CITY	Province	Ownership	By Whom Cont	rolled	Approximate Power	
Hsuangchiao	Chihli	Japanese	Chinese & Japa	anese	500 KW	
Tsingtao	Shantung	Japanese	Japanese		10 KW	

AVIATION.

In 1910 the General Staff first became interested in aviation and a small experimental aeroplane factory was started at Wu Li Dee 10 miles South of Peking and two miles East of Nanyuan. Nothing of value was produced.

During the same year a Russian pilot gave a flying exhibit.on on a

Bleriot monoplane in the Legation Quarter at Peking.

In 1909 a French pilot called Vallon on a Sommer biplane did a large amount of exhibition flying over Shanghai, but he was unfortunately killed in a flying accident. The leaders of the first Revolution in 1911 planned to attack l'eking from the air and two Etrich monoplanes were purchased in Austria. They did not arrive in Shanghai until the end of 1912, and they were then used for exhibition work there, being piloted by a returned

student from England, Z. Y. Lee. During the same year an American returned student Feng Yu did some exhibition flying over Canton until he was killed in a flying accident.

In 1915 Z. Y. Lee and the two Etrich monoplanes first moved to Nanking and finally to the experimental establishment at Wu-Li-Dee where he came under the control of General Tsao Kun who was then commanding the third Division stationed at Nanyuan.

During the same year the Flying School at Nanyuan was opened under the control of the General Staff. It was equipped with 12 Caudron biplanes and the necessary repair shops. There were two French and two Chinese flying instructors and two French mechanics.

As soon as this school was opened the establishment at Wu-Li-Dee was transferred to Nanyuan and the two were amalgamated.

Much flying was done, although aeronautical supplies were very difficult to obtain during the War, and by the end of 1918 about 100 pilots had obtained their graduation certificates and fourteen had passed a special military test consisting of a cross country flight of approximately 400 kilometres. A few aeroplanes also took part, in the White Wolf Expedition. in the Mongolian expedition, and in the bombing of the Imperial Palace in 1917.

In 1916 the Board of Navy began the Naval Aviation Service with the formation of a Seaplane School at Foochow near the dockyard under the direction of Admiral Chen Chao-tsiang, (東光欝) and several returned students from America. With the dockyard facilities at their disposal, the instructors built three experimental seaplanes for training purposes. Unfortunately the first one met with an accident through engine trouble.

During 1919 the Chinese Government made contracts with the British Firms, Messrs Vickers and Handley Page for the delivery of about 150 training and commercial aeroplanes and for the provision of the necessary ground staff to erect the machines and to train the pilots.

In the spring of 1920 Group Captain F. V. Holt C.M.G., D.S.O., Royal Air Force was lent by the British Air Ministry to the Aeronautical Department for two years as Technical Adviser.

From the Autumn of 1919, there were two Aeronautical Departments, one directly under the Cabinet and one under the Board of Communications, but after the fall of the Anfu Party in the summer of 1920 the latter was abolished. The present organization of the Department is only temporary and is under General Mouhan K. Ting, Director, who is directly responsible to the Prime Minister of the Republic. The Department is organized as follows:

- I. Bureau of General Affairs divided into four sections.
 - Secretarial, in charge of the correspondence and the keeping of the seal.
 - Miscellaneous, in charge of the non-technical property and the discipline of employees of the office.
 - 3. Medical, in charge of the hospitals and medical personnel.
 - 4. Judge Advocate, in charge of legal matters.
- II. Bureau of Military Affairs divided into 3 sections.
 - Operations, in charge of drawing up regulations for the Air Service and the assignment and distribution of its personnel.
 - 2. Air Stations, in charge of the construction and administration of air stations.
 - Intelligence, in charge of the collection and dissemination of air intelligence.
- III. Bureau of Training divided into two sections.
 - 1. School, in charge of training establishments and textbooks.
 - 2. Inspection, in charge of the training and inspection of troops.

IV. Bureau of Technical Affairs divided into two sections.

- Inspection, in charge of the inspection of technical material.
 Maintenance, in charge of the maintenance of technical material.
- V. Bureau of Financial Affairs divided into two sections.

1. Treasury, in charge of money accounts.

2. Purchase, in charge of the purchase of technical material.

VI. Bureau of Civil Aviation divided into two sections.

1. Mapping, in charge of the aerial photography and mapping.

2. Transportation, in charge of aerial transportation.

The above constitutes the present temporary organization which will soon be more or less modified in order to meet the growing importance of civil aviation as compared with military aviation.

The fighting during the summer of 1920 seriously retarded the development of aviation, resulting in the seizure of all the Handley-Page machines by the Chihli and Fengtien Tuchuns.

A new Aviation Training Station has been started at Tsing Ho about ten miles Northwest of Peking which will eventually contain a Cadet College, Training Squadrons and Workshops.

The old pilots are being given further training and new pupils are being put through a thoroughly up-to-date course of flying instruction.

The opening of a Government Commercial Air Line from Peking to Shanghai was sanctioned for the Spring 1921* and it is hoped to get at least one other line running by the Autumn of 1921.

China has signed the Air Convention of the Treaty of Paris and the regulations to bring it into force are ready to be issued.

For the present the Aeronautical Department is concentrating its energies upon developing commercial aviation.

On May 7, 1920, a Handley-Page Machine, piloted by Captain Mackenzie, made the return trip between Peking and Tientsin, the British Minister being among the passengers.

^{*}The opening of this service has been postponed owing to the opposition of the Civil Governor or Chihli to the laying-out of an aerodrome at Tientsin.

CHAPTER XIX.

DEFENCE.

CHINA'S ARMY.

INTRODUCTORY.

The first steps towards the standardization of the Chinese army and the centralization of military power were taken by Yuan Shih-kai (袁世凱) in 1901, shortly after the Boxer episode, and from that time up to the Revolution in 1911-12, when anti-dynastic volunteer armies were raised in the South, the work of modernizing and standardizing China's man power and equipment went steadily forward. The Revolution, however, broke down the solidarity of China's military organization, introduced new elements into military affairs, established a precedent for promiscuous enlistment and also a precedent for individual action on the part of subordinate military commanders. These precedents have been followed with painful consistency throughout the nine years of inter-provincial strife which have succeeded the establishment of the Republic, until China now has a greater number of men under arms than any country in the world which is at peace with her neighbours and, at the same time, can command so little loyalty or expect so little service from either the enlisted men or their commanders, that they guarantee the nation against neither foreign aggression nor internal disturbance.

An official system for the Ministry of War (Lu Chun Pu 陸軍部) was promulgated on August 31, 1912. This and much more of the theory of Chinese military organization have been reproduced in previous editions of the YEAR BOOK; but since the Chinese army in practice does all but conform to the theory of its organization, distribution, equipment and service, an attempt will be made in what follows to describe conditions as they actually exist, not in a critical spirit, but in the belief that such information will be of more service for purposes of reference than the statement of a theory to which China has found it impossible for many complex reasons to adhere.

HISTORY.

The military profession has never been held in high esteem among the Chinese and throughout their history the soldier has been looked upon with more or less contempt, while the cultivation of military science has always been forced upon the nation by more belligerent and aggressive neighbours. Except when the administration of the national government was in the hands of conquering Tartars, large armies were only enlisted for self-protection or for the punishment of a rebellious dependent state, and it never became a national tradition to reward victorious generals with exalted posts in the civil service. Although subject to attack through thirty centuries by warlike neighbours on all her frontiers China's place in history is that of the least militaristic of nations.

The standards of her various conquerors who succeeded at one time or another in setting up kingdoms and empires on Chinese soil was invariably different. The Mongols, for instance, were an essentially martial people whose military commanders were their only rulers and whose power collapsed in China when they had so far adapted themselves to Chinese

customs that they were no longer able to maintain their position by force of arms. Much the same may be said of the Manchus, whose dynasty came to an end with the Revolution of 1911 after two and a half centuries of adaptation to Chinese ways had robbed the Bannermen of their barbaric stamina. Prior to the disastrous Sino-Japanese war of 1894, the Manchu army of occupation, garrisoned in all but six provinces, was China's only national standing army. In theory every Manchu was a military reservist and every able bodied man a soldier. Actually only those in service were adequately trained or equipped. In national crises, such as the Taiping rebellion and the Mohammedan risings in north-west China, the available Manchu and Mongol soldiery were reinforced by huge Chinese armies recruited for the campaign and disbanded at its close; but no attempt was ever made by the Manchus until 1895 to develop a national Chinese army along modern lines, and it was not until 1901, after Peking had been captured with comparative ease by a few thousand foreign troops that the need for a thoroughly modern and thoroughly organized Chinese army became apparent.

The Manchu military organization, known as the Eight Banners (八族) included a certain number of Chinese and Mongols whose ancestors had participated in the original campaign of conquest. Each major Banner was divided into three minor Banners, Manchu, Mongol and Chinese, thus making twenty-four in all. The majority of the Bannermen, with their families, resided in Peking, making up a great part of the population. Every man enrolled as a Bannerman received a monthly pittance as a retaining fee, while those actually under arms received regular pay. The Imperial Family, out of its present annual allowance of \$4,000,000, still tries to pay something to each Bannerman who formerly received the monthly trifle.

Coexistent with the Manchu army, which was essentially the army of the Throne and in that sense the National Army, was the Lü Ying, (綠巻), variously translated Green Camp, Green Flag and Green Battalion, which was essentially an organization of provincial constabulary. force included the water police in the South, but although it was supposed to number 400,000 men, it was effete as a military organization half a century ago and was seldom if ever relied upon in actual campaigns. In times of national stress it was always superseded by the special levies raised to meet the immediate need and the Manchu Chiangchun, or Provincial Military Governor, very rarely condescended to assume command over any branch of this force. There were other organizations, such as the Fu Pian (副標), the Provincial Governor's Chinese guard, the Tu Piao (督標) the Viceroy's guard, the Yellow River Guard and the Guards of the Imperial Grain Transport. None of these, however, was more than a special police force. For any military duty, too onerous for the limited Manchu army, the Throne relied primarily upon the levies of recruits or "braves" (A yung). The modern army was not conceived of until the war with Japan taught the Manchu Court how little mere man power, unequipped and untrained, had to do with real warfare.

The Wu Wei Chun (武海軍) was organized in 1895, foreign instructors were employed, foreign military equipment was purchased in quantity, and six divisions of Chinese soldiery were enlisted in the North and set to learn the new military science. Little progress was made prior to the Boxer rising and during this event the new organization almost completely disappeared, with the exception of one Division which Yuan Shih-kai made the nucleus of a new army in 1901. In January 1901, the Yangtze Viceroys submitted a memorial to the Throne suggesting among other things the disbandment of the useless Lü Ying, the employment of

the Bannermen, almost as useless, in service other than military, and the creation of a modern army. This brought forth an Imperial decree ordering reorganization of the army, of which Yuan Shih-kai, then Viceroy of Chihli, took advantage to build up six new divisions, four of which were transferred to the Ministry of War in 1906. This was the real beginning of the Lu Chun, the Chinese National Army. In January, 1905, a comprehensive scheme was outlined designed to give China an army of 36 Divisions or 360,000 men, by the year 1911. Three years after this decision was made there were about 60,000 men, with 360 guns in the North, and 40,000 men, with 174 guns, in the South. The army was developing along sound lines when Yuan Shih-kai was removed from office in 1908 after the death of his great patroness the Empress Dowager, and the direction of military, as well as other affairs, fell into the hands of the Manchu princes, whose mismanagement contributed much to the downfall of their dynasty three years later.

The history of the army from the Revolution to the present year is a story of abnormal increase and of almost complete disintegration. Factors which have contributed to the decline of the National army have been the frequent revolutions, inter-provincial and inter-party feuds, the growth of what is known as the Tuchun system, the rise of independent commanders with their own followings, the enrollment of large bandit forces taken into the army in districts in which they could not be suppressed, and the usurpation by military commanders of civil offices and their consequent entry into politics. The Lu Chun, or national army which Yuan Shih-kai so carefully fostered, has ceased to exist as a unit at the command of the Peking Government and has been split up into a great number of smaller armies, each loyal to the particular commander or Military Governor who pays, feeds, and clothes it, and loyal to him only so long as he performs these functions. Rivalry among these high military leaders and mutual suspicion have prompted indiscriminate recruiting, often without either the consent or the knowledge of the Central Government. In the South forces spring up championing this Government or that, this cause or that, again following the particular leaders who provide for them, and this has gone on throughout the land until no single office or officer can give more than an estimate of the number of soldiers under arms in China, of the number of arsenals, of the armament and equipment of the various units. or indicate accurately the distribution of all of China's armed forces.

THE TUCHUN SYSTEM.

Without an understanding of what has come to be known as the Tuchun system it is impossible either to comprehend or to explain the existing pre-eminence of the military caste in China, the decentralization of military authority, the lack of all standardization in equipment. arms and the like, and the lack in most organizations of discipline, of training and of efficiency.

The Revolution of 1911-12 was decidedly popular in the South, and in some of the Northern provinces, and the military leaders who initiated the various revolts against Manchu authority became popular heroes and were permitted to assume civil offices and powers which by tradition were jealously guarded for the literary caste. At the same time in the North the Manchus, in their last desperate effort to save themselves, were forced to resign all their powers to Yuan Shih-kai, who was essentially militaristic, and to his closely organized following of military subordinates. In both the North and the South therefore the military acquired a hold upon administrative affairs which they have never relaxed.

The first Military Governors of the provinces, appointed during and after the Revolution, were given the title of Tutuh (肾都) and were

entrusted with all the powers of civil and military officialdom combined. From the beginning of this new regime the provincial Civil Governor was virtually the subordinate of the Military Governor and then as now a military man frequently functioned in both capacities. Yuan Shih-kai altered the title at one time to Chiangchun (常年), and after his death in 1916, it was again changed to Tuchun (督軍), the present designation.

As the authority of the Central Government has gradually broken down through conspiracy and civil war, the strength of the Tuchuns has grown, until now their positions in their provinces are much like those of feudal barons in their semi-independent baronies and counties. Each regards the units of the army stationed in his province as his personal following and in the struggle for ascendency each spends a large proportion of the provincial funds upon the recruiting and equipment of larger and larger armies without consulting the Central Government and sometimes without even advising Peking of the increases. Like feudal barons the Tuchuns do not hesitate to make war upon one another or upon the Central Government and also to unite occassionally in groups to dictate national policy to Peking. The more powerful Tuchuns exert a dominating influence over the affairs of their weaker neighbours and when their hegemony over several provinces is firmly established, receive from the Central Government the title of Inspectors General, and are facetiously described in the press as Super Tuchuns.

Under pressure of popular opinion, which is strongly opposed to these military dictatorships, the abolition of the Tuchunate is advocated by many of the Tuchuns themselves and, in one instance at least, the title has been abolished and that of Provincial Director of Military Affairs adopted in its stead. This change of title of course works no improvement in conditions. The artificial inflation of the provincial armies has gone on steadily for some years, keeping pace with the ambitions of the Military Governors, and the army has, at the same time, been losing steadily in

efficiency, morale and discipline.

MILITARY EDUCATION.

In theory every provincial capital should have a primary school for the training of officers, offering a three year course. Graduates from these schools should then spend two years in one of the middle schools which were formerly established in Ch'ingho (清河). near Peking, Wuchang, (Hupeh), Sianfu (Shensi), and Nanking (Kiangsu), and should then complete their preliminary training, after four months service with a Luchun division, with a two year course at the Paotingfu (Chihli) Cadet Academy.

In the North the facilities for such training no longer exist. The Ch'ingho Middle School is closed and many of the primary schools are either closed or are so poorly supported that they serve no useful purpose. The Paotingfu Academy has been closed for some time, but efforts are

now being made to reopen it.

In Peking there are: an Army Medical College, an Army Veterinary College, a Q.M.D. college, a Police College, and a Gendarmerie School.

The War College, Luchun Ta Hsueh (陸軍大學), under the direction of the General Staff, has come to be one of the most important military institutions in China and but for a shortage of funds would develop into a useful school. Candidates for training in the War College are chosen by the provincial authorities from among the younger officers on active service in the regular army. To qualify they must have served two years as commissioned officers. The number chosen is limited and the standards set are high. After a two-year course, graduates from the War College are again appointed to active service and invariably enjoy rapid promotion. Four Japanese officers are attached to the school and foreigners of other nationalities give language courses.

THE MODEL REGIMENT. (模範團)

The term Model Army is sometimes loosely applied by foreigners to the reshaped organization which Yuan Shih-kai built up after the Boxer rising. To the Chinese, however, the Model Army means something different. It is the organization which Yuan Shih-kai conceived of but never evolved at the time of the outbreak of the war in Europe in 1914, when the President thought it possible that China might be called upon to play a part in the world war. A Model Regiment was formed, of which Yuan Shih-kai himself was honorary colonel, Chen Kuang-yuan, now Tuchun of Kiangsi, colonel, and one of Yuan Shih-kai's sons Lieutenant-colonel. The captains were nearly all generals in rank and a large percentage of the "enlisted men" were commissioned officers. Although the regiment subsequently lost its character, declined in prestige and was finally absorbed by the 9th Divisien, it had a decided influence upon the Chinese army. A traveller will meet young officers in almost every part of China who refer to the fact that they were once in the Model Regiment with as much pride as though they were claiming a degree from a military academy of high standing. Some even indicate their former connection with the Regiment on their visiting cards.

A body of men known as the Model Regiment, Mo Fan T'uan, now exists in Peking and is kept up as an officers' training corps, but does not have the same exceptional standing as the old regiment. Men and officers may be distinguished from other troops by the thin line of gold bordering

the red gorget patch on the collar.

ORGANIZATION.

The standard unit of the Chinese army is the Division, though the Mixed Brigade is undoubtedly becoming more popular as a more mobile unit, and the number of men organized in Mixed Brigades throughout the country is probably greater than the total number in the Divisions. In remote districts, where Divisions and Brigades exist in theory, the Chinese military think and speak in battalions only but are slowly developing an interest in such units as mixed regiments. In theory the Division should number 12,512 officers and men. In practice it is customary to credit a division with 10,000 all told, and this often proves to be an overestimate. A division is made up of two Infantry Brigades of 2 regiments each; one cavalry regiment of three battalions; one artillery regiment of three battalions; one company of engineers; one company transport; four or more companies machine guns, number undetermined; military police: a sanitary detachment, a field hospital and a band. The officers should number 743, the rank and file 10,436 and coolies and other camp followers 1,328,

A Mixed Brigade (混成族) usually consists of two Infantry regiments, one battalion cavalry, one battalion artillery, one company engineers, one company transport and one or more companies of machine guns.

A mixed Regiment (混成團) usually consists of one regiment of infantry, one company cavalry, one company artillery, one company machine guns, and small detachments of engineers and transport.

The theoretical strength of each unit in each branch of the service is

given in the following list:

Unit.	STRENG	TH
	Men in	Including Offi-
	the ranks.	cers, coolies,
		&c.
Infantry.		(approximate)
1 Squad (1 Sergt., 1 Corpl. 12 Soldiers)	14	18
1 Section (3 Squads)	42	55
1 Company (3 Sections)	126	1 65
1 Battalion (4 Companies)	504	659
1 Regiment (3 Battalions)	1,512	1,977
1 Brigade (2 Regiments)	3,024	3,954
Cavalry.		
1 Squad (1 Sergt., 1 Corpl., 12 Soldiers)	14	23
1 Section (2 Squads)	28	45
1 Troop (2 Sections)	56	91
1 Squadron (4 Troops)	224	363
1 Regiment (3 Squadrons)	672	1,089
		2,000
Artillery.		
(Field Guns).	14	01
1 Squad (1 Sergt., 1 Corpl., 12 Soldiers)	14	21
1 Section (3 Squads)	42	63
1 Battery (3 Sections) 6 guns	126	189
1 Battalion (5 Batteries) 18 guns	378	568
1 Regiment (3 Battalions) 54 guns	1,134	1,704
(Mountain Guns)	1.4	00
1 Squad (1 Sergt., 1 Corpl., 12 Soldiers)	14	22
1 Section (3 Squads)	42	66
1 Battery (3 Sections) 6 guns	128	197
1 Battalion (3 Batteries) 18 guns	378 .	592
1 Regiment (3 Battalions) 54 guns	1,134	1,776
Engineers.		
1 Squad (1 Sergt., 1 Corpl., 12 Soldiers)	14	2 5
1 Section (3 Squads)	42	74
1 Company (3 Sections)	126	222
1 Battalion (4 Companies)	504	667
Transport.		
1 Squad (1 Sergt., 1 Corpl., 12 Soldiers)	14	28
1 Section (3 Squads)	42	84
1 Company (3 Sections)	126	251
1 Battalion (3 Companies)	504	752
Band.		
20 Musicians and 24 Learning Musicians	44	51
3	44	OT
Machine Gun Company.		

Machine Gun Company.

Each consists of 4 to 6 guns, attached to Infantry or Cavalry. Sometimes a Machine Gun Battalion is formed.

ARMS, UNIFORMS AND EQUIPMENT.

The Chinese Army has no individual equipment except clothing which is distinctively Chinese. Even the uniforms are semi-foreign, modified somewhat to adapt them to Chinese standards of comfort. All arms, ammunition, accourtements, and the like, are either of foreign make or are manufactured in Chinese arsenals after foreign models, usually Japanese or German. In some instances the Chinese arsenals have combined in one weapon various features from various foreign models, turning out what might be described as an international weapon, but nothing original in the way of improvements or new features has ever been evolved.

It is sometimes assumed that the Chinese army has more infantry arms than men. The best authorities, however, agree that the number of rifles is inadequate to the number of infantrymen and that out of perhaps a million rifles in service in China, eighty per cent are antiquated, badly kept, and generally in poor condition. The stock and condition of ammunition is in keeping with the condition of the rifles.

The following rifles are known to be in use: Mannlicher 6.5 m.m. rifles and carbines; Japanese 6.5 rifles and carbines of the 30th and 38th years of Meiji; Mauser 6.8 rifles, model 1913, manufactured at the Hanyang, Canton, Shanghai and Honan arsenals; Mauser 7.9 rifles, model 1888, manufactured at the Canton and Hanyang arsenals; Japanese 7.9 rifles of the 20th, 28th and 36th years of Meiji; Japanese 7.9 rifles of the 22nd year Murata; and Russian 3-line rifles.

In out of the way communities it is not uncommon to find provincial troops equipped with nothing but curved broadswords, or with muzzle-load-

ing guns of unknown age fired by cap, flintlock or matchlock.

The standard bayonet of the Chinese army is lighter and shorter than that used by most armies in the Occident and is designed as a cutting as well a thrusting weapon. The German Lüger automatic pistol is the most popular weapon of its kind in the Chinese army and the bodyguards of high officials throughout China are equipped with weapons of this model. Few Brownings are to be found in China.

Machine guns have become popular weapons in the Chinese army and are manufactured even in the small private arsenals of the various Military Governors, though in many cases models long since discarded by Occidental armies as impracticable or even dangerous are used as patterns. Probably the majority are designed after one or another of the following: Maxim, Hotchkiss, "German Pack," "Rex" (made in Canton), and the Japanese air cooled gun. A considerable number of imported Japanese machine guns of more modern design are also in use. Nearly a year ago it was estimated that there were 1,394 machine guns in service in China, but since the facilities for the manufacture of these weapons in arsenals, which are virtually the private property of the Tuchuns, have increased materially, it is to be presumed that the number greatly exceeds this figure.

Field and mountain guns are extensively manufactured in China in all the larger arsenals and in many of the smaller ones. The most popular model is the Krupp 75 m.m., which can be turned out in appreciable quantity by the Shanghai, Hanyang, Honan and Canton arsenals. There are many guns of this model of German manufacture still in use; also Gruson 57 and 75 m.m., Arisaka 75 m.m., and Schneider-Creusot 75 m.m. field guns together with Hotchkiss 37 m.m. Coast artillery is practically all of Krupp manufacture, imported and set up from 30 to 35 years ago and is of all calibres ranging up to the 10-inch guns mounted below Foochow on the Min River. At many points on the Coast these weapons, though obsolete, are known to be in good condition and have adequate supplies of fresh ammunition.

The standard Chinese uniform is of cheap grey cotton material, quilted for warmth in winter. Some of the better kept units wear a khaki coloured woollen uniform of native manufacture, of which stuff officers' uniforms and overcoats are usually made. Leggings and boots are not yet standardized in any branch of the service.

With the exception of the Manchurian troops and of the now demobilized Fronticr Defence Force, both of which had complete Japanese accourtements, no standard can be said to have been reached in weapons, knapsacks, tents, cooking utensils, or other impedimenta in the Chinese army and, indeed, the average unit in the interior appears to be pathetically lacking in all of these things.

IDENTIFICATION.

The insignia of rank in the Chinese regular army and the marks of identification showing the branch of service and the particular unit to which a man or an officer belong follow closely those in use in the Japanese army. In field uniforms rank is indicated by the colour and the number of stars on the shoulder straps, by the colour of the band on the cap, by the number of stripes on the breeches, etc., A General of the first class, for instance, would have a plain gold band on his cap, gold gorget patches on the front of his collar, with crossed batons if he belonged to the General Staff, gold shoulder straps with three stars, and three stripes on his trousers.

Arms of the service are distinguished, in the uniforming of all officers and men below the rank of general, by the colour of the gorget patch on the front of the collar and sometimes by the colour of hat bands and other insignia, though not invariably. The distinctive colours are as follows:

Infantry		Red	Commissary	Deep Red
Cavalry		Yellow	Medical	Green
Artillery		Blue	Band	Tan
Engineers	*************	White	Military Police	Pink
Transport		Black	v	

The unit to which a man belongs is indicated on the collar patches by what appears to be a confusion of Roman, Chinese, and Arabic numerals. There are differences of practice in some parts of China, but in the Northern army, these markings are now standardized. The battalion number is marked on the left collar patch with metal Arabic numerals, the number of the regiment appears on the same patch in metal Roman numerals, while the soldier's individual number appears on the right collar patch in the small Chinese numerals known as ma tzu (碼子). To determine the Division to which an individual belongs it is essential to bear in mind the number of regiments or battalions of each branch of the service which go to make up a Division. The infantry brigades and regiments are numbered consecutively throughout the various divisions. Thus since there are four infantry regiments to a division, the first regiment of the 16th division would be designated the 61st regiment. Since, however, there is only one regiment to a division of cavalry, artillery, engineers, and transport, the regimental numbers following the divisional numbers. To make this clear a few examples are necessary.

Soldier 854 of the 2nd battalion, 1st infantry regiment, 1st division would have across his collar = 5 \(\)—II 1.

Soldier 765, of the 1st battalion, 78th infantry regiment, 20th division would be marked $\pm 1\%$ —I 78.

Soldier 765, of the 3rd battalion, 12th artillery regiment, 12th division,

would be marked ± 16 -III 12.

Soldier 654, of the 1st battalion, 4th engineers regiment, 4th division, would be marked ⊥ 1 ★ 1 4.

Soldier 456, of the 2nd battalion, 3rd transport regiment, 3rd division, would be marked 🗶 🖰 ⊥—II 3.

It is not customary to put any mark of rank or of other identification on military overcoats. A single red stripe down the side of the trousers indicates that the wearer is a company officer, two stripes that he is a regimental or battalion commander, and three stripes that he is a general officer. Commissioned officers wear gold cap-bands, while non-commissioned officers and men wear plain cloth bands. Rank is more definitely indicated by shoulder straps and the stars upon them, as follows:

	Rank.	1st Class (Generals).	SHOULDER STRAP. STARS.
1.	General	Army or Divisional Commander	Gold 3
2.	Lieutenant-General	Divisional Commander	,, 2
3.	Major-General	Brigade Commander	,, 1
		2nd Class (Field Officers).
1.	Colonel	Regiment Commander	2 Gold lines & 1 Silver 3
2.	Lieutenant-Colone!	Regiment—2nd in Com-	
		mand	,, 2
3.	Major	Battalion Commander	,,
		3RD CLASS (COMPANY OFFICE	RS).
1.	Captain	Company, troop or battery	
		Commander	2 silver lines & 1 gold 3
2.	Lieutenant	Section Commander	,,
3.	2nd Lieutenant	"	,,
		RANK AND FILE.	
Ser	geants	Commander of Squad of	
		12 men	Cloth with thin
			gold line 3 or 2
	rporals	Assistant ditto	same 2 or 1
Pr	ivate soldiers		plain cloth 3, 2 or 1

NUMERICAL STRENGTH.

At the close of the Revolution of 1911-12 it was estimated that there were 800,000 men under arms in China, of which number perhaps 500,000 were fairly well equipped. In 1919, Mr. Chu Chi-ch'ien, Northern Delegate to the Shanghai Peace Conference, compiled as complete a list of the organizations under arms throughout China as was then possible and estimated that there were 100 full divisions, or their equivalent numerically, which would be considerably over 1.000,000 men, maintained at a cost to the nation of \$180,000,000 a year. Estimates compiled by foreign authorities during the year 1920 average a total of approximately 1,300,000.

The following is a table in which are averaged the results of several independent estimates of the number of military organizations, of their equipment, and of the probable numerical strength of these units in the various

provinces, at the end of the year 1920:

ESTIMATED STRENGTH OF CHINESE ARMY.

Total	Strength	27,000	46,580	43,550	98,120	159,210	61,110	89,560	56,550	21,650	62,090	100,330	23,700	30,350	93,640	27,140	103,120	24,530	67,450	112,160	91,650	30,390		1,369,880
Strength	Other	8,500	23,400	16,200	40,600	41,470	21,600	48,000	9,920	099'6	22,140	4,300	23,700	23,600	61,600	10,000	4,950	6,250	5,860	3,600	1,580	6,400		393,330
Stre	Lu-chun	18,500	23,180	27,350	57,520	117,740	39,510	41,560	46.630	11,990	39,950	96,030	1	6,750	32,040	17,140	98,170	18,280	61,590	108,560	90.070	23,990		976,550
Machine	sunb	20	12	22	78	364	80	102	96	10	20	112	1	4	22	9	182	12	89	48	73	30		1,394
7	Ciuns	21	48	94	168	504	219	163	138	09	144	336	36	9	158	24	312	52	218	129	202	44		3,076
Transport	Companies.	1	4	9	16	37	8	6	11	1	12	25	1]	00	4	35	4	7	4	22	2		214
Engineering	Companies.	-	4	9	14	36	7	66	11	23	12	32	1	1	00	2	31	4	-	4	27	6		318
7	Squadron	-14	2	41	4-14	613	55	4	21	38%	2,	153	17	Ю	-	23	£19	7-1	18	46	10.	4		$380\frac{1}{2}$
;	Battalion	59	121	96	200	244 1/2	974	168	871	431	63	1604	63	06	261	99	137	52	1173	129.	141	62	,	2,4394
	Province	Anhui	Chekiang	Kiangsi	Kiangsu	Chihli	Frontier Territories	Fukien	Honan	Sinkiang & Outer-Mongolia.	Hunan	Hupeh	Kansu	Kwangsi	Kwanotung	Kweichow	Manchiria	Shansi	Shanting	Shonei	Szochusu	Vinnan	4	Total

The Chinese Government's official army lists, corrected up to April 1921, give only those organizations which are really or nominally under the control of the Peking Government and make no attempt to indicate the numerical strength, which, of course, varies widely. The following is a summary of the military units over which the Peking Government claims authority:

	Divisions		rigade		R	legim <mark>e</mark> r	its		attalio	
	Divisions	Mix.	Cav.	Inf.	Inf.	Čav.	Art.	Inf.	Cav.	Art.
National Army	26	27				1				
Fengtien	1	5						1		
Kirin	1	6						1		
Heilungkiang		4	2				1	1		
Shantung		6		$\frac{2}{2}$						
Honan	1			2						
Shansi		2			2	(Mixed	(f	2		
Suiyuan		1			4	,				
Kiangsu	1	7								
Anhui		5								
Kiangsi	_			1	1			1		
Fukien	$\frac{2}{2}$							-		
Chekiang	2	_	`	_				1		
Hupeh		1		1				1		
Hunan		1				(3.5)	1.			
Shensi		2			3	(Mixed	1)	4	4	
Sinkiang		_ 1			3	٠,		1	1	
Total	33	76	(in al	1)	15	(in al	1)	10	(in a	ll)
Estimated Numerical Strength	330,000	2	28,000)		12,000			1,300	

There are conspicuous omissions in this list of Northern organizations, not to mention the fact that no account is taken of Kansu, Szechuan, Kweichow, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, and Chihli provincial troops. Yet this list credits the Luchun, the National Army, with something less than 500,000, assuming that all the units are at full peace strength, which they are not, and the grand total of the estimates given at the foot of the official list, which is based upon experience with provincial forces rather than upon theory, gives only 571,300 for 15 out of 22 provinces. If one were to cut this estimate by 10 per cent it would not be too conservative. Foreign estimates, taken from the table which we have already given, for the districts omitted by the official lists would add 338,240 to the above estimates, giving a total of 909,540. This figure certainly would not represent the number of men under arms in China, but on the other hand it would be a liberal enumeration of those actually amenable to any sort of authority other than that of bandit chiefs and "independent" commanders.

PERSONNEL AND DISTRIBUTION.

Neither the Ministry of War nor the Office of the General Staff in Peking has made any provision for the dissemination of military information. There is no bureau or official to whom Military Attachés, Intelligence Officers or other students of Chinese military affairs are entitled

to go when in search of information. Matters, such as distribution of troops, which are freely published in Occidental countries and are accessible to all who are interested, are regarded as military secrets in the Chinese Ministry of War. All enquirers are therefore forced to create for themselves their own sources of information and to piece together fragments of news about the movements of Chinese military units; and the results are consequently incomplete and often inaccurate. In the lists which follow an attempt has been made to give a complete roll of the general officers and other commanders of independent units on active service in those organizations which are recognized by the Ministry of War as integral factors in the national army. This roll is accurate to April 1st, 1921. Distribution, which cannot be checked by any Chinese official publication, is based on reports from four independent sources and shows distribution by provinces on May 1st, 1921.

Changes in the personnel and in the number and position of units are frequent, but the following lists will serve as a basis from which students of Chinese military affairs may follow and check such movements of officers and units of the Northern army as may subsequently be made.

and units of the Northern army as may subsequently be made. Supreme Authorities. Commander in Chief President Hsu Shih-ch'ang 徐世昌 Minister of War General Ts'ai Ch'eng-hsun 藝成動 Chief of General Staff Marshal Chang Huai-chih 張懷芝 Chief of Aviation Bureau General Ting Chin 丁錦 Chief of Military Court Marshal Yin Hung-shou 般鴻壽 Inspector General of Chihli, Honan and Shantung Marshal Tsao K'un 曹 組 Assistant Inspector General of Chihli- Honan and Shantung Marshal Wu Pei-fu 吳佩孚 Inspector General of Manchurian Provinces Marshal Chang Tso-lin 張作霖 Inspector General of Hupeh and Hunan Marshal Wang Chan-yuan 王占元 Inspector General of Kwangtung and Kwangsi Marshal Lu Jung-t'ing 陸榮廷 Director of Military Affairs in the Chinese Eastern Railway Zone

PERSONNEL AND DISTRIBUTION OF CHINESE ARMY—DIVISIONS

Commanders Distribution Brigade Posts	Shen Kuang-chü Suiyuan 統 遠 Suiyuan 次 廣 聚 Hupeh 武 B Wuchang	Chihli and ※ 法国	楊 清 出 Honan Wang Ming-k'o Chekiang	Sun Tsung-hsien Shantung 半 异	Kung Pang.	Hupeh Liu Yü-ch'un Hupeh and	沙沙北印市京			安國 府 昌 市 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	劉 韋 有 and Chihli T'ien Hsien-chang Chahar	田 献章 and Chihli
Brigade Commanders	Shen Kuang-chü 沈 廣 聚 Chang Chun-feng	張後拳 n Yang Ch'ing-chen	Wang Ming-k'o	Sun Tsung-hsien A 供 先	Kung Pang-to 書 宮邦 鐸	Liu Yü-ch'un	王 奉	Jung Tao-yi	:	蕭 安 國 Liu Fu-yu		縣
Chief of Staff Brigai	Yang Yi-lai	Chang	高田 張 Shih-hsiu Hsia (連 こ 分 及 が 勝 Huang Teh-pen Hsu Hung-pin 書 億 木 谷 鴻 霜	h Lu Fer	rtung Wei M 克 様 線 線iih-hung Liu Ch	過	H. <u>ii</u>	Land Nan-Kung Kung-chen Chou Yin-jen	洪 版 周 II.ien	褚 恩 榮 田 友 望 Kuan Chung-ho	国
Division Commander	Ts'ai Ch'eng-hsun 蔡 成 劇			深 川 Cheng Shih-ch'i H	H. Hsieh-	Tu-ch'in	類	陸 錦 *Lu Yung-hsiang Li	点 永 祥 *Ch'en Kuang-yuan N	陳光 遠 Wang Hu'ai-ch'ing C'	王 懷 慶 Tsou Fen	響。
Division	1st	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	9th	10th	12th	13th	16th	

*Provincial Military Governor (Tuchun).

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Brigade Posts	Shihnan Ichang Chinkiang Kiangyin Chengtu Chengtu Hanchung Chengtu Changhsintien Rachang Machang Manchouli
Bri	施宜鎮江 成成漢成長長保保順順馬馬奉新新錦滿洸 辛辛 民立 州南昌江陰 都郡中都店店定定德德廢廠天府屯州甲南
Distribution	Hupeh Kiangsu Shensi Szechuan Shensi and Szechuan Chihli Chihli Chihli Fengtien Fengtien
Brigade Commanders	Sun Chi-fu Lai Hsin-huei 超 心 草 Sun Ch'ing-shan 然 谱 LL Su Shih-jung 縣 世 桑 Chien Chia-mo 陳 志 志 Chien Chia-mo 陳 志 志 Kuo Ving-chow 景 元 香
Brigade Co	Sung Ta-p'ei
Chief of Staff	Wang Ching-hsin
Division Commander	Sun Ch'uan-fang *Yang Ch'un-p'u *Yang Ch'un-p'u *Yang Ch'un-p'u T'en Hsiang-wen T'en Sung-yao H A A T'en Sung-yao H A A T'en Sung-yao H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A A H A Chin-ch'uan K A A K A B K
Division	18th 19th 20th 21st 22nd 24th 25th 27th 28th 29th

*Provincial Military Governor (Tuchun).

PERSONNEL AND DISTRIBUTION OF CHINESE ARMY MIXED BRIGADES.

Mixed Brigade	Commander	Chief of Staff	Province	Po	st
1st	P'an Hung-chun	Chang Wei-yù	Hunan	攸 縣	Yuhsien
2nd	潘鴻鈞 Liu Yueh-lung	張維豫 Ching Hung-en	Hupeh	漢 口	Hankow
3rd	劉 躍 龍 Chang Lin	金鴻思 Kuang Lin-shu	Kiangsi	南 昌	Nanchang
4th	張 林 Chang Hsi-yuan	關 麟 書 Ch'in Kuo-chên	Shensi		South Shensi
5th	張錫元 Chu Tse-huang	秦 國 珍 Hsieh Chih-han	Shensi	南路	Huajung
6th	朱澤 黃 Ho Feng-lin	謝之翰	Shanghai		
8th	何 豊 林 Chin Yun-ao	Wang Ch'iao	Honan	鄭縣	Chengchow
9th	斯 雲 鴞 Ch'en Kuang-kuei	王 喬 Liu Chih-yuan	Kiangsi	大原	Tayü
10th	陳光莲 T'ang Kuo-mo	劉之元 Su Nan	Fukien	泉州	Chuanchow
11th	唐 國 謨 Wang Ch'i 王 麒	蘇 南 Ch'en Chao 陳 釗	Fukien	福州	Foochow
12th	Wang Yung-chung	Liu Jun-sheng	Shansi		?
1 3th	王 用 中 Tung Cheng-kuo 董 政 國	Yang Chou-ch'ang	Hupeh	宜昌	Ichang
1 4th	P'eng Shou-hsin	Kuan Chi-wen	Fukien		?
15th	Sun Yueh	Hsu Yung-ch'ang	Shensi		?
1 6th	Feng Yü-hsiang	Liu Yü-fen	Shensi		
17th	馬 玉 祥 Chang Lien-sheng 張 聯 陞	Sung Lan-chih	Hupeh	即陽	Yunyang
18th	Chao Jung-hua 趙 榮 華	宋 蘭 芝 Ch'in Hsi-wu 秦 錫 五	Hupeh	襄陽	Siangyang
19th	Chang Huan-hsiang 張 煥 相	Hsing Shih-lien 那 士 廉	Kirin	哈爾洛	Harbin
20th	Wu Ch'ang-chih 吳長 植	Wang Yü-ching	Shantung	濟等	Tsining
21st	Sun Ch'uan-fang 孫 傳 芳	Ko Pao-shen	Hupeh	武昌	Wuchang
24th	Wang Yung-ch'uan 王 永 泉	Fu Cho-lin	Fukien	福火	Foochow
25th	在 水 派 Ch'u Ch'i-hsiang 褚 其 祥	傅 卓 森	Chahar	張家口	Kalgan

PROVINCIAL UNITS LISTED BY THE MINISTRY OF WAR.

District	Organization	• Commander	Chief of Staff
Јеноц	1st Mixed Brigade	Shu Ho-chun	Chiang Shang-yung
Снаная	Temporary 1st Mixed Brigade	舒和鈞 Ch'en Hsi-wu	蔣 尚 栋 Han Kuo-chen
	Cavalry Regiment	陳 錫 武 Yuan Tien-shun	韓國楨
FENGTIEN	Temporary 1st Division	袁 天 順 *Chang Ching-huei	- 1000 mm
	1st Mixed Brigade	張 景 思 K'an Chao-hsi	毛 遇 風 Chang Yung-ch'i
	2nd Mixed Brigade		張 湧 洪 Nieh Ch'ang-shan
	3rd Mixed Brigade	鄭 殿 陞 Chang Hsueh-liang	聶 長 善 一
	4th Mixed Brigade	張 學 良	Chang Yuan-tso
	5th Mixed Brigade	Ch'i En-ming	張元佐 Liu Ching-hsiang
	1 Battalion Constabulary	齊 恩 銘 Pai Keng-tu 白 唐 都	劉 景 祥
KIRIN	1st Mixed Brigade	Chang Chiu-ch'ing	Ting Ch'i-ch'ang 丁 其 昌
	2nd Mixed Brigade	張九卿 Hu Wen-tsao 胡文藻	1
	3rd Mixed Brigade	Ch'eng Ming 誠 明	Kuo Lin 郭 慶
	4th Mixed Brigade	Li Meng-keng 李 夢 庚	Tung Heng-ku'ei 董恒奎
	5th Mixed Brigade	Li Ch'ing-lu 李 慶 禄	Wu Pen-chih 吳 本 植
	6th Mixed Brigade	Kao Feng-ch'eng 高 鳳 城	
	1 Battalion Constabulary	Liu Chi-wu 劉 繼 武	
HEILUNG- KIANG	1st Mixed Brigade	Ying Shun 英 順	Shang Chih 尚 志
	2nd Mixed Brigade	Chang Ming-chiu 張 県 九	
	3rd Mixed Brigade	Pa Ying-o 巴 英 額	張連慶 Chang Lien-ch'ing
	4th Mixed Brigade	Chang Hai-p'eng 張 海 鵬	

^{*}Military Governor (Tut'ung).

PROVINCIAL UNITS LISTED BY THE MINISTRY OF WAR. (Continued).

District	Organization	Commander	Chief of Staff
HEILUNG- KIANG	1st Cavalry Brigade	Yuan Ch'ing-en	Pi Huei-ch'ing
	2nd Cavalry Brigade	袁 恩 慶 Chang Ku'ei-wu 張 奎 武	畢 曾 清 Ts'ui Hung-shou 崔 宏 壽
	Artillery Regiment	Chi Hsing	上 公 时
	1 Battalion Constabulary	Su Jun-fu	
SHANTUNG	47th Brigade	Shih Tsung-pin	Chang Shih-ch'uan 張 士 銓
	1st Mixed Brigade	Chang K'o-yao	700 正 驻
	2nd Mixed Brigade	張克瑤 Chang Huai-pin	
	3rd Mixed Brigade	張 懐 斌 Chang P'ei-jung	
	4th Mixed Brigade	張 培 榮 Chang Chien-kung 張 建 功	
	5th Mixed Brigade	Li Sen	
	6th Mixed Brigade	Ho Feng-yü	Chiang Ch'ou 江. 疇
	1st Reserve Brigade	阿鋒 鈺 Ch'en Pao-lung	
Honan	1st Infantry Brigade	陳寶龍 Yueh Hsien-yü 岳憲玉	
	2nd Infantry Brigade	告 志 玉 Ch'ai Teh-kuei 柴 得 貴	
	2nd Division	Pao Teh-ch'uan 寶 德 全	specialization
SHANSI	1st Mixed Brigade	Shang Chen 震	
	2nd Mixed Brigade	Ma K'ai-sung 馬 開 崧	
	1st Mixed Regiment	Li Min	
	2nd Mixed Regiment	Li Tse-lin	
	1st Infantry Battalion	Ts'ai Jung-shou	
	2nd Infantry Battalion	蔡 榮 壽 Wang Tsan-hsü 王 纘 緒	

PROVINCIAL UNITS LISTED BY THE MINISTRY OF WAR. (Continued).

District	Organization	Commander .	Chief of Staff
SUIYUAN	Mixed Brigade	Li Huan-chang	Liu Yü
	1st Mixed Regiment	李 煥 章 Wang Lin-ch'ing	劉鈺
	2nd Mixed Regiment	王 麟 慶 Ni Yin-fu	
	3rd Mixed Regiment	倪 蔭 福 Cheng Chin-sheng	-
	Temporary Cavalry Regiment	製金 聲 Ts'ai Yung-hsun	
Kiangsu	2nd Division	祭 用 勳 Chu Hsi	Su Kuo-tung
	1st Mixed Brigade	朱 Ma Yü-jen	蘇 國 棟 Chu Ku-p'eng
	2nd Mixed Brigade	馬 玉 仁 Huang Chen-k'uei	朱 古 朋 Nan Chung-wen
	3rd Mixed Brigade	黄 振 魁 Li Tien-ch'en	的 仲 文 Huang Tien-wen
	4th Mixed Brigade	李 殿 臣 Wu Heng-tsan	黄 典 文 Chang An-pang
	5th Mixed Brigade	吳 恒 瓚 Ch'en Tiao-yuan	張 安 邦 Chang Shu-fen
	74th Mixed Brigade	陳 調 元	張樹芬
	76th Mixed Brigade	Chang Jen-ku'ei	Ku T'ing-fan 顧 廷 藩
Ачниц	1st Mixed Brigade	張 仁 奎 Ma Lien-chia	Ch'u Hsin
	2nd Mixed Brigade	馬 聯 甲 Li Ch'uan-yeh	储 幸 Huang Lu-ch'u
	3rd Mixed Brigade	李 傳 業 Wang P'u	黄 臚 初 Hsu Yueh-yun
	4th Mixed Brigade	子 当 Ch'iu Ch'ang-chin	徐嶽雲
	5th Mixed Brigade	所 昌 錫 Shih Chun-yü	Lu Ch'i-k'un
Kiangsi	1st Infantry Regiment	史 俊 玉 Li Ting-ku'ei	路啓坤
	2nd Infantry Brigade	李 定 奎 Wang Hsien-t'ing	Yü Wei-hsi
Fukien	1st Temporary Division	王 獻 廷 Yao-Chien-p'ing	<u></u>
		姚建屏	

PROVINCIAL UNITS LISTED BY THE MINISTRY OF WAR. (Continued).

District	Organization	Commander	Chief of Staff
FUKIEN	2nd Temporary Division	Tsang Chih-p'ing	
(Cont.) Chekiang	1st Temporary Division	臧 致 平 P'an Kuo-kang	Liu T'i-ch'ien
	2nd Temporary Division	潘 國 綱 Chang Tsai-yang	劉 體 乾 P'an Ching
	1 Battalion Constabulary	張 載 陽 Pao Huan-keng	潘竟
Нирен	4th Mixed Brigade	包 焕 庚 Liu Tso-lung	Yang Pang-fan
	3rd Brigade	劉佐龍 Lu Chin-shan	楊 邦 藩 Huang Chia-k'ai
	1 Battalion Constabulary	盧金山 Chia Ch'i-hao	黄家楷
Hunan	1st Mixed Brigade	賈 起 鶴	
SHENSI	1st Mixed Brigade		
	2nd Mixed Brigade	Chang Chin-yin	Lü Ting-pang
	1st Mixed Regiment	張金印 Chang Hung-yuan	呂定邦
	3rd Mixed Regiment	張鴻遠 Wang Hung-en	
	4th Mixed Regiment	王鴻恩 Lo Yü-shan	
SINKIANG	Mixed Brigade	雅 玉 山 Chiang Sung-lin	Chiang Kuang-yū
	19th Cavalry Regiment	蔣 松 林 Feng Liang	蔣 光 裕
	18th Artillery Regiment	馬 楔	
	Mixed Regiment	Yang Teh-sheng 楊 得 勝	
	1st T'a-ch'eng Infantry Btn	Lo Chan-piao	
	1st T'a-ch'eng Cavalry Btn.	羅 占 標 Chu K o-kuei	
Класнта	Cavalry Regiment	Yü Wen-t'ai 于文泰	-
			-

METROPOLITAN DEFENCE.

Under the Manchu regime there were theoretically 10,000 men garrisoned inside the city of Peking under the control of the Pu Chun T'ung Ling Ya-men (步軍統領衙門), now the Gendarmerie headquarters. In theory there were 4,000 mounted men and 6,000 infantry, though the numbers usually fell far short of these figures.

In 1908 a full division of Imperial Guards (Chin Wei Chun 禁衛軍) was added to the defence force of the capital. The personnel was entirely Manchu and Mongol at first, but in 1910 Chinese were admitted to the ranks and after the Revolution, although the new Government was pledged to maintain the organization without change of personnel, the force gradually lest its character. What is left of the old organization is now incorporated in the 15th and 16th Divisions of the Lu Chun, and at present no obligation seems to devolve upon the Ministry of War to retain these troops in the vicinity of the Capital. A Brigade of the 16th Division was at one time taken to Nanking and this entire Division has now been transferred to the command of the Chahar Tut'ung, while the 15th Division was forced to participate in the civil war of the summer of 1920 and subsequently suffered nominal disbandment.

It is, however, the custom to maintain from two to five full Divisions in the vicinity of Peking and to this end large barracks are provided at Nanyuan (南龙) in the Hunting Park south of Peking, at Peiyuan (北苑), north of the Anting Men, and at Hsiyuan (西龙) near the Summer Palace.

No troops of the regular army are garrisoned in the city of Peking with the exception of a small bodyguard in the President's Palace, a few military police attached to the Ministry of War, and such personal retainers as resident Generals have about them. The interior policing and defence of the capital is still conducted along traditional lines and is under the general direction of the Gendarmerie Headquarters.

The Pu Chun T'ung Ling Ya-men, which means literally the Infantry Commander's Headquarters, has authority to control in emergency the administration of the civil police, the Pao An Tui (保安隊) an organization trained under foreign instructors, and entrusted with the protection of foreign residents, and has direct control over the Gendarmerie, a military organization recruited almost entirely among natives of the city of Peking, with uniforms and insignia slightly different from those of the regular army. This last force, which comprises five battalions, divided into right and left wings, is popularly known as the Yu Chi Tui (游擊隊), which is possibly best translated as "the flying column." In times of peace it concerns itself with patrolling the streets at night, guarding the city gates and policing the rural districts in the vicinity of the capital. In time of civil war the Gendarmerie close the gates, man the walls, and assume the responsibility of excluding the soldiery of all factions with the object of preventing street fighting and looting in the capital.

The Commander-in-Chief of the Gendarmerie has the title of Pu Chun T'ung Ling, with the rank of Marshal and is popularly known in Peking as the Chiu Men T'i Tu (九門提督) General of the Nine Gates. The present incumbent is Marshal Wang Huai-ch'ing (王懷慶), a native of Chihli.

THE ARMS EMBARGO.

In the Spring of 1919, after three years of futile warfare between the North and the South, a Peace Conference was convened in Shanghai with the object of re-uniting China. The Diplomatic Body in Peking was much interested in this convention and it was agreed among the representatives of the Allied Powers before the actual opening of the Shanghai Conference, that the importation and sale of munitions of war in China fostered feuds among the military leaders and rendered it impossible for public opinion, which was decidedly opposed to internecine warfare, to assert itself.

The suggestion that the Powers put an embargo upon the export of arms to China was first made by the American Minister, April 8th 1919. A month was required for the exchange of correspondence and the ratification of an agreement by the major Powers, and then the following note, embodying the substance of the agreement was forwarded by the Doyen

to the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs:

"The Diplomatic Body in considering the present state of disunion between the North and South in China, have been impressed by the fact that the continued possibility of importing military arms and ammunition into the country from abroad could not but exercise a disturbing influence, and as the friendly Powers here represented are firmly determined to discountenance any condition or action which might favour a reversion to hostilities, I am desired by my colleagues to make the following communication to the Chinese Government.

"The Governments of Great Britain, Spain, Portugal, the United States, Russia, Brazil, France, and Japan, have agreed effectively to restrain their subjects and citizens from exporting to or importing into China arms and munitions of war and material destined exclusively for their manufacture until the establishment of a Government whose authority is recognized throughout the whole country and also to prohibit during the above period the delivery of arms and munitions for which contracts have already been made but not executed.

"The representatives of the Netherlands, Denmark, Belgium and Italy are also in full accord with the above policy, but await the instructions of their respective Governments before announcing the adhe-

sion of the latter."

The Diplomatic Body followed this announcement with an appeal to the Chinese Government to prohibit import, which was never effectually done. The agreement was finally endorsed without reservations by the Netherlands, Denmark and Belgium, and by Italy with the reservation that shipments already contracted for and *en route* might be delivered.

The final text of the Arms Embargo Agreement, which is essentially the same as the above despatch, is dated May 5th, 1919, and is still in force. The Powers concerned have charged one another from time to time with violations or evasions of the agreement, but such as have been proved have been more frequently violations of the spirit than of the text of the contract, and on the whole the Embargo has effectively served to limit the supplies of the warring militarists to a minimum and has promoted indirectly the cause of peace in China.

THE WAR PARTICIPATION BUREAU. 參戰督辦處

Following closely upon China's declaration of war upon the Central Powers in August 1917, a War Participation Bureau was established in Peking with the ostensible object of training Chinese soldiery for warfare in Europe. For the purchase of military supplies Yen 14,000,000 were borrowed from the Tai-hei Kumei Syndicate in January, 1918, but no definite plans for participation in the war were evolved until March 25th, 1918, when an exchange of notes between the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Chinese Minister in Tokio diverted the attention of the Chinese military from Europe to Siberia. The so-called Sino-Japanese Military Pact was signed in Peking, May 16th, 1918, and pledged China to military co-operation with Japan in Northern Manchuria and eastern Siberia. Subsequently, what is known as the Secret Arms Agreement, providing for the purchase of huge supplies of rifles, machine guns, mountain guns, field guns, ammunition, etc., was signed and then subsidized by a loan of Yen 20,000,000 advanced November 28th, 1918.

Through these various agreements the War Participation Bureau, under the direction of Marshal Tuan Chi-jui (民族院), came more or less under Japanese influence and the War Participation Army was financed, equipped and trained by the Japanese This force consisted of three full Divisions and two Mixed Brigades. Japanese advisers were attached to the Bureau and Japanese military instructors to the various units of this special force.

After the announcement of the Armistice of November 11th, 1918, a general clamour arose in China for the abolition of the Bureau and the incorporation of the new army in the national army. The Bureau, however, was rechristened the National Defence Bureau and the Army became the National Defence Army. In the Spring of 1919, when it became apparent that China would not require the new army for participation in Siberia, and when popular sentiment was aroused against the Military Agreement, the continued existence of the Bureau and of the Army, General Hsu Shutseng created a diversion by transferring a portion of this force to Urga, in Mongolia, by forcing the Mongols to cancel their autonomy and acknowledge the direct authority of Peking, and by announcing a comprehensive scheme for Mongolian development. The Bureau thereupon became the Northwestern Frontier Defence Bureau and the Army the Northwestern Frontier Defence Army.

Under these various designations both the Bureau and the Army continued to exist, in spite of strong popular protests until July 1920, when the new army was defeated and disbanded upon the initiative of General Wu Pei-fu, and the Bureau was abolished by Presidential Mandate. A remnant of the Frontier Defeace Force remained in Urga until Feburary 2nd, 1921, when it was virtually obliterated by a mixed force of Russians and Mongols under the Russian reactionary leader Baron Ungern.

The Sino-Japanese Military Agreement was cancelled by mutual consent January 28th, 1921.

THE CHIANGCHUN FU.

The Chiangchun Fu (跨軍所) or College of Marshals, is nominally a council of high military officials, upon whom the rank of Marshal has been bestowed, whose duty it is to act in an advisory capacity to the Government. This organ was modelled after the Japanese Genro, or council of elder statesmen, but at present it constitutes little more than a roll of honour, since the members never meet and never unite to direct the Government's policy, upon which roll are inscribed the names of high military officials who have been removed from their posts by some turn of the political wheel and whom the Government wishes to retire gracefully. Nominally a generous stipend goes with this honour, but officers

on active service never draw it. According to a list published at the end of March, 1921, there are 68 names on the roll, including those of a number of persons who are in active rebellion against the Government.

The present chief of this council is Marshal Chiang Kuei-t'i (姜桂題), Tut'ung of Jehol.

ARSENALS (兵工廠).

There is no subject connected with military affairs upon which it is more difficult to write with finality than Chinese arsenals. The Government lists now show four only operating under the control of Peking. These are: The Hanyang Arsenal (漢陽兵工廠), the Branch Hanyang Arsenal. the Nanyang Arsenal, Shanghai, (南陽兵工廠), and the Tehchow Arsenal in Shantung. In almost every provincial capital there are arsenals equipped to manufacture in small quantities revolvers, rifles, machine guns, mountain guns and light field guns, not to mention swords and bayonets. One reliable authority on Szechuan reports that there are 134 so-called arsenals in that province, the term being made to include repair shops which are little better than blacksmith's shops. The reason for the dearth of information upon the manufacture of weapons in China is that in almost every instance the local arsenals have become the personal property of the local Military Governor, or even of the local regimental commander, and it is the particular business of these functionaries to guard information upon the capacity and condition of the plants as their own military secrets.

Before the general disorganization of the army it was known that there were fairly good plants at Foochow, Changsha, Canton, Nanking, Yunnanfu, Kunghsien (Honan) and in other large centres. It is almost impossible now to learn what these various plants are doing. The Canton arsenal was partially destroyed in 1920 when General Mo Jung-hsin was evicted, but it is understood that the old arsenal is again in order and that a new and much more efficient plant is being erected. During Ch'en Chiung-ming's campaign in Kwangtung he erected a fully equipped small arms arsenal on his own initiative at Swabue and, when finished with it, dismantled it. Under such conditions it may be understood how impossible it is to give exact information upon the manufacture of munitions of war

in China

AVIATION.*

Military aviation under the direct control of the Central Government is nominally non-existent, by virtue of a Presidential Mandate of February 9th, 1921, establishing a special Aeronautical Department under the direct control of the Cabinet, which served to abolish the two Bureaux formerly under the control of the Ministry of War and the Ministry of Communica-The text of the essential clauses of this mandate tions respectively. fellows :

Regulations for the organization of the Hang Kung Shu (航容署)

Aeronautical Department.

1. The Hang Kung Shu shall be under the direct control of the Cabinet, shall control the entire national air service and shall supervise all its subsidiary organs.

^{*}See also pp. 507-9

- 2. The Hang Kung Shu shall have the following officers:
 - 1 Tu Pan (督辦), Directo: General of the Air Service.
 - 1 Shu Chang (署長), Director of the Department.
 - 2 Tsan Shih (参事), Counsellors.
 - 4 T'ing Chang (廳長), Chiefs of Bureaux.
 - 2 Mi Shu (秘書), Secretaries.
 - 10 K'o Chang (科長), Chiefs of Sections.
 - 4 Chi Cheng (技正), Technical Experts.
 - 24 Chu Shih (主事), Administrative Officers.
 - 12 Chi Shih (技士), Technical Officers.
- 3. For the purpose of facilitating business the Hang Kung Shu may appoint additional officers.
- 7. The officers of the Hang Kung Shu may be appointed from among officers of the Army and Navy of corresponding rank.

Military aeronautics commenced in China with the opening of a school at Nanyuan in 1913, the employment of French instructors and the purchase of a fleet of machines of the Caudron type. For the establishment of a school and the purchase of equipment \$300,000 was supplied by Vice-Iresident Li Yuan-hung, then acting as Chief of Staff to President Yuan-Shih-kai. It was planned to open similar schools in several of the provincial capitals, but subsequent civil war interfered with any further development of aeronautics.

During the last few years interest has been revived. The Ministry of Communications planned to establish a commercial air service in China and purchased or contracted for a number of planes of various types. Although the understanding was that none of these machines was to be used for military purposes, the planes were no sooner acquired than an Aviation Bureau was established under the Ministry of War which at once once took a keen interest in the flying school and the equipment at Nanyuan.

During the fighting in the vicinity of Peking in the summer of 1920 all the machines for which pilots could be found were used for military purposes, and after the fighting nearly the entire equipment was carried off by the Tuchuns of Fengtien and Chihli to Mukden and Paotingfu respectively. Two Handley Page machines and two chasers of the S.E.5 type, originally ordered by the Tuchun of Honan, but seized by the Peking Government, were taken to Mukden; and two Handley Page machines were taken to Paotingfu. The Tuchuns, it may be added made no pretence of using these planes for pacific purposes.

The new school, opened under the direction of the newly established bureau, which has no military character, but is largely under the direction of military officers will eventually be equipped with about 65 Avro machines, about 40 Vickers-Vimy Commercial planes, and approximately the same number of Vimy training machines. The school, which originally enrolled eighty students, while not regarded as a military institution is at least regarded as a military asset and is given a military character by the presence in the directorship of the former director of the Ministry of War's aviation bureau.

PAY.

The following is the scale of pay per month in the Luchun:-

	Pay	Allowances
	Tls	Tls
Commander of an Army Corps	600	1,000
Commander of a Division	400	600
Commander of a Brigade	250	250
Commander of a Regiment	200	200
Commander of a Battalion	100	140
Commander of a Company	60	20
A.D.C. to Divisional Commander	100	100
A.B.C. to Brigade Commander	80	80
Quartermaster Sergeant	30	
Ordnance Sergeant	30	
Signalling Sergeant	16	
Corporal	5.1	
Lance-Corporal	4.8	
First Class Private	4.5	
Second Class Private	4.2	

From Tl. 1 to Tls 1.50 is deducted from the pay of Privates and Non-Commissioned Officers, for fcod.

DISBANDMENT.

Chinese of all classes concede that the expense of maintaining the present Chinese army, meaning by this all men under arms, is out of all proportion to the national revenues; and also that the existing army is so unwieldly and so decentralized that it is impossible to equip it properly, even according to Chinese standards, or to train it to efficiency. The question of disbandment has therefore been a vital one for many years and has inspired many elaborate schemes, all of which have workable features and seem practicable until they encounter the one great obstacle—the consistent opposition of the Military Governors.

Immediately after the Revolution it was determined that 36 full divisions would not suffice for China's needs, but that 50 divisions would constitute an ample peace time army for some decades to come and it was agreed that the troops under arms should be reduced to half a million. From the proceeds of the Reorganization Loan of 1913, \$30,000,000 was set apart for the disbandment of 300,000 men, but new civil wars entailed the recruiting of new forces, both in the North and the South, and the numbers grew rather than diminished Mr. Chu Chi-chien, in his plan for military reorganization submitted to the Shanghai peace conference in the early months of 1919 pointed out the immediate need of getting rid of 500,000 men as soon as internal peace was established, and estimated that within eighteen months half a million men could be paid their arrears, compensated by a bonus of three months pay, provided with useful work, and disbanded at a total cost of \$215,500,000.

This plan was dependent upon three conditions for its success: That internal peace should be established in China, that a foreign loan to cover the cost of disbandment should be negotiated, and that all military commanders and political groups should agree to a proportionate reduction and carry out the terms of the agreement in good faith. Foreign opinion at that time rather favoured the advance of a loan for this purpose, but the first condition was not fulfilled and in subsequent years the difficulty of achieving the third condition has become more and more apparent as more thought has been given to the problem of effective supervision of disbandment, without which neither Chinese nor Occidentals would be satisfied that

any material reduction in the number of troops was being made. The cpinion is now generally held by the best authorities that disbandment cannot be financed, but may possibly be achieved by the withholding of funds

and arms from the military leaders.

General Wu Pei-fu has publicly expressed the opinion that China cannot afford to maintain an army of more than 200,000, not because public funds are inadequate to feed, clothe and pay a larger number but because China cannot afford to equip and train a larger force to efficiency. The argument is that a small efficient army is a national asset, while a large underpaid, under-equipped, under-trained and under-disciplined army, such as the present force, is a national incubus. These ideas have lately found their strongest advocates in the Peking Government, but this organ is not only powerless to impose its will upon the military men in the provinces which refuse to acknowledge its authority, but is also helpless in the face of opposition from the Military Governors of the northern provinces who insist upon the maintenance and even the increase of their armies to enhance their political prestige.

TERMS.

The following military terms may be found useful by the student of Chinese military affairs:

Citilioso military amans.		
Minister of War	陸軍部	Lu Chun Pu
General Staff Headquarters	參謀本部	Tsan Mo Pen Pu
College of Marshals	將軍府	Chiangehun Fu
War College	陸軍大學	Lu Chun Ta Hsuch
Aviation Department	航空署	Hang Kung Shu
Ministry of War	陸軍總長	Lu Chun Tsung Chang
Chief of General Staff		Tsan Mo Tsung Chang
Marshal	參謀總長	Chiangehun Chiangehun
General	將軍	
Commander in Chief	上將	Shang Chiang
Chief of Staff	總司令	Tsung Seu-ling
Staff Officer	參謀長	Tsan Mo Chang
	參謀官	Tsan Mo Kuan
Aide	副官	Fu Kuan
Infantry	步兵	Pu Ping
Cavalry	騎兵	Ch'i Ping
Artillery	礮兵	P'ao Ping
Soldiery (in general)	軍隊	Chun Tui
Military Governor	都軍	Tu Chun
Governor Frontier Area	都統	Tu T'ung
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In the following list the terms for the various units of a division are given, together with the ranks and titles of the officers commanding them. It is in nearly all cases sufficiently good form in addressing an officer to take the term for the unit which he commands and add to it the character "chang." These combinations, constituting forms of address or titles are given in the following list, where it is possible to use them after the characters for the officer's rank.

Organiza- Chinese tion Name

Name Commander

English Equivalent.

Division BBShih

中將 Chung Chiang, or Lieut. General, or Brig-少將 Shao Chiang adier General.

Luchun (telefet)

		師長	Shih Chang	
Brigade	旋Lü	少將	Shao Chiang	Brigadier General
	,,,,	旅長	Lü Chang	o a
Regiment	專 T'uan	上校	Shang Hsiao	Colonel
		團長	T'uan Chang	
Battalion	營Ying	少校	Shao Hsiao ·	Major
		營長	Ying Chang	
Company	連Lien	上尉	Shang Wei	Captain
		連長	Lien Chang	
Section	排P'ai	中尉	Chung Wei, or	1st Lieutenant
		少校	Shao Wei	
		排長	P'ai Chang	2nd Lieutenant
Squad	拥P'eng	軍士	Chun Shih	
	נעעי (上堂兵	Shang Teng Ping	N.C.O.
Privates		一堂兵	Shang Teng Ping Erh Teng Ping	
(3 grades)		San Teng Ping	

Provincial armies are frequently identified by Chinese, both in speaking and writing by the classical name of the province. Thus the various units of the Kwangtung army would be spoken of comprehensively as the Yueh Chun (與軍); those of Hunan as the Hsiang Chun (沖軍); those of Fukien as the Min Chun (間重), etc

Since the army is growing away from, rather than approaching standardization, the student of Chinese military affairs, travelling in China, will constantly encounter armed men who will describe themselves as factors in organizations which have no place on the official records. It is impossible to give an exhaustive list of all the possible military or semi-military forces which may be found in China. since such special organizations as Pacification Armies, like the Ting Wu Chun (定武軍) or the An Wu Chun (定武軍), are constantly appearing and disappearing. Bandit forces or revolutionary forces may assume such names as the Tu Li Tui (獨立隊), Independence Army. The following are, however, some of the commoner terms for various types of military organizations under which the man with a gun may classify himself:

Regular Army

Luchun (陸重)	Regular Army
Hsunfang Chun (巡防軍)	Provincial Army
Lü Ying (緑馨)	Old style provincial Army
Wei Tui (衛隊), or Wei Chun (衛	重) Guards
Ching Pei Tui (警備隊)	
Shou Pei Tui (守備隊)	Constabulary of one kind or other
Hsien Ping (憲長))
Yu Chi Tui (遊擊隊)	Emergency Troops
Chi Ssü Tui (緝私隊)	Sait Gabelle Troops
Shui Shang Ching Ch'a (水上警察	Water Police
Hsun Ching (巡警)	Police
Chan Pien Chun (暫編軍	Temporary Force
Pu Ch'ung (補充旅	Reserves
	1 1 0 1 1 10 1 11 1

Old style provincial troops will also be found classifying themselves according to 'roads' (lu 路), North, South, Right and Left, the Right being East and the left being West.

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		I Inited States	Reloians	British	French	Italians	Tapanese	Netherlands Russian		Total
Peking:	Officers:	I4	1	œ	4	-				44
	Enlisted men:	270 ‡	19	2008	105 ++	30	273	76	_	500
	Machine Guns: Artillery:	12 6-3"	2-12 pdr.	20	2-37 mm			2-87 mm		12
Tientsin:	Officers : Enlisted men: Machine Guns :	38 910 		24 707 + 4 Lewis	20 945* 14		40 666 12			122 3228 46
Chinusanata	Artillery:			1			(9)			7
	Enlisted men: Machine Guns. Artillery:			19	888		officers			57
Shanhaikuan: Officers: Enlisted men : Machine Guns: Artillery	Officers: Enlisted men: Machine Guns: Artillery			30	1 91		123 enlisted men together)			244
Shanghai:	Officers: Enlisted men: Machine Guns: Artillery:		9							
Tongshan:	Officers: Enlisted men: Machine Guns: Artillery:	142								142
Leichwang: Target Runge	Officers; Enlisted men: Machine Guns; Artillery:	142								143
tai:	Officers: Enlisted men:			40						40
Laofa:	Officers: Enlisted men:			20						20
Weihaiwei:	Officers: Enlisted men: Machine Guns: Artillery:			60 1.30 and 2 Lewis				i		3 3
Yangtsun:	Officers: Enlisted men:						1 30			30
: 1	Officers: Enlisted men: Artillery:			8-4	35 4-80 mm Mt. & 2-80 mm Fld		ō.			40
Total:	Officers: Enlisted men: Machine Guns: Artillery:	60 1464 28 6-3''	2 59 10 2-12pdr	38 1066 27 2-87 mm 6-80 mm	25 1214 18	35	6.1 1097 1.2	76 4 2 37 mm	7 7	189 4953 99
Marines +* 15th U S.	. Infantry	∞-+-*	Wiltshire Re Chiefly Indi	egiment an: 55th (Coke's	\$ Wiltshire Regiment + Chiefly Indian; 55th (Coke's) Rifles, Frontier Force * (Niefly Annances Tiraillance		++	++ Colonial Infantry	try.	

\$ Wiltshire Regiment + Coke's) Rifles, Frontier Force + Chiefly Indian: 55th (Coke's) Rifles, Frontier Force * Chiefly Annamese Tirailleurs
Note: The above figures can only be regarded as approximate

FOREIGN GARRISONS IN CHINA.

A table showing distribution of foreign troops in North China will be found on the previous page.

Japanese forces are also maintained in Manchuria and Shantung, while

a small garrison has been kept in Hankow in recent years.

One full division is usually maintained in Manchuria, headquarters being established as follows (April 1, 1921):

Division Headquarters.

Brigade Headquarters.

Infantry Headquarters (Reg.)

Brigade Headquarters (Reg.)

Infantry Headquarters

Brigade Headquarters

Infantry Headquarters

Infantry Headquarters (Reg.)

Cavalry Headquarters (Reg.) Kungchuling (near Changchun)

Artillery Headquarters (Reg.) Haicheng.

In Shantung 4 battalious, of an average numerical strength of 525 men, are stationed along the Tsingtao-Tsinan Railway, headquarters being at Tsingtao, Kaomi, Fangtze and Tsinanfu. There is also a force of gendarmeric

In Hankow one battalion is usually maintained, together with detachments of special troops

THE CHINESE NAVY.

China to-day has a coast line of roughly 2,800 miles and about 41,000 tons of very obsolete Naval Ships to defend the same with a personnel of 8,500 officers and men.

Compare this naval force to the Chinese Army of nearly 1,500,000 men, which is the largest standing army in the world to-day with the probable

exception of the Russian army.

The maritime provinces of China and especially Shantung and Fukien are populated on the sea coast by a robust and healthy people with an

excellent knowledge of all that pertains to the sea.

The Occidental sailor has nothing but admiration for the excellent sailor-like fashion in which the Chinese handles all his various craft from the large Ningpo junks of about 90 tons down to the smallest "yulohed" sampan.

The modern Chinese Navy owes its inception to the farsightedness of the old Imperial Statesman Li Hung-chang and its down-fall to the whims of the old Empress Dowager who spent 21 million taels, allocated for naval ship construction, in the building of the Summer Palace outside of Peking.

The map of Asia suffered a change when in 1894 China was defeated

by Japan due to an inferior Navy.

The behaviour of the personnel of the Chinese Navy during the Sino-Japanese war was one of which any nation might well be proud. It is too well-known to comment on here.

In 1898, four years after the calamitous Sino-Japanese War, China purchased four of the best ships from abroad—the Hai class of cruisers: the Hai-chi (海圻), the Hai-shen (海琛), the Hai-chew (海籌) and the Hai-yung (海容) and these to-day constitute the largest ships of the Chinese Navy.

From then on various purchases of ships were made from abroad terminating with the purchase of two training ships from Great Britain in

1911.

For the past six years the Chinese Navy has been existing on practically nothing and the officers and men deserve great credit for having kept their ships in the smart condition they are in to-day.

It should be remembered that a Chinese Naval ship exemplifies the essence of cleanliness and is in direct contrast in this respect to any Chin-

ese Army Unit.

List of ships of the Chinese Navy will be found on pp. 542-545.

LIST OF CHINESE NAVAL OFFICERS.

Rank.	Number of Officers in Active Service.
Admirals	2
Vice Admirals	10
Officers whose offices rank with that of	
Vice Admirals	4
Rear Admirals	29
Officers whose offices rank with that of	
Rear Admirals	5
Captains	60
Officers whose offices rank with that of	
Captains	24
Commanders	67
Officers whose offices rank with that of	
Commanders	21
Lieutenant Commanders	92
Officers whose offices rank with that of	
Lieutenant Commanders	64
Lieutenants	199
Officers whose offices rank with that of	
Lieutenants	150
Lieutenant Junior Grade	97
Officers whose offices rank with that of	
Lieutenant Junior Grade	103
Ensigns	43
Officers whose offices rank with that of	
Ensigns	51
Tot	al1,021

LIST OF CHINESE PETTY OFFICERS AND SEAMEN IN ACTIVE SERVICE.

Petty officers Seamen Engineering seamen Apprentice seamen Signalling seamen Buglers Seamen third class	133 36 428
Seamen third class Students under torpedo training Naval corps in service on land	428 20 1,334

TABLE SHOWING NUMBER OF CHINESE NAVAL STUDENTS.

Graduates:	
From Nanking Naval College for Torpedo, Arms	
and Gun Training	66
From Squadron:	00
1	-7
on Navigation	53
on Engines	31
on Wireless	77
Undergraduates:	
Chefoo Naval College	90
Woosung Naval College	18
Nanking Naval College for Torpedo, Arms and	
Gun Training	115
Foochow Naval College	107
Foochow Naval Architect College	48
Foodow Submaning College	100
Foochow Submarine College	7
Nanyuan Aerial College	7
C. 7 . 7 . 1	
Students abroad:	
In England	8
In America	13
In Japan	4
In France	2
-	
Total	739
_	

CHINESE NAVAL RANKS.

(read characters and translation from right to left)

Admiral	將上軍海 Hai Chun Shang Chiang General top army Sea
Vice Admiral	將中軍海 Hai Chun Chung Chiang General middle army sea
Rear Admiral	將少軍海 Hai Chun Shao Chiang General young army sea.
Captain	校上軍海 Hai Chun Shang Yao Captain top army sea.
Commander	校中軍海 Hai Chun Chung Yao Captain middle army sea
Lt. Commander	校 少 軍 海 Hai Chun Shao Yao Captain young army sea
Lieutenant	尉上軍海 Hai Chun Shang Wei Lieutenant top army sea
Sub-Lieutenant	尉中軍海 Hai Chun Chung Wei Lieutenant middle army sea
Midshipman	尉少軍海 Hai Chun Shao Wei Lieutenant young army sea

METHOD OF PROMOTION.

The Chinese Navy Regulations require that all officers shall have the service as outlined by the following table:

Promotion is by seniority.	
	required in grade
Midshipman	2 years
Sub-Lieutenant	2 years
Lieutenant	2 years
Lieutenant Commander	4½ years
Commander	3 years
Captain	3 years
Commodore	4½ years
Rear Admiral	3 years

As a matter of fact promotion in the Chinese Navy is by selection in all grades and the selection is made by the Minister of the Navy; this practice has resulted in great discontent and inefficiency in the commissioned personnel rank of the Chinese Navy.

SHIPS NOT ORGANIZED (BELONGING TO VARIOUS PROVINCES)

GUNBOATS-	Kwangyu	600	tons.	12.5	nots.
,,	Kwangking	600	,,	12.5	-,,
,,	Chentau	450	,,	7	,,
,,	Kwangkeng	560	,,	11	,,,
,,	Kwangwoo	560	,,	10.5	,,
,,	Kwangchi	560	,,	10.5	,,
,,	An-nan	350	,,	7	33
,,	Haichangchin	800	,,	10.4	,,
; ,	Haiching	350	,,	6.5	,,
,,	Kwangyuan	300	,,	7	,,
,,	Kwanghen	300	,,	7	,,
,,	Kwangli	300	33	7	,,
,,	Kwangchen	300	22	7	,,
,,	Kwangching	300	3.9	7	,,
,,	Kwangpi	300	,,	7	,,
,,	Fupoa	1200	,,	8	,,
,,	Shinghung	1200	,,	8	,,
,,	Chew-woo	1500	,,	10	,,
,,	Chuchai	1200	,,	13	"
,,			"		"
TORPEDO BOATS-	-Lung	50	,,	18	,,
,, ,,	Fuh	50	,,	18	,,
,, ,,	Chieng	26	,,	11	,,
,, ,,	Kung	26	,,	11	,,
,, ,,	Twee	26	,,	11	,,
,, ,,	Lee	26	,,	11	,,
1, ,,	Chung	26	,,	11	,,
•, ,,	Kong	26	,,	11	,,
,,	Kwong	26	,,	11	,,
,,	Tsung	26	99	11	,,
,, ,,,	Tsen	26	,,	11	,,
,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,			,,		,,
Transports-	Feitseh	700	,,	11	,,

THE CHINESE

				-			311	-
Тург.	Name.	Length in feet.	Beam in feet.	Explacement Tons.	Draught in feet,	Н. Р.	Where Built.	Pate of Luanch.
THE FIRST SQU	ADRON—							
2nd class stee protected Cruise	$\left\{ H_{aichi}^{*}\right\} H_{aichi}^{*}$	424	46.8	4,300	20	17,000	Armstrong	1838
3rd class stee protected Cruise	Haichew \ Haiyung \ Haishen*	314	40.8	2,950	19	7,500	Vulcan, }	1898
Transport	Chinan	258	40	1,015	14	1,600	Germany	1907
Gunboats	Yungchien Yungchi	205	29.6	860	1 0	1,350	{Kiangnan }	1915
Torpedo	; Feiying*	1159.2	28.6	830	13.6	5,500	Vulcan, Settin (Mitsu)	1895
Gunioat	. Yungfung*	205	29.5	780	8	1,350	Bishi,	1012
, ,,	Lienchin	150	24	500	9.5	900	Kiang- nan Arsenal	1910
67	. Yunghsiang	105	29.5	780	8	1,250	Kawa- saki, Japan.	1912
,,	. Woofeng*	124	20	200	F	300	Tsingtao	1911
Transport	. Fuan	210	24	720	9.5	800	Elswick	1895
Coast Defence G	iunboat Haiou	105	17	166	7	230	(Klange)	
"	" Haifu	105	17	166	7	220	Arsena !	1227
"	" I laiko	112	18	190	6.11	300	Foochow	1918
THE SECOND SQ	UADRON —					2		
Sieel Gunboats	Chienvici ! Chienan)	253	20,5	850	12	6,500	Foothew	1004
Chuc	ung, Chuyu,*) bien, Chutai, bu, Chukuan,)	200	9.6	780	S	1,550	Japan	1907
31661	ngyuan. Chi.) eng, Chiangli,) igchen.	180	28	550	7	520	Tapan	1903
W. 3.7		1						

^{*} Now at Canton.

NAVY.

	77 17 1 7	L.		<u> </u>			• "
Protection	Coul capacity in tons.	Speed, Knots.	Complement.	GUNS.	Torpedo Tubes.	Engines.	Boilers.
Arm'r) Deck 2.5 ins.	990	24.5	436	2.8in. B L, 10.4.7 B L, 12.3 pdrs., 4.1 pdr. maxims., 6.7 mm. Q.fguns.	5 above water	Triple expan- sion.	1 steel marine boilers.
Arm. (Deck)	580	19.5	299	(3.15 cm., 8.10.5 cm., 2.6 pdrs., 4.1 pdrs., 3.8 mm. maxims.	below water	Triple ex- pansion	4 steel marine boilers.
	160	.10	111	1.6 pdr. machine gun.	nil. {	1 c'mp'd. vertical.	1 single ended cyl. mar
tiil.	150	13.5	105	{ 1.4 in., 1.12 pdr., } 4.3 pdr., 2.1 pdr. }	nil	"	2 water-
Pro. A. Dk.	170	22	-	{2.10 cm., 6.47 mm., }	above water	Quad- ruple expansion	8 water, tube hollers,
(I III.)	150	13.5	109	{ 1.10 cm., 1.7.5 cm., } 4.8 pdrs., 2.1 pdrs. }	- 1	Twin-sc 8 cylinder.	2 cylin-
nil	95	"	66	4-6-pdrs.	nil.	ex.	Cyline'al multi- tubular.
- Tanana	150	13.5	105	1.10 cm., 1.7.5 cm., 4.3 pdrs., 2 1.pdrs.	- {	Twin-sc. ? cylinder (Triple	2 cylin- drical Cyl. mul-
	20	13.5	"	2.6.5 mm.		ex-	titubular 2 water tube
ni!.	100	12	105		tiil.	2 c'mp'd. horizonta	1 water.
_	35	10.5	22	37 mm. Q. F., 2. maxims.	- {	one compound.	//
dente.	20	10.5	22	2.3,7 cm. Q F. 2 maxims	- desired	2 vertical expan'n	
					į		
nif.	180	18	139	1.10 cm., 3.6.5 cm., 6 }	will.	le c'mp'd horizonta	d w.·tube.
(Pro:) \ \ Dk. \ \ 1 in, \	150	13	97	2 6.5 mm , 2.75 mm. }	nil. {	Trip. exp vert. type	2 Yarrow wat. ubes
nil.	113		97	1.12 cm , 1.7.5 cm., 1 4.1.7 cm., 1.0 mm	nil. {	Trip. exp. vert. type.	2 Yarrow wat, lubes
]						

							711111111111111111111111111111111111111	
Type.	Name,	Length in feet.	Beam in feet, se	Displacement Ens.	Draught in feet.	H. P.	Where Built.	Date of Launch.
THE SECOND S	QUADRON contá.							
Destroyers	Kienkong Yüchang* Tungan*	198	21.3	390	5.7	6,000	Schichau ; Grany	1913
Gunboat	Chianghsi	146	24	140	3	450	Krupp.	1912
***************************************	Chiangkun	"	"	"	"	500	{ Vulcan, } Stettin. }	1912
River Gunboats	(Chienchung) Yungan Kungchen	110	18.5	90	2	450	Yangtze Dockyard near Hankow,	1913
Torpedo Boats.	(Hupeng, Hungo, Huchung & (Huying.	135	15.6	96	7.5	1,200	Kawa saki Docky'd, Japan.	1906.7
<i>" "</i>	Chen & Su	144	17	90	7	700	{ Vulcan, } Stettin. }	1895
" "	Lieh & Chang	130	15	62	7	6 00	Schichau { Elbing. }	1895
,, ,,	Kanchuan	120	20	250	8	300	Kiangnan.	1908
Light Gunboat†	· Lichi	177.6	26.7	266	2.7	1,300	Germany.	1909
,, ,, †	Lishui	158	26.3	170	2	1,300	,,	1903
TRAINING SQU.	ADRON—							
Training Cruise	r Chaohu	320	29	2,600	14	6,000	Elswick.	1911
,, ;,	. Yingjui	330	39.5	2,460	13	"	Vickers.	_
Steel Training. ship.	} Tungchi	252.7	34.1	1,900	18	1,600	Foochow Arsenal.	1894
Composite Training ship.	Kingching	265.8	36	2,200	18.3	2,400	Foochow	1884
UNCLASSIFIED-							Tofu	
Coast Defence Gunboats.	} Haiao	106	18	211	6.6	200	(Taku) (Dockyard)	1917
"	. Haiyen	65	12	56	2.6	60	"	"
,,	. Haihung	112	18	190	6,9	300	(Foochow) (Dockyard)	1917

^{*} Now at Canton.

[†] In the Amur.

NAVY .- (Continued.)

Protection	Coaf capacity in tons.	Speed, Knots,	Complement	GUNS,	Torpedo Tubes.	Engines.	Boilers.
	80	32	69	2-12 pdrs. , 4-3 pdrs.	2 (above { water (Twin-sc.2 4 cylinder.	water- tube.
nil.	40	12	49	1.8.7 cm, 4 maxim.	nil {	vertical 1 Compound	Water. tube.
,,	"	11	"	" "	"	"	"
-	33	1 1	42	4 maxim 7.9 mm.	nil.	2 Vertical 1 Triple expansion	water- tube boiler.
nil.	28	23	34	2.2½ pdrs.	$\begin{cases} 3 \\ \text{above} \\ \text{water} \end{cases}$	Triple ex. pansion	Water- tube.
	18	18	34	4·1 pdr.	above water	ex pansion.	Water tube boilers.
"	18	16	38	§ 4.1 pdr., 2.12 mm. nordenfeldt	above water	pansion.	motive boilers.
,,	35	9	33	2.37 mm. 1 maxim.	nil. {	Compound 1 vertical	cylind. marine.
,,	95	14	45	2.6 pdr. 3 machine guns.	nil.	I ment	Water-
"	75	13	45	$1.3\frac{1}{2}$ inch., 1.4 pdr. 2 machine guns.	,, (Triple expansion 2	tube.
1.5 in. flat,	550	20	230	2.6 in., 4.4 in., 2.14 pdrs., 6.3 pdrs., 2.1 pdr.	(dedk)	3 sc. Pardsons turb. 2	cylind.
slope 2 in., flt. I in.	550	"	210	{ 2.6 in., 4.4 in., 2.3 in., } 4.37 mm. 2. maxims. }	ab've	3 sc. Par-4 sons turb. 2	w.tube cylind.
nil,	200	12	155	{ 2.6 in. B L ; 4.12 cm. } 3.6 pdrs. ; 11.37 mm. }	-	Compound.	motive boilers.
1.5 in., flat, .75 in.	400	13	202	{ 2.7 in., 8.4.7 in., 4- 1.5 in., 1.44 in., 4- 2.5 in.	nil.	Com'd. horizontal.	drical marine,
nil.	20	12	22	4·3.7 cm. 2·7.9 mm.	nil, {	Compound engine	Return tube.
,,	8	10	22	1.3.7 cm. 2.7.9 mm.	nil.	11	(cylin.
**	20	11	22	2·3.7 cm. 2·7.9 mm.	nil.	vertical expansion	drical 2

CHINESE NAVAL YARDS.

Length & Depth of Water at Entrance.	Width at Entrance Depth on Sill H. W 90 ft.	Width at Entrance Depth on Sill H. W., 0. S. a. 36 ft. b. 40 ., c. 50 ., d. 23 ., ft. 40 ., ft. 40 .,	Width at Entrance Depth on Sill H. W 70 ft.	Width at Entrance Depth on Sill H. W., O. S.
Length & Depth of	Width at Entrance 90 ft.	Width at Entrance a. 36 ft. b. 40 c. 50 d. 23 f. 40	Width at Entrance 70 ft.	Width at Entrance
Size of any dry dock.	Length over blocks 390 ft.	Length over blocks	Length over blocks 545 ft.	Length over blocks 264 ft.
Size of any	Length over all 480 ft.	Length over all. a. 320 ft. b. 305 ", c. 300 ", d. 220 ", e. 315 ", f. 400 ",	Length over all 554 ft.	Length over all 336 ft.
What Facilities for Repair.	Mavee, Both for Building and Length over all 480 ft. Length over blocks Repairing	Mostly used for dock- ing the ships	Kiangnan Shanghai With the most modern Length over all 554 ft. Length over blocks Dock in the port	Whampoo Canton Both for building and Length over all 356 ft. Length over blocks Dock
Where Located.	Mavee, Foochow	Taku	Shanghai	Canton
Name.	Foochow	Taku Dock	Kiangnan Dock	Whampoo

CHAPTER XX.

EDUCATION.

The system of education as promulgated by the Ministry of Education under the date of September 6, 1912 was fully described in the last issue of this Year Book. The educational programme of the Republican regime brought out in that year was indeed a start impregnated with highest hopes and has been ever since a foundation upon which all future changes or innovations of education are based. Unfortunately, however, the nine years of Republican government have been a period of instability, chaos and anarchy, during which all efforts that might have been devoted to constructive purposes were entirely dissipated in internecine strife, maintenance and expansion of class interests and political propaganda. Thus, education like many other things that seem to be of no immediate importance to the interests of those who are in power is relegated to the background. While the national as well as provincial revenue has been swallowed up by the pay of the superfluous soldiers and the high salaries or the no less superfluous politicians and officials, there remains but a very small portion of the revenue which could be earmarked as the expenditure on education. Certain provinces, like Kiangsu and Chekiang, have to be thankful since their educational institutions could draw from the authorities regularly their quota of the educational expenditure to maintain the status quo, whereas other provinces such as Fukien and Hunan were compelled to close their schools-for some time at least-because all the expenses had been necessarily cut down on account of a necessity under military conditions. In general, education in China for the last few years has suffered in the hands of the Government and while the officials in their proclamations to the public may be grandiloquent in their enthusiasm for the development of education, they have on the whole done little that is true to their words. Although the schools to all appearances have endeavoured to maintain their status quo, their efficiency has been very much decreased through the lack of better-trained teachers and improved equipment which modern society greatly needs for the teaching of its younger members.

The New Culture Movement.

Apart from the political situation which is unfavourable to the development of education, there remain to be considered the social factors that either facilitate or hamper educational activities. The most important factor that is gradually looming large in the educational world and has to a certain extent affected the other social activities is, to transliterate the Chinese original for lack of a better term, the New Culture Movement. Without laying undue credit to any particular individual, we may say that it represents the awakening of the intellectual classes led by a number of writers, thinkers and professors who find fault with their time-honoured traditions and social order. Briefly stated, the Movement manifests itself in two ways: one is a sceptical attitude toward all things traditional, either ideas or institutions; the other is the so-called literary revolution which aims at making Chinese literature a medium for expressing living ideas and things. The former marks a departure, fundamental in its significance and far-reaching in its consequences, from the traditional and conservative mind that is characteristic of the Chinese; whereas the latter destroys at one stroke almost all the literary productions that have been the business of the special particular class or profession known as literati. In the constructive aspect, the former adopts a pragmatic criterion in its sceptical attitude as has been made popular through the lectures of Prof. J. Dewey and the writings of his disciples and the latter renders millions of people who are literates capable of expressing their thoughts in written language, a fact which has never been realized in the long period of Chinese history.

The World War and the Students' Movement.

At first, the Chinese student took a lukewarm interest in the War. Indeed, seeing that his own country has ever been subject to humiliation and international intrigue and that the glory in this world only belongs to those nations that are fully armed, (and of course being not quite clear on the issues at war and the background of it), he naturally had a high admiration for the Germans whose rise into power during the nineteenth century had become an inspiring example to him to follow. At last, the realities of the War were brought home to him when the British and Japanese allied forces began to attack Tsingtao. If the Tsingtao campaign did not enhance any active interest toward the War in the Chinese mind, the conduct of the campaign as well as the military occupation and civil administration that followed the capture of Tsingtao certainly created in it a deep resentment—a feeling that has since become intensely bitter. At any rate, the Chinese at first were not at all enthusiastic toward the War and the Tsingtao campaign made them more sceptical of the causes that the Allied Powers were fighting for.

The pronouncements of President Wilson on many occasions and particularly his Fourteen Points changed in a remarkably short period the attitude of the Chinese. Without any inducement either of propaganda or coercion, the Chinese at once embraced a new ideal that has become a gospel to the people of oppressed nations. Readers of current literature will notice the abundance of such words as "self-determination," "league of nations," after the President delivered his famous addresses. They have at last found in the utterances of the President a solution for what they were hankering

to solve.

The Students' Movement can only be understood with this background. It is a nationalistic movement and it very rightly has set as its aim to reform the Government and cleanse it first of all from the corrupt officials who fall under the menacing clutches of foreign Powers. The movement which started entirely out of the initiative of the students themselves began to assume two aspects: one aspect is the boycott of Japanese goods as a counter-measure against the political motives of the Japanese while the other is the demonstration in various forms against the actions of their own Government. Thus, when the news reached Peking that the Big Four had conceded to Japan all the rights Germany held in Tsingtao before the War and their hopes and aspirations were completely disillusioned, there happened the most memorable demonstrations of May 4, 1919, and June 3, 1919 ever held in China by the students. Since then popular demonstrations of the students have become frequent and such demonstrations necessarily interfere with their school work. If it is held that the students' movement is detrimental to the progress of education in China, one may certainly retort that faced with a state of affairs, political, economic and international as the Chinese students are, they can hardly concentrate their mind entirely on scholastic work and be unmindful of national affairs which are a part of their life.

The Alphabet.

We have only sketched in outline the circumstances under which education develops in China. The main aspect being such, we need hardly treat in detail the local aspects. The prospect of education on the whole is decidedly discouraging but at the same time there have been events that though silently developing are fraught with most significant consequences. The event to which the highest significance must be accredited is the sanction by the Ministry of Education of the alphabets.

The idea of inventing some kind of alphabet in order to render every Chinese written word pronounceable at the very sight of the word has found welcome everywhere and in fact several kinds of alphabets were invented and brought to use to a limited extent and for some time. It was in the year of 1921 that the Commission on the Standardization of the Sounds of the National Language was formed under the auspices of the Ministry of Education. As a result of the many sessions of the Commission, thirty-nine symbols were adopted to represent the various sounds that now exist in the standardized national language. In 1915, classes for teaching the alphabet were established, and it was on November 23 of the year 1918 that the Ministry of Education accepting the recommendation of the said Commission and other organizations proclaimed in a Ministerial Order the alphabet and sanctioned its teaching in the schools and popularization among the people. In 1920, one more vowel was added through the recommendation of a committee of the Commission on the Unification of the National Language and consequently the number of symbols was brought to forty. These symbols are as follows:-

24 CONSONANTS (聲母)

	Corresponding sound in Roman Letters	(24)	Corresponding sound in Roman Letters
5	b	广	gn (in French)
5女1二万分去马为《丐	p	T	ch (as in German
-	m	_	ich)
	f	出行	dj (in English)
万	V	F	ch (in English),
分	d		tch (in French) or
太	t		tsch (in German)
7	n	尸	sh (in English),
为			ch (in French) or
«	g		sch (in German)
	k	日	j (in French)
兀	ng		j (in Esperanto)
7	x (in Russian),	11	dz (in English)
	ch (in German) or	ナ	ts (in English)
	ĥ (in Esperanto)	A	s
4	dji (Not exactly as designated, for in English these two Sounds are pronounced with the blade of the tongue, whereas in Chinese they are pronounced with the front of the tongue.		

15 FINALS (韵母) OF WHICH THE FIRST THREE ARE CONSIDERED AS MEDIALS ACTUALLY 16)

	ACTUALL	X 16)	
	esponding sound in Roman Letters		Corresponding sound in Roman Letters
error de	i	1	a (English long a)
X	u	1/2	a+u
11	ü (German umlaut)	又	o (English long o)
∇	a	耳	ăn
7	0	7	ěn
2-	e (er in English)	人 幺 又 马 与 尤	ang
メロイフさせ	ê (pronounced as the	ĺ	eng
	wel e in "there" in English	几	er as is pronounced by
万	a + i (English short a)	/ 4	the Americans in Mid-west
/3	22 DERIVED FINALS	(結	
	esponding sound in Roman Letters	(1941)	Corresponding sound in Roman Letters
	atomem motter b	~	
V	ıa	7	uo
1		7	
7	io	金 .	uăi
		73	
44	i+e	7	ui
12		V	
77-1	$i+\check{a}+i$	台	uan
7-7		7	
以	i+a+u		un
		V	
N	i+u	チ	uang
^		V	
Z.	i+ên	Î	ung
7		il	
4	in	* こメガメ、 メ写 メリン 九メ し 日 世 日 号 日 1 日	ü+ê
i.d		11	
九	iang	耳	ü+ê n
		Ĭ	
1	ing	4	ün
X		Li	
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We are indebted to Mr. Chien Hsüan Tung, Professor of Chinese Orthography and Etymology at the National University of Peking for rendering the Chinese alphabets into the Roman letters as pronounced in the European countries. Those who are interested in the new alphabet may be referred to Mr. Tseu Yih Zan's article which appeared in *The Educational Directory and Year Book of China* 1920 (pp. 110-117). Mr. Tseu's transcription and treatment is in some respects different from Mr. Chien's.

Although the Chinese have one written language, they have a variety of dialects which are sometimes so different that people speaking different dialects cannot comprehend each other. The way to solve the difficulty of communicating to each other by sounds cannot however be solved by the written language because the Chinese character in spite of its universality is ideographic and gives no key to pronunciation. It was therefore the aim of the Commission of the Standardization of the Sounds of the National Language to devise a set of alphabets whereby all school-boys and girls will be enabled to acquire the same pronunciation for the same word throughout the whole length and width of the country. It was hoped that with the maximum limit of twenty years all the people who have been through the primary schools will speak one standardized language. As a subsidiary aim the alphabet may also be used by the illiterate people who are too old to learn the ideographic form of the written language to communicate with one another in writing and acquire information or knowledge through reading books printed in the new symbols without resort being made to the ideographic characters. At present, several dictionaries and text-books have been added with such symbols designating beside each word its standardized pronunciation. The process of the unification of pronunciation will hasten not only the development of popular education which is so very much needed in China but will also help grow a deeper national consciousness than has ever existed.

The Commission on the Unification of the National Language.

Ever since the Chinese realized the importance of popular education—an education that differs from the traditional conception as preparation for examination or official life—they found that the diversity of their of lects and the sentence-construction and the rigid style of their literature have always been the greatest obstacles against promoting it. While the diversity of local dialects is met by the device of the standardized pronunciation which is to be made universal, there remains the problem of rendering the written language more easy; in other words the written Chinese should be made more easily accessible so that every man with an elementary education can read and write. This task is entrusted to the Commission on the Unification of the National Language.

This Commission is organised under the auspices of the Ministry of Education with a view to prepare the ground for the unification of the National Language and the means of effecting it. The work of the Commission consists of (1) phonetics of the Language, (2) dictionary of the Language, (3) the construction of sentences, and (4) newspapers and period-

icals in the National Language.

third are recommended by the Universities and colleges from their own There are over a hundred members in the Commission, about a third of whom are appointed by the Ministry from its own officials, another members and the rest are elected by the Ministry from among those who have experience in the teaching and writing of Chinese. The personnel of the Commission appears to be very representative and there are present those who are great enthusiasts for the propagation of the National Language. The Commission during the session of four days from April 21 to 25 1919 passed nine resolutions which are all important measures mark-

ing an entirely new epoch not only in Chinese written language but particularly in the educational history of this country.

The National Language (kuo yu) is but a dignified name for the colloquial Chinese (pai wha), for all the Chinese speak pai wha but not the literary Chinese and the object of the Commission is to render some service toward making pai wha in its dignified, refined and pure form universal in use in China both as spoken and as written language. Leaving out fiction all Chinese publications are done in the classical literary style and during the last few years a small group of writers began the practice of writing articles in colloquial Chinese with modern punctuation. As the practice has shown great success, writing in colloquial Chinese soon came into vogue. And the publication of the first volume of Prof. Suh Hu's History of Chinese Philosophy in 1919 marked the first attempt of serious writing in pai wha. The Ministry of Education in calling into being the Commission on the Unification of the National Language was merely acknowledging what is a fait accompli and helping to hasten its progress. To summarize the nine resolutions that have been passed by the Commission and recommended to the Ministry we find the following items:-

- 1. Additional alphabets should be devised apart from the thirty-nine symbols sanctioned and promulgated by the Ministry of Education in 1918. The increase is called for on account of the diversity of dialects now found in China. As the standard sounds consist only of the thirty-nine symbols that represent them, they are not sufficient to designate the sounds in such dialects of much richer sounds as the Cantonese or the Fukienese. The Commission therefore proposed that additional alphabets should be devised in order to designate dialects other than the standard sounds. It would be a great help to the persons who only understand one dialect and at the same time it would enable them to master the standard pronunciation which is strange to them.
- 2. The procedure of popularizing the national language should be: (1) the compilation of dictionaries in the national language, (2) the compilation of the national language grammar, (3) the re-writing of the text-books which should be entirely in the national language for the primary school and partly in the national language for the higher primary school. Text-books other than language readers should be all written in the national language, (4) the compilation of conversation books in the national language.
- (3) The Ministry of Education is requested to extend the adoption of the national language to a nation-wide scale. Courses in the national language should be made compulsory in the normal school, a third of the time allotted to the teaching of Chinese being devoted to the national language. Summer schools should provide for the teaching of the national language for the training of the primary school teachers. After five years the subject of the national language should be added as a required subject in the teachers' diploma examination. Teachers failing in this subject in the examination are to be disqualified from the teaching of Chinese.
- (4) The new punctuation marks. As the Chinese written language, like Latin, has only the period mark and sometimes even the period mark is dispensed with, there are constantly occasions in which an ambiguity or obscurity of meaning arises in a sentence. The Commission passed a resolution in which they advocate the adoption of a set of punctuation marks they have devised. These marks would make Chinese writing much more precise and expressive than before.

All the resolutions of the Commission have been accepted by the Ministry of Education and have been faithfully carried out either by the Ministry itself or through some private enterprise. The national language has now become a popular medium of writing and its use is becoming wider and wider.

The National Educational Congress.

Since the provincial educational association (chiao yu hui) found legal recognition from the Government it sends representatives to meet together once every year to discuss important educational problems of the country. As the provincial educational association is a legalised body and represents the teaching profession of different provinces, the recommendations of the Congress have as a rule great weight and are generally accepted by the Ministry of Education. Between October 10 and 25 of the year 1919, the educational associations of different provinces held their fifth annual Congress at Taiyuan, the capital of Shansi. Fifty-one representatives were present. Proposals from different provinces numbered sixty-three and only twenty-eight were passed in the Congress. One proposal which advocated the reform of the whole educational system as was prescribed by the Ministry of Education in September 5, 1912, was postponed till the next Congress to be held in Canton.

The resolutions that have been passed by the Congress may be summarized as the following:—

- 1. The abolition of the aim of education in the Ministerial Order of September 5 1912. The Order says of the aim as "to pay special attention to the development of morals, supplementing it with utilitarian and military training and completing it with the cultivation of the aesthetic powers." The Congress found fault with the aim and advocated the cancellation of this clause in the Order. Instead it proposed that the educational function should be enunciated as "the cultivation of a healthy personality and the development of the spirit of democracy". For, it was argued, the aim reters to the educator whereas the function refers to the "educand."
- 2. The reform of the methods of education. The proposal aimed at changing the antiquated mechanical methods of instruction and discipline and making them more practical and real to life. In connection with this, it proposed that text-books for the primary and middle schools should be re-written in order to suit the needs of each province. Further, the Congress proposed that each provincial educational association should compile text-books for the use of its own province, and collect materials that are specific and native in the province for instruction. We read in this proposal a tendency toward decentralization in the method and material used in education.
- The universal adoption of the National Language. As the traditional form of written Chinese is an obstacle for the people to assimilate or acquire knowledge, it has been thought necessary to adopt an easy form of written Chinese as a means of popularizing education. The Congress therefore proposed that spoken and written languages should be made uniform and that the National Language (kuo yu) should be universally adopted as a means toward effecting it. As practical measures, the Congress further proposed that (1) all the normal schools should add courses on the national language and the alphabets (chu yin tzu mu), (2) school boards and educational societies of all districts should give similar courses during summer and winter vacations to the elementary school teachers, (3) the national language and the alphabet should be the compulsory subjects of the primary school teachers' examinations, (4) and all the text-books of the primary schools (kuo min shueh sho) should be in the national language instead of the traditional classical style. This, it may be mentioned was entirely in accord with the proposal of the Commission on the Unification of the National Language. Further, the Congress proposed that special emphasis should be laid on the extension of the national language to the Tibetans and Mongolians.
- 4. Girls' Education. The Congress proposed that the system of coeducation should be gradually adopted. It maintained that co-education

should be instantly carried out by the primary schools; either co-education or separate boys' and girls' classes should be adopted by the higher primary schools; in the normal schools special courses designed for the girls such as domestic science should be established for girls only, and boys and girls may either attend same or separate classes; in the technical schools, boys and girls should attend different schools because they are trained for different occupations particular to their sex. In another proposal, the Congress resolved that girl students should receive equal treatment with the boys in respect of being sent abroad to further their studies.

- Physical Education. The Congress recommended the provincial educational associations to petition the Ministry of Education that committees on physical education should be formed in every province to promote physical education which has been neglected by the Chinese. In connection with this, the Congress further proposed that physical education in the school curriculum should be reformed. In promoting physical education, the expenses under that head must be firstly increased, and then special attention must be paid to the physical education in the normal and girls' schools, the utility of the physical exercises and their conformity with the physical development of the students being taken into considera-Then health examinations should be held by all the schools and athletic meetings should be encouraged in so far they will promote good Again the Congress recommended to the provincial educational associations the more extensive adoption of the boy scouts as a part of school work. The steps advocated by the Congress to be taken toward attaining such an object is as follows :- the boy scout idea should be added in the curriculum of the normal schools; all that concerns the boy scout organization should be carefully studied and published by the provincial educational associations for the use of different schools; in the provinces where boy scouts have been in existence, manœuvres should be held every year in a central place.
- 6. Vocational Education. The Congress proposed that special attention should be paid to vocational subjects in the primary and middle schools. Manual training and business practice should be taught and schools should establish vocational subjects courses in order to prepare the teachers of such subjects. Girl students should be taught gardening, domestic science and tailoring. Further the Congress resolved that the provincial educational associations should secure the co-operation of the Chambers of Commerce and agricultural associations to promote technical or vocational education. It was hoped that on the one hand the industrial and commercial bodies would utilize the knowledge and ability supplied by the educational associations while the latter would study the needs and demands of the former.

Apart from the aforementioned proposals that have been passed by the Congress, there are several significant proposals which may be briefly mentioned. First, the Congress resolved that the disruption between the north and the south should be immediately stopped so that superfluous troops could be disbanded and the expenses used for military purposes could be devoted entirely on education. The proposal was communicated to the authorities of the north and south in the form of petition. Secondly, the Congress resolved that it was the express intention of the Congress that in case the Boxer indemnities are to be released by the foreign powers the sum should entirely be devoted to education. Telegrams were sent both to the Peking Government and to the Chinese Delegation at the Paris Peace Conference notifying them of its intention and hoping they would proceed to approach the Powers concerned. Thirdly, the Congress resolved and petitioned the Ministry of Education that a National Research Council should be established to promote scientific research. further advised that in view of the formation of the International Research Council, (Conseil de recherche internationale) the meeting of which

was held in London and Paris, the Chinese National Research Council should follow the example and prepare for the time of affiliation. Fourthly, the Congress resolved and petitioned the Ministry of Education that Colleges of Agriculture should be established in every province, in order to promote the interest of agriculture. Sixthly, the Congress resolved and petitioned the Ministry of Education to establish a higher normal school in Shensi to train middle school teachers to supply the needs of the northwestern provinces. Further, there were proposals with regard to the problems of educational administration which need not be repeated here.

Educational Statistics.

The statistics supplied by the Ministry of Education are as a rule not very accurate and the most important information as regards explanation of the statistics is sometimes found sadly wanting. Since 1916 the statistics has been made less complete by the fact that educational authorities of the seceded provinces in the south stopped altogether sending in the educational reports to the central government. According to the statistics of the academic year between August 1915 to July 1916, China had 4,294,251 students and 198,976 teachers.

The figures for 1916 will be found on the next page.

The Chinese Students Abroad.

The sending of the Chinese students to foreign countries to study has been a part of the educational policy of this country. We find several hundred students are maintained every year by the Ministry of Education and the Provincial Governments. Tsinghua College alone sends out every year about a hundred students to study in the colleges in the United States. Besides there is a great number of students who are self-supporting and go out to study of their own will.

As a rule the Chinese students enter foreign universities as undergraduates because their education at home is not so thorough as to enable them to pursue advanced courses. The Ministry of Education has lately, however, made more strict the matriculation examination for the students who are to be sent abroad to study. It is hoped that all undergraduate work will be done at home and only those who are qualified to take up postgraduate work will be given government or provincial scholarships in foreign countries. The immediate effect of this innovation is that China will have better-trained leaders or scholars instead of fresh graduates.

The National University of Peking.

Although the National University of Peking was founded twenty-five years ago, it had never been put into able hands until 1916 when Mr. Tsai Yuan-pei was made Chancellor of the University. During the time of Mr. Tsai's Chancellorship, the University has introduced many experiments both in the organisation of the institution and also in the curriculum of studies. At present there are five groups of studies which consist of courses in mathematics, physics, chemistry, geology, philosophy, Chinese literature, English literature, French literature, German literature, Russian literature, history, economics, political science and law. Each course, it must be noted, consists of a series of lectures, a minimum number of which is compulsory for the student who registers himself as taking that particular course. In fact, each course is a department by itself. This is the elective system whereby the student is given a certain amount of freedom to choose his own studies.

The Chancellor of the University is appointed by the President but the University is controlled by the Chancellor and a number of committees. The peculiar feature of the organisation of the University, according to (Continued on p. 557.)

Summary of the Educational Statistics of 1916.

Prom The Chinese Social and Political Science Review.

Kinds of Schools	No. of Schools	No. cf Students	No. of Teachers	No. of Ad- ministrative Officers	Expenses
People's School	118,852	3,700,604	155,759	111,282	\$14,825,695
Higher Primary	7,862	386,358	27,685	12,561	8,273,717
Industrial School of Class A and similar					
schools	1,711	53,104	3,255	1,455	782,318
Middle School	444	69,770	5,061	2,125	3,917,950
Normal School	211	27,905	2,399	1,007	2,731,209
Industrial School of Class A and similar					
schools	455	28,710	2,447	1,185	2,192,460
Higher Normal	10	2,357	285	154	800,791
College and Professional Schools	94	25,373	2,086	730	3,882,072
Total	120,739	4,294,251	198,976	130,799	\$37,406,212

Dr. Monlin Chiang who is to a great extent responsible for the present scheme adopted, is said to be democratic in form and efficient in working, in other words, a combination of two principles that are both essential in an organization. The highest body of the University is the Senate composed of professors elected among themselves, the function of which is deliberative and legislative. The administrative branch of the University is in the hand of a Dean and a number of section chiefs; over the Dean there is the administrative council of which the Chancellor is the chairman and over the chief there is a committee for each section. The academic branch of the University is in the hand of the Dean of the faculties who is primus inter pares of the deans of all the other faculties. Each faculty has its own council and the deans of different faculties form an academic council of which the Dean of faculties is the chairman.

The Ministry of Education decided in the year of 1912 to establish four universities in the following places: Peking, Nanking, Canton and Wuchang. Considering the population and the extent of the country, this must be viewed as a very modest programme. Yet even up to the present time, the Peking National University alone is in existence and it alone can be called by that name. Chancellor Tsai has through his moral prestige and scholastic attainment made the University as it ought to be and has attracted a number of eminent scholars whose great task will be on the one hand to introduce western culture to their own country and on the other hand to interpret their own culture in a better light. The teaching staff of the University is about 260 and the enrolment of the students, including a few girl students, is

about 3,000.

The Higher Normal Schools.

The higher normal school plays an important rôle in the education in China, for it is the training place of the staffs of middle and primary schools. At present there are altogether only higher normal schools in Peking, Nanking, Wuchang, Chengtu, Canton and Mukden. In Peking there are two normal schools, one for the men teachers and the other for the women teachers. So there are at present seven in all. In view of the increasing number of middle schools, the supply of these seven normal schools may not be sufficient. And the Congress of the provincial educational associations passed a resolution to the effect that a new normal school should be established in Shensi for the training of the teachers for the northwestern provinces. The seven schools which are already in existence are of the same standing but the organization and equipment of the Nanking Normal School by far surpass the rest. It is hoped that it will in time become a university with a strong education department.

Other Schools.

Of the schools of the higher school standing, there are higher schools of technology, agriculture, law, and medicine. These may be called professional schools in view of the fact that the graduates often go into the profession of their own line after they have finished the college education. Among this class of schools there are several which are maintained by other ministries, but not by the Ministry of Education or the educational authorities of the provinces. For instance, the Nanyang College and the Tongshan Engineering College are supported and controlled by the Ministry of Communications. Likewise, the Medical College in Tientsin is supported and controlled by the Ministry of Navy.

Of the schools of the middle school grade there are the usual middle schools, which lead to the higher school or the university, and the vocational schools of the middle school grade. There are schools of commerce, technology, agriculture, textile industry. Besides there are normal schools of the middle school grade in which the primary school teachers are trained.

FOREIGN LECTURERS.

A number of foreign lecturers and professors have been employed by the educational institutions of higher standing. In 1919 a happy precedent was established by the educators of this country in the invitation of Prof John Dewey of Columbia University, New York, to give public lectures on philosophy and other kindred subjects. The expenses of this undertaking were shared by a number of schools, and educational and literary associations. Mr Bertrand Russell has been requested to deliver lectures in 1920. It has been suggested that the lecturers for the subsequent years shall be M. Bergson, Dr. Einstein and Prof. Eucken. The visit of these eminent personages, it is believed, will not only arouse in the Chinese mind a lively interest toward western philosophy and science but will also enable the lecturers to bring back with them true impressions on the culture and conditions of this country.

Recognition of foreign scholarship and of the service it has rendered to China for the interest of education is shown by the fact that four persons were granted the honorary degree of Doctor by the National University of Peking in August 31 1920. The four persons who received such a high distinction (as no parallel can be found in the history of China) are M. Paul Painlevé, Dr. Paul S. Reinsch, M. Joubin Rector of the University, Lyons, France, and Prof John Dewey.

TSING HUA COLLEGE.

Tsing Hua College was founded in 1911 as the result of the action of the U. S. government in 1908 in remitting to China the balance of a little over ten million dollars (\$10,785,286.12) gold of the Boxer indemnity. In accepting the offer, the Chinese Government expressed its intention to utilize the money for the education of students. In 1909, a competitive examination was held, and 48 students were selected to be sent to America. Among the regulations for sending to America, it was provided for the establishment of training schools in China. Accordingly, steps were duly taken, and Tsing Hua Yuan, a beautiful palace and an ideal site, situated about seven miles from the Capital, was secured from the Government. Building operations were begun in August 1909, but owing to a strike of the workmen, work of construction was greatly delayed, and it was not until the spring of 1911 that the buildings were sufficiently completed to make it possible for the school to begin work. It was thus that Tsing Hua College came into existence.

In eleven years, students aggregating 656 have been sent to America. In addition to graduates of the College, young women students have been sent every other year since 1914, and fellowship students every year since 1916, selected on the basis of a competitive examination conducted by the College. Last year (1919) on account of short funds, only graduates of the College have been sent to America.

The curriculum extends over eight years, four in the Middle School and four in the High School. For entrance into the Middle School, the candidate must pass an examination conducted in accordance with the requirements of the College by the Commissioner of Education of his own province. The High School entrance examination is conducted directly by the College. The enrollment for the current school year. 1920-21. is 556 students, of whom 346 are in the High School and 210 in the Middle School.

There are two faculties in the College: the Chinese and the Western. The Western Faculty includes at present nineteen American men and women, fourteen Chinese who have been educated in America, two in England and one in Belgium. The officers of administration are mostly Chinese, of whom six are American college men.

Tsing Hua College enjoys a unique position in the educational development of China. The most conspicuous thing is that it has a group of most modern and up-to-date college buildings. Apart from the original buildings put up in the early years, four new buildings, the Library, the Gymnasium, the Science Building and the Auditorium, costing over one million dollars, have been built in recent years. The Gymnasium has been dedicated to the memory of that great American statesman Roosevelt, during whose administration the College was founded.

From the late Mr. Tong Kaison to the present time, the presidency of the College has always fallen upon an American returned student. Mr. P. C. King, the new President, a graduate of Cornell University, was himself educated in America on the Indemnity Fund during the early years of the College He was President of the Provincial Agricultural College and Director of the Provincial Bureau of Forestry, Anking, 1915-17; and President of the Government Agricultural College, Peking, 1917-20.

The College maintains an office in Washington, D. C., U. S. A., known

as the Chinese Educational Mission, and Dr. T. Philip Sze, the Superintendent, who was also educated in America on the Indemnity Fund, has charge

of the students in America sent by the College.

FOREIGN COLLEGES IN CHINA.

(The figures in brackets show the number of students).

Anglo-Chinese College, Amoy. President: H. J. P. Anderson, M.A. (190). Anglo-Chinese College, Foochow. President: J. Gowdy, B.A., B.D. (472). Anglo-Chinese College, Swatow. President: H. F. Wallace, M.A., B.D. (130). Anglo-Chinese College, Tientsin. President: S. Lavington Hart, M.A., D.SC.

Aurora University, Shanghai. Rector: Rev. H. Allain, s.J. (200).

Boone University, Wuchang. President: Rev. A. A. Gilman, B.A., S.T.D. (427).

Baptist College, Kaifeng. Principal: Rev. W. Eugene Sallee, M.A. (68). Canton Christian College. President: C. K. Edmunds, B.A., PH.D. (573) College Français, Peking. Director: Fr. Jules Alfred.

Customs College, Peking (114).

English Methodist College, Ningpo. President: H. S. Redfern, M.A. (170). Foochow College. President: Rev. Willard Beard, M.A. (426).

Foochow Girls' College. President: Miss E. M. Garretson.

Ginling College, Nanking. President: Mrs. Lawrence Thurston, B.S. (35). Griffith John College, Hankow. Principal: Rev. A. Bonsey, (255).

Hackett Medical College for Women, Canton. President: Miss Martha Hackett, B.A., M.D. (50).

Hangchow Medical Training College. Principal: Duncan D. Main, FR.C.S., F.R.C.P. (50 Boarders).

Hangchow Christian College. President: Rev. W. H. Stewart, M.A., B.D.

Haigh College, Fatshan. Principal: Rev. A. H. Bray, M.A., B.D. (85).

Hongkong University. President: Sir W. E. Brunyate, (220).

Manchuria Mission College, Mukden. President: D. T. Robertson, M.A.

Medhurst College, Shanghai. Acting Headmaster: G. Luxon (130).

Mukden Medical College, Mukden. Principal: Dugald Christie, C.M.G., F.R.C.P., F.R.C.S. (66).

Nanking Union University. President: A. J. Bowen, B.A. (700)

North China Union College, Tungchow. President: H. S. Galt, M.A.

North China Union Woman's College, Peking. President: Miss L. Miner, м.а. (78).

Peking University. President: Dr. J. Leighton Stuart (466).

Queen's College, Hongkong. Headmaster: B. Tanner, (700).

Roman Catholic Clerical Seminary, Shanghai. Rector: Rev. E. Beauce, s.j. (73).

Shanghai College and Theological Seminary. President: F. J. White, M.A., D.D. (315).

Sacred Heart College, Canton. Headmaster: Rev. Bro. Joseph (400).

Shansi University, Taiyuanfu (now reverted to Chinese control).

Shantung Christian University, Tsinanfu. President: Rev. J. Boyd Neal, M.A., M.D. (326).

Socchow University. President: J. W. Cline, B.A., D.D. (360).

St. Dominic's College, Foochow. President: Rev. H. Corbato, O.P. (209). St. John's University, Shanghai. President: F. L. Hawks Pott, D.D. (485).

St Joseph's English College, Hongkong. Director: Bro. Aimar, (650). St. Paul's College, Hongkong. Principal: Rev. A. D. Stewart, M.A. (350).

St. Paul's College, Hongkong. Principal: Rev. A. D. Stewart, M.A. (350). St. Stephen's College, Hongkong. Principal: Rev. W. H. Hewitt, M.A.,

в.р. (140).

St. Stephens Girl's College, Hongkong. Principal: Miss W. S. Griffin, (70). Tsinghua College. President: P. C. King, (660).

Talmage College, Kulangsu. President: Herman Renskers, B.A. (87).

Trinity College, Ningpo. President: Ven Archdeacon, W. S. Moule, M.A. (60).

Trinity College, Foochow. Principal: Rev. W. P. W. William, M.A. (430).
Union Medical College, Foochow. President: B. van Someren Taylor,
M.B., C.M. (15).

Union Medical College, Peking. Director: Franklin C. McLean, M.D., PH.D. (40).

Union Medical College for Women, Peking. Dean: Miss Eliza E. Leonard, M.D. (32).

Union Theological College, Canton. President: Rev. J. Stewart Kunkle, M.A. (41).

United Methodist College, Wenchow. *President*: T. W. Chapman, M.Sc. (134).

Wesley College, Wuchang. President: E. F. Gedye, M.A. (150).

West China Union University, Chengtu. President: Joseph Beech, D.D. (355).

Westminster College, Chuanchowfu. *Principal*: Rev. A. S. Moore-Anderson, M.A. (295).

William Nast College, Kiukiang. President: Rev. Carleton Lacy, M.A., S.T.B. (210).

Woman's Union College of South China, Foochow. President: Miss L. A.

Trimble, M.A. (150).

Yale College of Medicine, Changsha. Dean: E. H. Hume, M.A., (90).

Yale College in China, Changsha. Dean: Rev. Brownell Gage, M.A., B.D. (175).

Zikawei College, Shanghai. Director: Rev. Father Beauce.

HONGKONG UNIVERSITY.

The University of Hongkong, the foundation stone of which was laid on March 16, 1910, was opened on March 11, 1912, by Sir Frederick Lugard. Governor of Hongkong. Sir Charles Eliot, formerly Vice-Chancellor of Sheffield University, was appointed the first Principal. The formation of a University had been advocated by Sir Frederick Lugard in a speech made in December, 1907, and Mr. H. N. Mody offered to erect the necessary buildings at a cost of \$150,000, and to give \$30,000 towards an endowment fund. When it was found that the cost of the buildings would exceed

the former amount, Mr. Mody undertook to defray the cost, whatever it might be, and steps were then taken to raise an endowment fund, towards which Messrs Butterfield and Swire contributed £40,000. Donations were received from all parts of the world, in particular from Chinese at home and abroad, and before the end of 1909 the Endowment and Equipment Fund had reached the sum of \$1,279,164. The University was incorporated under local ordinance, and came into existence on March 30, 1911. objects which the University has in view are described in the preamble to the Ordinance of Incorporation as the promotion of Arts, Science, and Learning, the promotion of higher education, the conferring of degrees, the development and formation of the character of students of all races, nationalities and creeds, and the maintenance of good understanding with the neighbouring country of China.

The following scholarships are tenable at the University:

Donor's Scholarships.

Certain scholarships under terms of agreement with the Hongkong College of Medicine.

3. King Edward VII Scholarships (£40 for 5 years).

4. Chater Masonic Scholarship.

5. The President's Scholarships (\$400 for 5 years).

6. Loke Yew Scholarships.

7. Canton Scholarships (25 of \$300 each: nomination by the Civil Governor of Canton).

8. Ho Fook and Chan Kai Ming Scholarships (6 of £25.)

9. Hongkong General Chamber of Commerce Hewett Memorial Scholarships (2 of \$300).

10. Chinese General Chamber of Commerce Scholarships (2 of \$300).

OFFICERS.

Chancellor: H. E. Sir Reginald Stubbs, K.C.M.G.

Vice-Chancellor: Sir W. E. Brungate, K.C.M.G. Pro-Vice-Chancellor: G. P. Jordan, M.B

Deans: H. G. Earle, M.A., M.B. (Faculty of Medicine); A. G. Warren, B.SC., A.M.I.E.E. (Faculty of Engineering); J. D. Wright, M.A. (Faculty of Arts).

Registrar: N. B. T. Mackintosh, M.A.

ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION.

The China Medical Board of the Rockefeller Foundation seeks to aid the agencies which represent Western medicine in China to make steady progress toward higher standards and more efficient service. In fulfilling a purpose to promote modern medical education in the Republic the Board tecognizes the following essentials: (1) pre-medical education; (2) undergraduate courses for physicians; (3) graduate study for investigators, laboratory workers, teachers, and clinical specialists; (4) short courses for private practitioners and missionary doctors both foreign and Chinese; (5) medical research, especially with reference to the problems peculiar to the Far East; (6) standardized hospitals as training centres for internes, as models for imitation by the Chinese, as headquarters for practising physicians, and as a means of popular education; (7) organized efforts to diffuse among the Chinese a knowledge of modern medicine and public health; and (8) the fostering of professional ethics through development of character and idealism.

The chief agency by which it is hoped to further these aims is the l'eking Union Medical College, which has recently been opened in the Chinese capital. Controlled by a Board of Trustees who are chosen by the Rockefeller Foundation and by six co-operating missionary societies, American and British, the Peking institution is being built and maintained by Foundation funds. The completed plant will include: laboratories for anatomy, physiology, and chemistry, a pathology building, a 250-bed hospital with provision for about thirty private rooms, a large out-patient department, a hospital administration unit with quarters for resident physicians and internes, a nurses' home, an animal house, and plants which will supply water, heat, electric light and power, and fuel gas. The faculty residences, with a few exceptions grouped in two walled areas or compounds, are of brick and concrete with slate roofs, and are supplied with every convenience of Western life. The medical and hospital buildings, which are fire-proof, embody certain characteristic features of Chinese architecture. The roofs are covered with glazed green tiles made in one of the factories which once supplied tiles for the imperial palaces. Eaves and porticoes are embellished with conventional Chinese decorations in red, blue, green, and gold, painted by native artizans. Three of the teaching buildings were occupied in October, 1919 It was expected that the entire plant would be completed in 1921.

During the autumn of 1919, 61 students were registered: 32 in the pre-medical school, seven in the first year of the undergraduate medical course, and 22 as graduate students and internes. Of the faculty of 40, 30 were in Peking, and the remainder, chiefly representatives of the clinical branches, were completing special graduate studies in the United States. A superintendent of nurses and eight nurses were in Peking in preparation for the opening of a thorough course for the training of young Chinese women as hospital and public health nurses. Women are admitted to both the pre-medical school and the medical courses on equal terms with

men.

CHAPTER XXI.

GREATER CHINA.

MONGOLIA.

(The writer expresses his indebtedness, in certain places, to "A digest of the history and contemporary political position of Mongolia" by V. L. Kotvick (St. Petersburg, 1914) and to the monograph written on Mongolia for the 1914 edition of the "China Year Book" by Lieutenant G. C. Binsteed.)

The extensive tableland now known as Mongolia occupies 1,370,000 square miles in the heart of the Asiatic continent, with a scattered population of some 2,000,000 inhabitants. It has been ever since the beginnings of history the cradle of those migrations of nomadic warlike tribes which, at crucial periods, shook the foundations of the old civilised states of the Far East and the Near East and Europe and reshaped their destinies. This was the restless volcano from which poured, at relentlessly recurring intervals, the Turanian enemies of our Aryan forefathers. The bitterness of their struggle is reflected in the dualism of the primaeval Indian vedas and ancient Persian myths, in the contest between the fair children of the light and the wicked scions of the darkness beyond the desert. The breaking up of one of the nomadic Empires of this tableland by the first great Chinese dynasty of the Hans determined the racial movements that culminated in the fall of the Roman Empire and in the ensuing foundation of the states of modern Europe. Here we must seek the origin of the downfall of the Arab dominions and of those invasions of China which alternately established a medium of intercourse between her people and the Far West, and then cut her off from any such intercourse.

A few ruins, old ballads and historical records are all that remain of these mighty days. The "children of the wilderness" have dwindled from the position of arbiters of the world's fate to nonentities. Mongolia, as a country, nevertheless remains important from the point of view of Far Eastern policies not only on account of its vast economic possibilities and resources, but more especially as the key to any overland intercourse be-

tween the Far East and Europe.

HISTORICAL.

The migratory population of the Mongol steppes has for many centuries been known both to the West and to the East under the vague term of "Tartars," or "Ta-tzu." It embraces two great branches of the Asiatic race:—The Turkish (Hsiung-nu, Turks, Uigurs, Mongols, Kirghiz, &c.) and the Tungusic (Tunguses, Khitans or Liao Tartars, Manchus, Solons, Daurs, Orochons, &c.)

Of these the Hsiung nu, or Hun, empire was supreme in Mongolia from the 3rd to the 1st century B.C. A likely theory—which is, however, disputed—claims that the remains of this people, retreating before the Chinese

conquest, reappeared in Europe as the warriors of Attila.

The next great empire on the Mongol plains, extending at one time from Korea to the Caspian, was that of the Oghuz Turks (6th-8th century A.D.). They gave place to the Uigurs, who were superseded in the north by a branch of the Kirghiz, but maintained their sway in certain parts of Turkestan till the rise of the Mongols.

Though the name of the latter tribe appears in the 9th century A.D. in the Chinese annals, it took over three centuries before they emerged as a united ethnical group from the valley of the Kerulen, under the leadership of Genghiz Khan, to inherit the spoils of the Müchen (Kin) and Khitan (Liao) Tartars who were at that time masters of North China. Temuchin was born in 1155, but it was only in 1206 that he completed the cohesion of his native forces and proclaimed himself emperor, under the title of Genghiz Khan, to go down in history as perhaps the ablest administrator, organiser and captain ever known. Twenty years later his troops were victorious from Peking and Shantung to South Russia. Upon his death in 1227 his descendants, under the Great Khans Ugedei, Uiuk and Mangu, established their dominion from the Pacific to the Carpathians, and the Mongol conquests further in Poland, Hungary and down to the Adriatic were suspended only by Ugedei's death. The whole of Central Asia, the Caucasus, Russia, Persia, Armenia and the realm of the Caliphs of Baghdad had been annexed to the Mongol Empire. Finally the last Great Khan, Kublai, made Peking his capital in 1264 and established the Yuan dynasty in China, Indo-China and Tibet, failing only to subdue Japan in a magnificent attempt, far greater than the expedition of the Spanish Armada against England. Kublai Khan's reign was an epoch of busy intercourse between the West and East-years of material prosperity and enlightened administration. Upon this monarch's death his empire dissolved. The Golden Horde in Russia, the Gulaguides in Persia, the Djagatais in Central Asia, whose recognition of the Great Khan's authority had been nominal since the days of Mangu Khan, gradually disappeared from history's stage. The downfall of a race of conquerors, with nothing but their swords behind them, was swiftest where it came in contact with ancient Chinese civilisation. The Yuan dynasty did not last even a hundred years and was replaced in 1368 by the Mings. Before the energy of the Mongols vanished completely, it found, however, another terrifying manifestation in the person of Timur Leng (Tamerlane), (1336-1405) who again held the whole basin of the Caspian and of the Sea of Aral in his hands, set back the rising power of the Othman Turk, and was prevented from a new invasion of China only by his death. Finally we see his great-grandson, the gallant Sultan Baber (1483-1530), found the Empire of the Great Mogul on the banks of the Ganges, where his last descendant, the forlorn heir of the past glories of Akbar and Aurengzeb, still boasts the right to wear the crown of the King of Delhi.

These facts show the role of the Mongols in the framing of the history of the world. Reverting now to their own destinies, we find that the flight back to his native steppes, in 1368, of the last Mongol Emperor of China. Togon-Timur, was followed by a long period of warfare between the Chinese and their north-western neighbours, in which the Chinese, though often victorious, never succeeded, despite internal Mongol disunion, in establishing their sway over Mongolia. At the beginning of the XVth century the Western Mongols, or Oleuts (also known as "Oirats" -or mutually related four tribes of Tchoros, Hoyt, Hoshut and Torgut) seceded from their Eastern (Khalkha) relatives and henceforward embodied the Mongol spirit of enterprise until they were finally crushed by the Manchus. of their leaders, Yesen, even succeeded in capturing the person of the Chinese Emperor Ying Tsung, and held him prisoner for some years. Upon Yesen's death in 1453, one of the Khalkha princes, Dayan Khan, again united Mongolia under his sway (1470-1544), but made the mistake of dividing his dominions among his sons. From that time Mongolia has never risen from the position of a group of loosely connected principalities, cwned by the descendants of the sons of Dayan Khan, all claiming through

the latter and his forefather, Togon-Timur, direct lineage from the great Genghiz.

The elder sons of Dayan Khan inherited southern, or Inner, Mongolia. The best known among them and their successors were Altan Khan (1532-1585), who introduced lamaism in Inner Mongolia, and Likdan Khan (1604-1634), of the Chahar League, at the head of which he succumbed against the Manchus, whose conquest of China was preceded by an alliance with some of the Inner Mongols and by the subjugation of the others.

Outer Mongolia, or Khalkha, was inherited by the sixth son of Dayan Khan, Gueresandza Dzalair Huntaidji, at whose death Outer Mongolia was divided into petty principalities. His grandson, Abatai-Khan, helped to spread lamaism in Northern Mongolia and was the founder of the celebrated monastery of Erdeni Dzu on the site of Kara-Korum, the capital of the Great Mongol Emperors, near which all of them, even the Mongol Emperors who ruled China, were buried.

Menaced by an invasion of their western kinsmen, the Oleuts, the Khalkha Mongols at the rise of the Manchu dynasty in China had no choice but to put themselves under the protection either of the latter, or of their other neighbour-Russia. The choice was decided in favour of the Manchus by the famous Undur-Gheghen, the first reincarnation of the Djebtsung Damba Hutukhtu, or Living Buddha of Outer Mongolia, and the Khalkhas formally accepted the Manchu domination at the congress of Dolon-nor in 1691. Manchu administration was introduced into Outer Mongolia only gradually, anxious as the Manchu dynasty was-on the one hand to propitiate the Khalkha Mongols in view of the bitter struggle between the Manchus and the Oleuts, and on the other hand to pacify Outer Mongolia once and forever by peaceful means. It took a number of years, therefore, before Manchu (or Chinese) Residents or Superintendants were appointed to the chief centres of Khalkha, the privileges of the hereditary princes were respected, their vanity was frequently flattered, and they were deprived of their real authority by a concealed, but very efficacious, policy of economical subjection and by a clever fostering of the parasite of lamaism. These measures kept the Outer Mongols obedient to the Manchu dynasty to the day of its abdication in China.

Meanwhile the warlike Oleuts (or Oirats), the Western Mongols occupying Dzungaria between the Altai and the Tien-shan mountains under the rule of their hereditary princes, the Kontaishas (Hung-taidji), preserved an independent position. For them the XVIIth century, which witnessed the conquest of Outer and Inner Mongolia by the Manchus, was an age of expansion and victorious campaigns. Thus one of the branches of the Torgut tribe migrated about 1630 to the valleys of the Ural and of the Volga, where it became known under the name of Kalmucks. In 1640 the Oleut ruler, Batur-Hung-taidji, called a congress of Mongol princes which drew up a code of laws, based upon the code of Genghiz Khan which is still in force in the steppes of Asiatic Russia. The invasion of Tibet by the devout Oleut prince Gushi-Khan, of the Hoshut tribe, resulted in the transfer of political authority in that country, into the hands of the Dalai Lama. The Oleut khans Galdang, Tsewang Rabdang, Galdang Tsereng (1671-1745) made campaigns into Eastern Turkestan, Kukunor, Tibet, and into the Kirghiz and Khalkha steppes. In a long struggle against the Manchus however the latter were finally completely victorious. The conquest of Dzungaria was followed in 1758 by a merciless devastation, which left the former haunts of the Oleuts practically deserted. The Oleuts were later replaced there by the Kirghiz and by some of the Kalmucks

who in 1771 returned from the Volga to their native abode. The necessity of a solution of the Kalmuck question was the underlying motive for the despatch of the two Chinese embassies to Russia about 1730, the first Chinese missions to have been sent to any western capital. Upon the defeat of the Oleuts, their last Khan, Amursana, fled to Russia and the refusal of his extradition was for many years a thorny point in Russo-Chinese relations.

The conquest of Dzungaria by the Manchu dynasty was followed for the Mongols by a long period of peace. Mongolia proper remained divided into Inner Mongolia, in which the Chinese influence was naturally more strongly felt, and Outer Mongolia, or Khalkha, where the native forms of government were preserved with but a few changes. The destruction of the Oleuts' confederation left a series of Mongol tribes belonging to the latter and distributed in isolated clans, intermingled with other Mongol tribes, from old Dzungaria along a belt adjoining Mongolia proper, through Chinese Turkestan down to Kuku-nor. One distinct group consists of the population of Hulunbuir, or Barga, a district at the North-western extremity of Manchuria. The majority of the Mongols found themselves embodied, as described above, in the Chinese Empire such as the Manchu dynasty had created it. Outside of China, the great Mongol invasions left, ethnographically speaking, only a very few traces in the lands once conquered by them, such as Turkestan, Persia, and what were the Tartar kingdoms of Kazan, Astrakhan and Crimea in Russia. A group of Mongols has, however, remained in Russia as a result of the Oleut migration of 1630; these are the Kalmucks of the lower Volga and the Don river valley. A virile Mongol tribe, the Buriats, closely related to the Khalkha Mongols, occupy a part of the Irkutsk and Transbaikal provinces of Siberia. These number over 200,000 men and women and are the most enlightened, energetic and prosperous section of the Mongol race.

All these Mongol tribes find a bond of union in the same faith, in the same language and alphabet (with slight variations) and, with the exception of the Buriats and Don Kalmucks who have come more closely under Russian influence, the same forms of general tribal organisation and government.

TRIBAL ORGANISATION AND GOVERNMENT.

Originally a nomad people in the fullest sense, the Mongols have long been only half nomads. The various tribal organisations have become restricted to a fixed area, and even the individual nomad families now only have two changes of abode a year, in summer and winter, the same

family usually resorting to the same two places year after year.

The bases of the true Mongol tribal organization are the Aimak and the Hoshun. All true Mongol ideas of government consist in the ruling of the tribe by hereditary princes whose power over the persons of their people is theoretically almost unlimited. The Hoshun is the fief of any one ruling prince, its Jassak. In Chinese it is Ch'i, or Banner. The term principality may also with reason be applied. As regards the Aimak one cannot do better than quote some lines to be found in Colonel Baranoff's Vocabulary of Mongol Terms: "Aimak..... An ancient Mongol name for the fief of a prince, being a group of one or more principalities, which form the inheritance of one princely family. Thus the Aimak is a collection of one or more principalities bound together by singleness of descent and historical past, as the former possession of a single prince, ancestor of the various present reigning princes....... With the course of time the Aimaks became divided up into several independent principalities; none

the less, the connection between the latter was not broken, and the prince senior in the family is still considered the head of the Aimak." The Chinese name for an Aimak is, in the case of the four Khalkha Aimaks, "Pu," and for the Inner Mongolian Aimaks "Pu lo." It is loosely rendered in the Press as "tribe." The next term to be understood is the League, Chinese Meng, Mongol Chiguglan, Chugulgan, or Chulgan. This is a non-Mongol institution designed by the Manchus to weaken the true Mongol tribal organization and foster the gradual passage of power into the hands of the Ta Ch'ing nominee officials. In Khalkha the leagues were made to coincide in composition with the existing Aimaks. In Inner Mongolia the twenty-four Aimaks were irregularly grouped into six Leagues.

Each Aimak contains one or more hoshuns. Each hoshun has its ruling prince, known as Jassak; the senior in ancestry of the Jassaks of each Aimak is still recognized by the Mongols as historical chief of the Aimak. but has now left to him no authority and no duties in this capacity. The Jassak or Ruling Prince inherits his office by primogeniture and is confirmed by the Central Government. When the Ta Ch'ings took the various princes under their protection they confirmed them in their rights of ruling their own hoshuns and conferred upon them Manchu titles of nobility Thus all Jassaks belong to one of seven orders of nobility, namely: (Hosho) Ch'in Wang; (To lo) Chun Wang; (To lo) Pei le; (Ku Shan) Pei tze; Chen Kuo Kung (or Mongol, Ulusun Tushie Kung); Fu Kuo Kung (Ulustur Tusalakchi Kung; 1st class Taiji. The Ta Ch'ings, however, reserved to themselves the right to remove a Jassak from the administration of his hoshun for conduct unbecoming a prince. Each hereditary title of nobility carried with it a varying yearly allowance in taels and cloth material and also entitled the holder to a suite of attendants of a certain number, and various suchlike privileges. The Mongols are particularly fond of titles and privileges, and the Ta Ch'ings consequently obtained great success in their policy of weakening the Mongol princes by the fostering of mutual jealousies and rivalries. The various titles have been and still are conferred and taken away on the slightest pretexts.

Every Jassak had to appear in Peking once in three years to attend the New Year Court functions. Their turn to come was settled by the Li Fan Yuan (now Bureau of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs or Meng Tsang Yuan).

The Taiji are such hereditary nobles of Mongolia as have not received any of the six Manchu titles. The Taiji are divided into four classes, for each of which are allowed a certain number of Khamijilga or serfs to work for them. They form a hereditary nobility of persons almost always claiming descent from a common ancestor with the Jassak of their hoshun. All Jassaks that have not one of the six Manchu titles are necessarily first-class Taiji.

Besides the Jassaks there are other so-called sealless princes, i.e. Mongolian nobles who, though bearing Manchu titles, have no hoshun to administer. They are generally the descendants of former Jassaks who have been deprived of the seal of office.

The theoretical powers of the Jassak are very great. He controls and decides all the internal affairs of his hoshun. His subjects are practically his serfs, whom he may give away as dowry or as presents to Hubilgans, Gegens, and Hutukhtus (various grades of living Buddhas). He distributes the various state corvées to be furnished by his hoshun and decides disputes between his subjects. But in practice many Jassaks do little or none of the above in person. The experience that primogeniture does not always ensure suitable rulers has led to the institution of official posts, the occupants of which generally manage in reality the affairs of the hoshun.

The chief of these officials are :-

The Túsalakchi Taiji or, in Chinese, Hsieh Li Taiji, Civil Assistant of the Jassak. They are, nominally at any rate, chosen by the Jassak, from amongst the Taiji, and, on the recommendation of the Superintendent of the League, are confirmed by the Central Government. They generally have a dominating influence in the hoshun, and rule it altogether in the Jassak's absence or minority, or pending the confirmation of a new Jassak after the death of the last. There are generally two Túsalakchi, and sometimes more, in a hoshun, but only one usually administers the hoshun at any one time.

The Tzahírakchi or Military Assistant (Chinese Kuan Ch'i Chang Ching) is usually chosen for his knowledge and ability from amongst the non-Taiji or common Mongols of the hoshun. He nominally looks after the militia which the hoshun is liable to supply. For this purpose, and also for general administrative purposes, the hoshun is divided into a varying number of Somons (or Sumuns), each nominally supplying 150 horse warriors. The Somon is under a Tzangin or Tso Ling. Six Somons form a Tzalan. There are other officials both at the Prince's headquarters and in the Somons, which, however, vary very greatly in different parts and need not detain us. All the above officials are chosen by the Jassak, and their practical peace work in reality consists in tax collecting, criminal catching and other police work, or the routine work of the Prince's yamen.

In practice only one or two officials attend in turn at the Jassak's yamen to transact business. In case of necessity the Jassak calls a council of all his officials. In his yamen are settled criminal and civil judicial cases, the guiding book being a collection of former decisions of the Li Fan Yuan. Records are kept of affairs and expenditures, the clerks employed being known as Bichéchi. The Mongol Princes and their hoshuns pay no actual taxes to the Peking Government, but are bound to supply personnel for the maintenance of postal or "urton" communications where such are still maintained.

The smallest Mongol administrative unit is the "Bak," in each of which there is an elder.

Besides the two classes of the Mongols mentioned above namely (a) the princes, officials and nobles, or free people, and (b) the taxpayers, or serfs (albatu),—lamaism introduced two more classes among them, namely the lamas of all degrees, who, on taking monastic vows with the consent of their prince, are exempted from military service and the payment of taxes, and the vassals or serfs of various Living Buddhas and ecclesiastical dignitaries. These vassals are known as "shabinars". Many of the higher lamaist church dignitaries dispose of a great number of these serfs, the Living Buddha of Urga owning no fewer, for instance, than 100,000 in different principalities of Outer Mongolia.

Some of these generalisations apply not only to all the Mongols of the Chinese State, but also to the Volga Kalmucks and partially even to the Buriats of Transbaikalia. The Russian Government for a long time acted much in the same way towards the latter as the Chinese Government did with regard to its Mongol tributaries. In both instances even the old Mongol laws were taken into account, as far as the administration of justice is concerned. Their basis was the simple, yet not imperfect code of Genghiz Khan, in which most crimes must be atoned for by payment of a fine to the sufferers or their family in camels, cattle, sheep, or other valuables. It is characteristic that the one occasion in which death penalty is invariably decreed by this code is that of "disobedience" to the Great Khan or his adjutants of whatever rank, surely a heinous offence in a military state, the very foundation of which was order and discipline. As we have already mentioned, this code found a more modern adaptation for the Mon-

gols under the Chinese Emperor's sway, in the shape of the Code of the Li-Fan-Yuan, according to which Mongols where tried even in the boundaries of China proper, in derogation to the general law of the Empire, whereas in Russia the Kalmucks and several other nomad tribes are judged according to a recent adaptation of the "Steppe Laws" whose origin can also be traced through the Steppe Code of 1640 (vide supra) to the same Court Genghiz.

We will now proceed to outline the general divisions of the Mongols under Chinese sovereignty and the particularities of the administration of their branches within the general limits outlined above. Inner Mongols and the Mongols outside Mongolia not having been included in the Mongol question of recent years, we will begin with them and deal with Outer

Mongolia and Barga subsequently.

Inner Mongolia, consists of six leagues, namely:

1. The Djerim League, comprising:—six Horchin hoshuns (Djasaktu Wang, Tushetu Kung, Tushetu Wang, Darkhan Wang, Bintu Wang and Bo Wang), one Djalait hoshun, one Durbet hoshun and two Gorlos hoshuns (Aru-Gorlos and Ubur-Gorlos),—part of which, as Chinese colonisation progresses, has been included into the Mukden province; as also part of the Djosotu League;

2. The Djosotu League, comprising:—three Harachin hoshuns (Harachin, or Kalachin, Wang, Dunda Harachin, Dzung Harachin) and two Tumet hoshuns (Barun-Tumet, or Mongoldjin, and Dzung-Tumet); the Harachins are the most enterprising and civilised among the Inner

Mongols;

3. The Djouda League, comprising the following hoshuns:—Aokhan, Keshikten, Tsohor khalkha, two Bairin hoshuns, two Djarut hoshuns and

two Onniut hoshuns);

4. The Silingol League, comprising two hoshuns of each of the following denominations east and west):—Udzumuchin, Huchit, Sunnit, Abaga and Abaganar);

5. The Ulan-Tsab League, consisting of three Urat hoshuns and the

hoshuns of Durben Huhet, Mumingan and Khalkha;

6. The Iehedzu League (Ordos), consisting of the following hosbuns:—Dalat, Djungar, Khangin, Ushin, Otok, Wang and Dzasak.

The interior administration of Inner Mongolia proceeds in most places along the general lines indicated above, with the peculiarity that in every League the authority of the hereditary prince, or Jassak, of the League has been transferred to the institution of the President or Captain-General of the League (Mongol Chigulgan Darga or Daruga; Chinese Meng Chang), or to one of the great Chinese officials who severally supervise the affairs of one or other of the Mongol Leagues. The office of Chigulgan Darga, though filled by one of the Jassaks, is not hereditary, but elective. He is chosen by the Diet of the Jassaks of the League, and has to be confirmed by the President of the Republic. All the Jassaks of the League meet together periodically in a Diet to settle (a) judicial affairs in which persons of different hoshuns are interested; (b) economic and administrative matters concerning the whole League; (c) matters connected with the statistics about the League.

In Inner Mongolia under the Ta Ch'ings all positions filled by Mongols carried with them far less power than the corresponding ones in Khalkha. Thus in Inner Mongolia, the Diets of the Leagues are convened by order of the Peking Government, and a Chinese official is specially deputed to open the Diet, who in reality has all the powers of its President. The clerical work is done by Chinese. The President of the League or Chigulgan Darga has no power of initiative, and only sees to the execution of the Diet's decisions. The Darga has no power to interfere with a Jassak in the local administration of his own hoshun. The Jassaks refer to

the Darga only appointments to official positions or conferring of titles, and specially important grave sentences for crimes. The orders and decisions of the Peking Government are transmitted through the Darga. In addition the Darga has an assistant called the Ded Darga or Fu Meng Chang.

The control of the Chinese Government over Inner Mongolia is further strengthened by the fact that every one of the six Inner Mongolian Leagues is placed for general supervision under one of the Military Governors (Tuchuns or Tu-tungs) of Heilungkiang (northern part of the Djerim League), Mukden (remainder of the Djerim League, Djouda and Djosotu Leagues), Kalgan (Silingol League), Kueihuacheng (Kukuhoto-Ulan-Tsab League) and Ninghsia (Ordos). The Kalgan Tu-tung, who in civil matters depends upon the administration of the Chihli province, is moreover in charge of the 8 Chahar hoshuns camping along the outer Great Wall (four Eastern and four Western). Since the fall of their last chieftains in the struggle against the Manchus, the Chahars have no princes, but are administered, under Chinese supervision, by their gentry on semi-elective principles. The same applies to the Kueihuacheng (Kukuhoto) Tumets, whose administration is supervised by the local Tu-tung. The Tumets' consisting of two hoshuns, have to a considerable extent been assimilated by Chinese influence and depend in matters of civil administration on the authorities of Shansi province. Finally the Kalgan Tu-tung supervises the administration of the former Imperial herdsmen, these occupying the Dariganga territory of the Silingol League (camels), and certain parts of the Chahar steppes (ponies, cattle, sheep). The administrative organisation of the Imperial herdsmen, selected in former days from various Mongol tribes, is similar, on general lines, to that of the Chahars.

MONGOLS OUTSIDE MONGOLIA.

The greater part of these are the remains of the once powerful Oleut (Oirat) confederation. They consist of:

1. The hoshun of the Alashan Olouts (west of the bend of the Yellow River) under a prince of the first class, claiming descent from the brother of Genghiz Khan, and the hoshun of the Etsin-gol Torguts (on the river of the same name in Central Asia);—the first are supervised by the Ninghsia Tu-tung,—the second, by the authorities of Chinese Turkestan;

2. The 29 hoshuns of Kuku-nor and Tsaidam Mongols, supervised by the Chinese resident at Tsi-ning; Kuku-nor, or Ch'ing-hai, was made a

Chinese province in 1911;

3. The Mongols of Ili and Tarbagatai (ancient Dzungaria), supervised by the Chinese authorities of Sinkiang (Chinese Turkestan)—namely; a four hoshuns of Harashar Torguts on the Yulduz river; b. two hoshuns of Kurkarausu Torguts on the Djirgalan river; c. one hoshun of Chingho Torguts on the Chingho river; d. three hoshuns of Tarbagatai Torguts near Kobur-sar, and a group of Torguts, without princes, on the Tekes and Kungues rivers; e. three hoshuns of Hoshuts on the Yulduz river; f. a group of Chahars in the Borotala valley; g. two groups of Oleuts on the Tekes and Kash rivers. Neither the Chahars, nor the Oleuts have princes, and some small groups of them are moreover to be found in Tarbagatai. Most of the Ili and Tarbagatai Mongols are the Kalmucks which returned here from the Volga valley in 1771;

4. The Mongols of the Altai district, consisting of two hoshuns of Torguts on the rivers Bulugun and Chingil, one hoshun of Hoshuts, seven hoshuns of Altai Urianghais, some Kirghiz and the former military colonies near Bulun-tohoi; most of these Mongols also returned from the Volga; up to 1907 the Altai district was part of the Kobdo governorship of Outer Mongolia; it was then made into an independent administration unit under

a governor at Shara-sume (Ch'enghwasze) and has lately been included into

the dominions of the Sinkiang Tu-chün;

5. A group of Darhats, belonging to the Urga Living Buddha, in the Urianghai territory, which lies between the Sayan and the Tannu-Ula mountain ranges in the north-western extremity of Outer Mongolia; Urianghai was considered a part of the latter up to the Mongol insurrection of 1911; at that time the Russian Government renewed its claims to this territory, which was not included in Autonomous Mongolia and was later, for all practical purposes, incorporated into the Usinsk district of the Altai province of Siberia. The majority of the Tannu-Urianghai population, excepting the Darhats, are of Turkish origin and speak a Turkish dialect. Their several hoshuns are ruled by hereditary or elective princes. Russian colonists have begun to settle among them since 1870. As a consequence of the Russian revolution and the cancellation of the autonomy of Mongolia. Urianghai has again come under the supervision of the Chinese authorities in Outer Mongolia, but, in principle, the Urianghai question has been left pending until the constitution of a recognised Russian Government;

6. The Mannai-Oleut hoshun west of Tsitsihar in Manchuria—a group of Oleuts deported here by the Manchus after the destruction of their federation in 1758 and now ruled by a hereditary prince under the supervi-

sion of the authorities of the Heilungkiang province;

7. The Mongol bannermen, belonging to the eight Mongol banners of the Manchu dynasty's bodyguards, who are to be found in the various localities in which the Manchu bannermen were distributed, but chiefly in and near Peking; they are administered by officers appointed by the Central Government from among the Mongols, are very poor and play no

important role in any respect.

Most of what has been said with regard to the Chinese administration of Inner Mongolia also applies to their supervision of the remnants of the Olcuts and other Mongols outside Mongolia proper. The Central organ for the administration of Mongolian, Tibetan and Moslem affairs in Peking is the Mongolian and Tibetan Bureau (Meng Tsang Yuan) already referred to above, which has been presided over during the last years by the Harachin Wang, a Prince of the first class and the President of the Djosotu League, Kungsang Norbo. This is the institution which has taken the place of the former Colonial Tribunal (Li-Fan-Yuan) which, before the establishment of a Ministry for Foreign Affairs, conducted all the foreign intercourse of the Chinese Empire.

OUTER MONGOLIA.

AUTONOMOUS MONGOLIA. THE CANCELLATION OF THE AUTONOMY.

As we have already pointed out, the Khalkha, or Outer Mongols, voluntarily submitted to the Manchus at the Dolon-nor congress of 1691. Being separated from Chinese influences by distances and the Gobi desert, they continued to enjoy a greater independence in their interior affairs than the

Inner Mongols.

The process of splitting up into small principalities which had begun in the days of the Mongol independence, as we have seen, continued, until Outer Mongolia became divided into the 86 hoshuns of our time. These remained grouped into the following four Leagues, or Aimaks: 1. Tushetu Khan (20 hoshuns) 2. Tsetsen Khan (23 hoshuns), 3. Sain Noin Khan (24 hoshuns) and 4. Dzasaktu Khan (19 hoshuns). The hoshuns are distinguished by the titles of their ruling Jassaks and no definite list of their names can therefore be given. In every Aimak the corresponding Khans, or senior princes, continued for some time to play a leading role (the Tushetu Khans namely even in matters of frontier intercourse with Russia),—but gradually

their authority waned until they held a mere honorific position. Except for this difference the Aimaks of Outer Mongolia otherwise were governed very much on the same lines as the Leagues of Inner Mongolia.

The authority of the Manchu dynasty was represented in Outer Mongolia by Residents at Urga (with the title of Hebei-Amban, or in Chinese, Pan-shih-ta-ch'en, supervising the Tushetu Khan and Tsetsen Khan Aimaks) at Uliassutai (with the title of Chiang-chün, governing the Sain-noin Khan and Dzasaktu Khan Aimaks) and at Kobdo. The last named, also known as a Pan-shih-ta-ch'en, was in charge of a special district, occupied by part of the Oleuts deported here from Dzungaria after the breaking up of their confederation in 1758. The Kobdo district comprises two hoshuns of the Hoyt clan, fourteen hoshuns of the Durbet clan, the hoshuns of Dzahachin, Mingyt and Oleut and some military colonies of Khalkha origin.

A special group of Khalkha Mongols are the serfs, or Shabinars of the Living Buddha of Urga, who are scattered over the whole of Outer Mongolia. They are in charge of one of the abbots of the Hutukhtu, the so called Shantsotba, who ranked as president of a league and reported to the Urga Hebei-Amban. After the establishment of the Mongol autonomy these shabinars were distributed into 8 hoshuns under special Jassaks ranking as princes. Other dignitaries of the lamaist creed in Outer Mongolia also own shabinars (for instance the Djalhandza Hutukhtu in the Dzasaktu Khan Aimak); the shabinars as a whole represent about a third of the total population of Outer Mongoli, roughly estimated to be about 600,00.

The last Manchu Amban in Urga, by name San-to, adopted a very forward policy in his area. In 1911 barracks for a division of Chinese troops were begun at Urga and many Chinese military officers arrived there, the immigration of Chinese colonists, coolies, and traders was promoted, and Mongol princes were taken to task for their relations with Russians. The further San-to went in his pro-Chinese policy, the more the secret Mongol opposition increased.

The Mongol grievances against China were as follows:—The Mongols realized that the extension of Chniese colonization and the formation of Chinese garrisons meant the gradual extinction of that autonomy, the enjoyment of which the Ta Ch'ing Emperors had guaranteed to the Jassaks. Moreover, Chinese superior business ability caused the Mongol to be always the loser in any dealings with Chinese, and this caused a certain racial hostility; there was also a certain national aspiration which may be termed Pan-Mongolianism—a desire to see all the sections of the race reunited. This aspiration was connected with the legend of Amursana, the last of the Oleuts to withstand the Manchu power and who, it is said, is to reappear and lead the Mongol race to victory.

Urga became the centre of a conspiracy of anti-Chinese princes who gathered around the Urga Hutukhtu as their leader. In July, 1911, a secret deputation of Mongol princes proceeded to Petrograd to request the assistance of Russia in their proposed plans for safeguarding the autonomy of Mongolia and gaining its independence. The deputation was well received but obtained only an expression of willingness on the part of Russia to mediate between the Mongols and the Chinese, and an official Russian statement to this effect was made public shortly afterwards. In the autumn of the same year the Revolution broke out in China proper, and the Mongols seized the opportunity to carryout a coup d'état in Urga on December 1. Santo and all his subordinate Chinese officials and the Chinese troops in Urga were forced to quit Khalkha and return to China. The Urga Hutukhtu was proclaimed as Ruler of Mongolia. A Mongol Ministry of five portfolios was formed. But from the very beginning the influential princes in Urga split into two factions. One was variously styled the Princes' or pro-Russian Party, the other the Lama's Party. The first is sufficiently

described by its name; the second advocated a conciliatory policy towards China, the avoidance of warfare and the consequent scarcity and dearness of goods by the conclusion of a compromise with Peking, and the maintenance of the pacifist and lamaistic traditions of the people. At first the Da Lama, a most influential and popular personality, assisted by the Kharchin Prince Hai San Kung, universally recognized as the cleverest organizer of the coup d'état, seemed to have the upper hand. But later on in the autumn of 1912 a new post, that of Fremier, was created and filled by Sain Noin Khan for the express purpose of counteracting the Da Lama, who was Minister of Interior.

During the early half of 1912 the newly-formed Urga Government extended its authority first to Uliassutai and then to the district of Kobdo. The latter town and its vicinity was the scene of several engagements between the Mongols and Chinese troops based on the Altai district.

In the meantime the Chinese Republican Government was busy trying to counteract the secessionist movement. Having failed utterly to dissuade or overawe the Urga Government itself, Peking concentrated its attention on trying to retain the adherence of the Inner Mongol princes. Here the task was easier. Most of the Inner Mongol princes own property in Peking, and this could easily be confiscated in the event of their not acting as China desired. In addition, President Yuan Shih-kai and Kung Sang Norbo, head of the Mongolian and Tibetan Bureau, applied with considerable success the old methods of the Manchus in the bestowal of presents, rewards, titles, and decorations. The result was that most of the princes outside Khalkha and Kobdo outwardly, at any rate, declared their adherence to the Republic. But this meant very little because the territories of these princes often contained no Chinese soldiers, the princes could not in all cases answer for the attitude of their subjects, and often dared not return to their country for fear of Khalkha troops.

Meanwhile a start had been made with the creation of a Mongol army in Urga. During the latter part of 1912 Peking was constantly warned that the Khalkhas intended to move southward. In August, 1912, there occurred the first serious outbreak in Inner Mongolia. Prince Wutai, whose land lies around Taonanfu, raised a revolt in that area, possibly expecting outside assistance. No actual assistance was given, and the rebellion was speedily and severely crushed by the Chinese troops that were hurried up from Chihli. Wutai himself, with the remnant of his followers, fled to Urga.

Later on in 1913 bands of Khalkhas, together with many Inner Mongols, many of whom were well-known brigands in Manchuria, appeared in Ulantsab, Ch'ahar, Silingol, and northern Chou Uda and began to attack all Chinese. Chinese troops were sent up to repress them, and in most cases the Mongols had the upper hand. The chief effect of the skirmishes was to stop all Chinese trade with Mongolia for some months.

These military operations followed the barren exchange of despatches in 1912 between the Peking Government and Urga, in which the Mongols refused the Chinese invitation to join the Chinese Republic, claiming that their allegiance was due entirely and solely to the Manchu dynasty and that with the disappearance of the latter no political link remained to bind them to the Chinese. The subsequent Khalkha raids into Inner Mongolia were professedly undertaken to assist the liberation of the Inner Mongols from Chinese domination.

Russia had during the same year adhered to her intention to restore order in the Sino-Mongol conflict by mediating between the two contending parties. Negotiations were started with this purpose both at Peking and at Urga. When they failed the Russian Government determined to take

independent action in the matter, both for the protection of her interests and policies and in order to hasten the desired Sino-Mongol understanding.

The motives underlying Russian action were a desire to preserve a buffer state between her thinly-peopled empire in Asia and the areas inhabited by the ever-spreading Chinese. This desire was the result of a real fear of the Chinese from the economic point of view, and of the knowledge, based on experience, that the Chinese can easily out-trade the Russian.

Secondly, Russia had no desire to see a Chinese modern military force trained and quartered in Outer Mongolia. However inferior to her own troops, and however small this force might be, it would nevertheless constitute a menace against her long line of communications with the Far East, and in the event of another war on the Pacific coast Russia would have to set aside a suitable force to watch these Chinese troops in case they attempted a sudden inroad towards the Siberian Railway.

Thirdly, Russia, looking far ahead, wished to maintain free of any strong alien element all that part of Mongolia which lies north of the natural frontier which ought to bound her Siberian possessions on the south, the direction of which is generally roughly described as running from near Vladivostok along the vague line of the Gobi to near Chuguchak. This does not mean that there has ever been any serious question of annexing Outer Mongolia or of colonizing it. Russia has far too much to do in Siberia to desire the further burdens which would be represented in the colossal task of developing Outer Mongolia. But Russia would have liked it kept free from development by anyone else, or at any rate by the Chinese, so that it should remain a potential field for the employment of such commercial and industrial energy as may become superfluous in Siberia.

An agreement was signed at Urga between Mongolia and Russia on November 3rd (October 21st) 1912, pledging the latter's assistance for the maintenance of Mongol autonomy. A protocol annexed to this agreement defined and confirmed the rights of Russians in Mongolia under the new régime (vide Annex I).

The conclusion of these acts had the desired effect and, after protracted negotiations, an exchange of notes took place between the Chinese and the Russian Governments at Peking on November 5th (October 23rd) 1913, whereby the principles of Mongo. autonomy (in certain geographical limits) and of Chinese suzerainty over Mongolia were mutually recognised (vide Annex 2). These notes at the same time provided for the conclusion of a tripartite Sino-Russo-Mongol agreement which was definitely to settle the status of Autonomous Mongolia.

The Mongols were, however, by no means eager to enter into negotiations on lines which shattered their hopes of a complete independence, born from preceding developments. They considered that their position had moreover been strengthened by a treaty entered into between the Bogdo-Hutukhtu of Urga and the Dalai Lama, sanctioning the independence of Mongolia and Tibet and providing for a mutual alliance. Null and void as this treaty naturally was from the point of view of international law, it nevertheless expressed a valuable moral support on the part of the head of the lamaist creed (vide Annex 3).

Thus it came about that negotiations between the plenipotentiaries of the three contracting parties began only in September 1914, at Kiachta. They were preceded by the signing in that city of the Russo-Mongolian railway agreement (vide Annex 4) and ended as late as June 7th (May 25th) 1915 in the signing of the tripartite agreement, a full translation of which is given in Annex 5.

Autonomous Outer Mongolia became through this agreement a legally valid state,—a vassal of China, yet under the virtual protectorate of Rus-

sia. This international situation had a precedent in the status of the Danubian Principalities (Moldavia and Walachia) from 1829 to 1856. The status of Autonomous Outer Mongolia with regard to China was on general lines similar to that of Transvaal with regard to Great Britain, according to the treaty of 1881, or of Bulgaria with regard to Turkey until 1912. The Chinese Resident at Urga and Assistant Residents at Uliassutai, Kobdo Maimaicheng,—apart from the fact that they represented Chinese suzerainty in Mongolia,—were scarcely more than Consuls, and the Khalkha Mongols were left free to govern their internal affairs without any hindrance.

The sovereign of Mongolia, as has already been stated, was the Djebtsung Damba Hutukhtu or Bogdo-Gheghen,—(the Living Buddha of Urga) third in rank in the lamaist hierarchy, with the powers of an autocrat. The executive authority was entrusted to the five following Boards or Ministries:—Interior, Foreign Affairs, Finance, War and Justice. A semi-representative element was provided for in the form of a rudimentary Upper and Lower House. The former consisted of the higher dignitaries, religious and secular, and the latter of those of a lower grade, a certain number from each principality. Neither desirous of nor ready for a direct electoral system, the Mongol people gladly followed their patriarchal allegiance to their intellectual and administrative leaders, thus represented in the Houses and in the government.

The working methods of the autonomous Mongol government were primitive and slow, but they were adapted to the living conditions to the people for whom they were designed. No complicated administration was required for a small nation subsisting on the products of its flocks and herds. During the seven years of Mongolian autonomy there were practically no disturbances in the country, and the lonely steppes were more peaceful and safe than many a Chinese province. The ruinous feudal system promised to give way to principles of greater efficiency; the unwieldy Aimak Diets were left in charge of only the less important economic questions; the authority of the central administrations was gradually superseding the hold on the people of the hoshun officials and princes; a national Mongol bank had been organised and might have been a powerful instrument in the furthering of the welfare of the Mongol nation; a code of laws was being elaborated (1919) which was to replace the antiquated written or unwritten custom law prevailing in local courts of justice. In time all these developments ought to have given the best results not only for the Mongols themselves, but also for foreigners trading in Mongolia.

The Mongol insurrection of 1911-1913 severed the economic link between Mongolia and China. Outer Mongolia therefore naturally looked for economic assistance to Russia who in her turn got the opportunity to replace the Chinese traders in the Khalkha steppes Two loans were contracted by the Urga Government from Russia:—one for 400,000 Roubles in 1914 and another in 1915 for the sum of 2,000,000 Roubles.

The recognition of Mongolian autonomy coincided however with the Great War which handicapped Russia in furthering her Far Eastern policies. Instead of increasing and spreading, Russian trade in Mongolia first came to a standstill and then collapsed completely after the Russian revolution of 1917 and the ensuing Bolshevik coup d'état. The commercial relations with Russia, which had promised great benefits, were superseded by the restoration of traffic with China. Chinese trade scoring its first victory in the reopening of a branch of the Bank of China at Urga in 1918. Some of the Mongol princes now began to regret the old subsidies and honorific grants of the Chinese Government, which they had hoped—in vain—to see replaced by profits from the Russo-Mongol trade. The opposition between the princes' party and the lamas' party again grew acute for internal sconomic reasons. The princes resented more and more keenly not only

the influence of the lamas in the government under the protection of the sovereign of Mongolia, himself a Living Buddha, but the fact that the latter's and the chief lamaist dignitaries' serfs-one third of the population of Outer Mongolia as we have seen-continued to remain exempted from a number of taxes and other financial obligations, which had consequently to be borne by the secular population of the hoshuns, to the direct disadvantage not only of the inhabitants, but also of the local princes. The lamas meanwhile did not remain inactive in the preservation of their privileges. In the Spring of 1919 the President of the Mongol Council of Ministers, Sain-noin Khan, one of the most enlightened Mongol statesmen, died suddenly under mysterious circumstances. It was rumoured that he had been poisoned by the lamas. A lama was appointed to succeed him as President of the Council, namely Badma Dordji, the lama party continving on the other hand to find an active support in the person of the old Shangtsodba, the lama in charge of the Department of the Hutukhtu's shabinars. The death of Sain-noin Khan left prince Tsereng Dordji, Minister for Foreign Affairs at the head of the princes' party.

These conditions had not escaped the attention of the Chinese Government and afforded the desired opportunity for an attempt to bring back Mongolia into the Chinese fold. The underlying motives of the Chinese were a wish to keep the territory of China as large as it was under the Manchus; a wish to obtain new areas for Chinese colonisation and commercial expansion in Mongolia and a tendency on the part of the Chinese militarists to strengthen their position by taking the conduct of the Mongolian question into their hands. The pretext for Chinese action in this connection appeared in the form of the Pan-Mongolian adventure of Some of the followers of this General, assisted by a Attaman Semenoff. group of Transbaikalian Buriats, planned the establishment of a state which was to unite all the Mongols. They went so far as to proclaim a provisional Mongol government and spared no efforts to persuade the Urga authorities to rally to their standard. The only result of these intrigues was to cause considerable anxiety among the authorities of Outer Mongolia, who had every reason to distrust the rowdy troops and adventurers gathered round Attaman Semenoff and to fear their incursions and violence on Mongolian territory. The Urga Government refused to take a part in the pan-Mongolian movement and reaffirmed its intention to maintain the autonomy of Outer Mongolia. The government obtained the approval of these decisions by a congress of princes which, however, repeated their grievances with regard to the unequal distribution of taxes and impositions between laymen and the shabinars or serfs of the lamas. The Living Buddha rejected the princes' remonstrances.

The Chinese Government had meanwhile as early as March 1919 strengthened the guards of its Residents in Mongolia in derogation of article 7 of the Tripartite Agreement of 1915. The end of the Great War having deprived the Peking militarists of the pretext for the maintainance of the War Participation Bureau, a Presidential mandate, dated July 20th 1919. transformed it into the Frontier Defence Bureau and another mandate. dated July 18th, instituted the post of Defence Commissioner for the North-Western Frontiers, to which General Hsü Shu-tseng was appointed. text of the latter mandate put under the orders of "Little" Hsü not only the frontiers of Inner Mongolia, but also the adjacent territories, meaning Outer Mongolia, and made the Chinese Residents in Urga, Kobdo, Uliassutai and Maimaicheng depend on him in certain respects. Ignoring treaty stipulations, General Hsü despatched more troops into Mongolia, and the Chinese Brigade at Urga had by the autumn of 1919 reached the number The Chinese Resident at Urga had for his part been busy persuading the Mongols of the utility, under existing circumstances, of cancelling their autonomy and returning to Chinese allegiance. Not satisfied with the results of these negotiations, General Huü Shu-tseng in October 1919 personally proceeded to Urga and, so as to give colour to the Chinese version, according to which the cancellation of the autonomy was desired by the Mongols themselves, set himself to persuade the Urga authorities and the princes, by means of intimidation and bribes, "voluntarily" to hand in a petition to the Chinese Government, requesting it to admit Outer

Mongolia under Chinese sovereignty.

The Living Buddha refused to receive General Hsu in audience and referred the question raised by him to the Upper and Lower Houses. Their vote in the first days of November 1919 was uncompromisingly opposed to the cancellation of the autonomy, only the members of the government and a small minority expressing themselves favourably. The Living Buddha thereupon refused General Huu's suggestion. Roused by the Mongol opposition, General Hsü proceeded to amend certain clauses of the proposed Sino-Mongol agreement, which had been drawn up in the course of previous negotiations between the Urga Government and the Chinese Resident, Cheng Yi. These clauses promised favourable treatment to the Mongols. They were replaced by a brief list of eight conditions dictated by General Hsü himself, conditions far harder than those originally presented. General Hsü then informed the President of the Mongol Council of Ministers, Badma Dordji, that unless the document requesting the cancellation of Mongol autonomy was signed within 36 hours, both he and the Living Buddha would be arrested and transported to Kalgan. When this threat was reported to the Living Buddha he referred the question again to the Houses of Assembly. Contrary to expectation General Hsü's ultimatum did not shake the determination of the Mongol representatives. Even those who had hitherto been in favour of the cancellation of the autonomy for motives of personal interest, changed their views when they heard how General Hsü had substituted his own harsh terms for the original milder clauses. Great indignation reigned and armed resistance to the Chinese demands was suggested in the course of the debates.

Useless bloodshed in a struggle with the superior military strength of the Chinese was avoided through the personal influence of the Living Buddha. The Mongols ended by realising that their case was hopeless and on November 16th, 1919, the President of the Mongol Council of Ministers handed to General Hsü the petition demanded by him. The Living Buddha had remained firm in his determination not to sanction the signing away of the autonomy of his subjects and the petition bore the signatures of the Mongol Ministers and Vice-Ministers only. Nor was it approved by the Houses of Assembly Chinese soldiers were paraded near the offices of the Ministers while the petition was being signed by them, and in the case of the Minister for Foreign Affairs, Tsereng Dordji, were even introduced into his Office.

This petition, which had been dictated by General Hsü, pointed out the difficulties arising from the anarchy in Russia and the pan-Mongolian plans of Semenoff's Buriats, deplored the bad economic condition of Mongolia, expressed regrets that the easy conditions of the days of the Manchu dynasty had disappeared and concluded by the announcement of the cancellation of the autonomy of Outer Mongolia and the request that Outer Mongolia should be governed by the Chinese Republic. Referring to the petition, a Presidential mandate, dated November 22nd, 1919, made the following statement:—"The above petition is most sincerely expressed and displays the patriotism of the Bodgo-Djebtsung-Damba Hutukhtu Khan, princes and lamas who have as their ideal a Republic of Five Races, of the same origin. Their petition is hereby granted and the desires of the people of Outer Mongolia are hereby complied with. The dignity of the Bogdo-

Djebtsung-Damba-Hutukhtu Khan of Outer Mongolia shall hereafter bepreserved, and the rights and privileges of the Chiefs of the four Leagues and the Shabinar Administration shall be respected. The old system obtaining under the late Manchu dynasty is hereby restored, and specially favourable treatment shall be given to Outer Mongolia. I, the President, hope that peace and good relations will forever be maintained (between the Cetral Government and Outer Mongolia)." An honorific title was simultanecusly conferred upon the Living Buddha.

The Russian Minister at Peking and Diplomatic Agent at Urga, whom both the Chinese and Mongol Governments continued at that time to recognise in their official capacities, notwithstanding events in Russia, and who had duly protested against the infractions of Russo-Sino-Mongol treaties brought about by preceding Chinese activities in Mongolia, (namely with regard to the despatch of Chinese troops there,) also protested against the cancellation of the autonomy of Outer Mongolia in derogation of the tripartite agreement of 1915. Their protest stated that "treaties between States may not be cancelled by the one sided action of one of the contracting parties," that "Russia consequently maintains her unquestionable right to determine her attitude in this question as soon as a Government of the whole of Russia will have been recognised" and that "it remains in any case beyond any doubt that, whatever may be the attitude in this question of China and of Outer Mongolia, all the rights belonging in Outer Mongolia to Russia, Russian citizens and commerce" must remain intact and unscathed. This protest the Chinese Government answered by a Note dated December 10th 1919, in which it disclaimed responsibility for the infraction of an international treaty on the ground that the cancellation of the autonomy of Outer Mongolia had taken place by the desire of that country and adding that "with regard to the divers advantages of Russian citizens and commerce in Outer Mongolia, the Chinese Government recognises the necessity of their maintainance insofar as they do not conflict with Chinese sovereignty in Outer Mongolia and with the interests of Outer Mongolia."

Meanwhile a mandate of the President of the Republic of China, dated December 1st 1919, recalled the Chinese Resident in Mongolia, (an official provided for by the treaty of 1915) and replaced him by the Defence Commissioner of the North-Western Frontiers, that is to say-General Hsü Shu-tseng, who was simultaneously entrusted with the elaboration of detailed regulations for the pacification of Mongolia. On December 2nd the Mongols were disarmed by the Chinese, and the Chinese military authorities occupied the former Mongol Ministries. The latter's working staff was however maintained for the transaction of current business. The Mongol troops were disbanded. To strengthen his position General Hsu moreover opened a branch of the Frontier Development Bank at Urga. This bank had been chartered at Peking for the purpose of furthering industrial and commercial enterprise in Mongolia, but was really intended to give the Peking militarists a plausible pretext for the making of further loans for their own needs. The Chinese economic influence in Mongolia was also strengthened by the prohibition of Russian currency, which had replaced most of the Chinese currency in Mongolia after the establishment of the autonomy.

General Hsü Shu-tseng thus used Mongolia as a base from which he could safely pursue his ambitions in China itself. His triumph was short-lived however. In connection with the events of the summer of 1920 in Peking, which brought about the fall of the so-called Anfu party, General Hsü, one of the leaders of this party, was recalled from Urga. A Presidential mandate dated July 28th 1920, abolished the Frontier Defence Bureau and another mandate of the same date abolished the Frontier Defence troops (Hsi-pei-chün) under General Hsü's orders, putting them at

the direct disposition of the War Office. General Hsü was replaced at Urga first by Li Yuan, and then by Cheng Yi, the former Chinese Resident.

As may have been inferred from the afore-mentioned facts, the cancellation of their autonomy was anything but agreeable to the Mongols in spite of the petition extorted by Hsü Shu-tseng. General discontent prevailed. The members of the Lower House of Assembly, and the Living Buddha made attempts to bring their case to the attention of the civilised world-attempts which proved unavailing but which, nevertheless, confirm the true Mongol opinion on this question. The military supremacy of the Chinese alone prevented more violent anti-Chinese outbreaks. An indirect confirmation of the Chinese Government's apprehensions with regard to the deliberately overridden national feeling of the Mongols may be found in the Presidential mandates of August 15th and 31st, 1920; the first of these warned Chinese officials from renewing the practices which had alienated the sympathy of the Mongols in the past, expressed full veneration for the Yellow Religion (lamaism) and recommended special attention in the elaboration of the new lines of the government of Outer Mongolia; the second mandate conferred upon all Outer Mongolian princes and lamaist dignitaries a higher rank or honorific title than those which they had.

Finally on September 10th. 1920, a Presidential mandate promulgated the new Regulations for the administration of Outer Mongolia, a translation of which will be found in Annex 6. These regulations define the full powers of the Chinese Commissioners who were reinstalled at Urga, Uliassutai, Kobdo, Maimaicheng and in Urianghai and who were directed to report directly, through the Pacification Commissioner at Urga, to the President of the Republic and to communicate with the Mongol and Tibetan Bureau at Peking only for affairs concerning the Mongol princes' titles and the lamaist faith. These Commissioners (or Councillors) some of which may be Mongols, deal with all the central administration of Outer Mongolia, whereas the affairs heretofore included in the competence of the hoshun Jassaks are to remain in charge of the latter. Special provisions are made in these regulations for the establishment of Chinese courts of justice and police offices.

As we have already seen, Cheng Yi was appointed to the post of Pacification Commissioner in charge of Outer Mongolia. He had, however, to share his authority with the commander of the Chinese troops at Urga, one General Ch'u Ch'ih-hsiang, known for his anti-foreign feelings and whose role was enhanced by the recent disturbances at Urga. This town was attacked in October 1920 by well armed bands under Russian leadership, namely that of Baron Ungern von Sternberg, a former leading follower of Semenoff. The Chinese soldiers at Urga availed themselves of the pretext given by their attacks to plunder the foreign population of the town, including over 2,000 Russians, many of whom were imprisoned, illtreated and even shot under circumstances strongly reminiscent of the Boxer rebellion. Whatever the intentions of the bands attacking Urga may be, the Chinese themselves do not conceal that Mongol national feeling, exasperated by the arbitrary methods of government of the Chinese militarists, such as Generals Hsü and Ch'u, is with these bands and against the Chinese. A confirmation of this fact may be found in the imprisonment of the Living Buddha an unprecedented sacrilege-by General Ch'u, as also of many prominent Mongol princes. The forecast made by experts in Mongol affairs at the time of the cancellation of the Mongol autonomy, that this would only lead to trouble in Mongolia, has thus been confirmed. It is greatly to be feared that, under conditions prevailing in China itself and in Siberia, many months will have to elapse before the source of unrest in Mongolia will vanish. This is all the more regrettable as more conciliatory and equitable measures might have gone far in the furthering of Sino-Mongol

friendship which is now as distant as before the independence movement of 1911.

THE FALL OF URGA.

The unsuccessful attacks upon Urga in the Autumn of 1920, were followed by intermittent fighting in the vicinity of that city, which proved to be a prelude to the capture of the town by a mixed force of about 5,000 Russians, Buriats, Tibetans and Mongols, under the command of Earon Ungern. Prior to the final assault on the city, the Living Buddha was rescued from the palace in which he had been confined, by a band of Mongols, and removed to a place of safety. Urga was captured on February 3-4, 1921. The remnants of the Chinese garrison escaped to Kiachta; and an independent Mongolian Government under the Hutukhtu was immediately formed. Most of the Chinese troops, and Russian Jews and "Reds" at Urga were massacred. The invaders subsequently occupied Kiachta and Uliassutai, and advanced South to within three hundred miles of Kalgan. In April an emissary from the Living Buddha arrived at Peking who suggested a cessation of hostilities on the basis of Mongolian autonomy under Chinese suzerainty. As the Central Gvernment was in no position to finance an expedition for the reconquest of Outer Mongolia, this proposal was favourably considered, but following a Conference of the Super-Tuchuns (Chang Tso-lin, Tsao Kun and Wang Chan-yuan) Chang Tso-lin was appointed High Commissioner for Mongolia with full powers, and instructions to reconquer the territory. It was generally believed, however, that Ungern's coup was effected with his connivance and that no reconquest would be necessary if the Baron's attack on Chita proved equally successful.

THE HULUNBUIR (BARGA) DISTRICT.

ITS AUTONOMY. THE CANCELLATION OF ITS AUTONOMY.

Barga is the popular local name for the part of Heilungkiang Province which lies west of the Khingan range. To the Chinese it is known as Hulunbuir (derived from the names of two lakes, Kulun or Dalai Nor, and Buir Nor.) Its inhabitants numbering from 30,000 to 40,000 are collectively known as Barguts and consist of Buriats and Oleuts, who are Mongols; of Solons with some Orochons and Daurs, who are Tungus tribes; and of Chepchins, whose origin is doubtful. The tribal organization is as follows:—

Barga is divided into Shun or New Barga, containing eight hoshuns, and Huchin or Old Barga, containing nine hoshuns. The eight hoshuns of Shun Barga are all of Buriats, who, about 1735, migrated hither from the Tsetsen Khan aimak of Khalkha. Huchin Barga contains six hoshuns of Solons, two hoshuns of Chepchins, and one hoshun of Eleuts. The Solons and Chepchins were transported hither in 1732 from the Tsitsihar and Butkha districts of Heilungkiang Province, the Chepchins having earlier come from Khalkha to Tsitsihar. The Bargut Oleuts are descended from some of the soldiers of Galdang Tsereng Khan of the Oleuts or Jungars, who were captured by the Manchus in 1732 and settled here.

All the hoshuns have three Somons, except the Oleut hoshun, which has only two. This latter hoshun stands in many ways apart from the organization of the remainder. Shun Barga is divided into two wings, called Right (Daskun), and Left (Tsevul). The eight hoshuns of Huchin Barga are similarly divided, four Solon hoshuns forming the Tsevul wing and two Solon and two Chepchin hoshuns the Daskun wing. Each of the four wings is under an "uherida". Each pair of hoshuns is under a Golda (or Igilda). The hoshuns have no separate rulers. Each Somon is under a Tzangin. Under the Manchus the hoshuns were formed into the usual Banner Troops organization. Thus the eight hoshuns of Shun Barga and the eight hoshuns of Huchin Barga each formed a complete set of four

plain and four Bordered Coloured Banners. The whole of the above tribes are nomadic. The Orochons form two hoshuns standing by themselves.

The Buriats and Oleuts are lamaists, the other Barguts—shamanists. In January, 1912, Barga followed the example of Outer Mongolia. In the case of Barga also the hostility of the natives to the Chinese Government was evoked by the latter's policy for "strengthening the frontiers" and creating a Chinese element there. Since 1906 Chinese troops had gradually been introduced, new taxes and customs dues had been instituted, land had been set aside for settlement by Chinese, the general provincial system of administrative divisions and a post of Taot'ai were introduced, and lastly, in 1911, it was decided to institute a number of schools at which the Barguts were to be taught Chinese. Fearing that these innovations would gradually lead to the extinction of their national individuality, a congress of Bargut leaders in September, 1911, made the following demands to the Chinese authorities:—

- (a) Removal of Chinese officials and transference of the whole local administration to Bargut authorities.
 - (b) Removal of Chinese troops.

(c) Cessation of Chinese colonization.

The Chinese authorities refused, and the state of affairs in China proper gave the Barguts their opportunity to revolt. After two small engagements they turned all the Chinese officials and troops out of their

territory.

The new Bargut authorities first made overtures to the Russian representatives. Russia however advised the Barguts to negotiate for a compromise with China. These negotiations came to nothing, and then the Barguts entered into negotiations with the Urga Government, which only led to the conferring of honorific titles upon some of the Bargut dignitaries by the Bogdo-Hutukhtu. Desirous of definitely settling conditions in Hulunbuir, both on account of frontier relations and of the fact that the Chinese Eastern Railway passes through this district, Russia, as in the case of Outer Mongola, offered her mediation to the Chinese Government in this question. A Russo-Chinese agreement was consequently signed at Peking on October 24th, (November 6th) 1915, a translation of which will be found in Annex 7. It provided for the general lines of the autonomy of Hulunbuir and of its relations with the Chinese Government. Following this agreement the Bargut Shen Fu was appointed Fu-tu-t'ung (or governor) of the district, the interior administration of which remained practically the same as it had been under the Manchu dynasty.

The settlement made by the agreement of 1915 turned out to be quite The Russian revolution and its consequences in northern Manchuria nevertheless induced the Chinese Government, as in the case of Outer Mongolia, first to garrison Hulunbuir by Chinese troops, and upon the cancellation of the Mongol autonomy, also to cancel by Presidential mandate, dated January 28th, 1920, the autonomy of Hulunbuir, based upon the Sino-Russian agreement of 1915. The procedure was the same as that in Urga. A petition for the cancellation of their autonomy was demanded from the Barguts, who at first emphatically refused, but later, in the persons of two representatives sent to negotiate with the Heilungkiang authorities, gave in to the Chinese threats, disheartened as they were by developments in Outer Mongolia. This petition, which referred to disturbed conditions necessitating closer Chinese protection, was the official pretext for the Presidential mandate. The Russian Legation at Peking protested against this violation of an international agreement in the same terms as it had done with regard to the cancellation of the autonomy of Outer Mongolia and received the same answer from the Chinese Government. Chinese officials were reinstalled in Hulunbuir who again took over

all affairs, including those concerning foreigners, beyond the narrow scope of the Bargut tribal administration. The latter was left under the supervision of Kuei Fu, who had succeeded Shen Fu as Fu-tu-t'ung, and of his Bargue assistants, who were again made directly responsible to the Heilung-kiang provincial authorities, instead of the central Chinese Government.

CHINESE ENCROACHMENT.

When the Manchus ascended the Imperial throne of China in 1644, roughly speaking none of the country north of the Great Wall was inhabited by Chinese. Now large tracts of the above area are peopled almost wholly by Chinese, while in others the Chinese element is steadily increasing and thrusting out the former inhabitants. Manchuria, except for Barga and the mountainous parts of Heilungkiang and Kirin, is wholly a Chinese country. Large areas along the outside of the Great Wall have been incorporated in the Chinese provinces of Chihli and Shansi, and now contain far more Chinese than Mongols. The ts'ao ti (grass land), the great steppe-plateau which occupies all the centre of Mongolia, has also been invaded along its southern fringe; lastly, Chinese colonization has taken a considerable footing in the valleys between Urga and Kiachta.

The first of the Mongol nomad lands to be invaded by Chinese colonists were the aimaks of Kharchin and Tumet. This movement followed upon the choice of Jehol by the early Ta Ch'ing Emperors as one of their palaces. Probably encouraged by the favourable accounts given by servants and others returned from the Imperial summer resort and hunting grounds, thousands of Chinese began in the eighteenth century to flock through Kupeik'ou and Hsifengk'ou to occupy the untilled but fertile valleys of the

northern mountains.

From Djosotu League the Chinese slowly spread into Aohan, Onniut,

and other aimaks of Djouda League.

Chinese administration was not long in following Chinese emigration. Under Kang Hsi the region of Chihli province, which is now subject to the Governor of Jehol (Jehol Tu T'ung), was first parcelled into five T'ing, to which two more were later added. In 1778 a very important step was taken; it was decided to extend the general provincial system to this extramural area; in other words, to incorporate it in the eighteen provinces. It must be remembered that the new area was chiefly made up of Mongol land, originally administered exclusively by the hereditary Mongol Princes. Thus here we find the earliest example of that aggressive policy of Chinesification, so accentuated during the last three decades, whereby the Peking Government seeks to spread purely Chinese institutions into the countries surrounding China proper, a policy to which is chiefly due the secessionist tendencies exhibited in Mongolia and Tibet.

The pretext for the introduction of Chinese administration was the necessity for controlling the increasingly large Chinese population which even then was notorious for its disorderly elements. But, in the event, the remedy has proved of little avail. Extra-mural Chihli has ever been and still is remarkable for its robber bands, general lawlessness, and the re-

peated crises of disorder which have swept over it.

In the latter parts of the period during which we have already traced the spread of Chinese beyond Kupeik'ou and Hsifengk'ou, land-hungry farmers had also pushed out to the east and to the west of their first line of invasion. The provincial system of administration has been extended over Chahar and Kuihuacheng Tumet. But it must be remembered that theoretically the Mongol element continues to be ruled according to its original system of leagues, aimaks, and hoshuns by its Mongol princes and officials. Yet in practice the Chinese administrative organs yearly exert an increasing influence even outside their own proper sphere of the Chinese population.

Unlike colonization in the Djosotu and Djouda Leagues which was never promoted by the Chinese Government but was the outcome of natural causes, the settling of Chahar and other parts of the ts'ao ti (grass lands) has been pushed on by colonization bureaux which have been established at Kuihuacheng and Kalgan.

For a very long time the Ta Ch'ings actively opposed the spread of Chinese into Manchuria or distant parts of Mongolia. It was only in 1878 that they repealed the law that Chinese women were not allowed under death penalty to be taken to these parts. A curious survival of this prohibition is still seen in the fact that in Northern Mongolia and Northern Manchuria Chinese women as wives are only rarely to be found, while their number in any capacity is very small. The change in Ta Ch'ing policy to one of active promotion of Chinese immigration is due largely to the fear of Russia caused by the southward advances of the latter power in the years 1860 and 1900. In spite of Government disapproval, immigration had developed considerably in Manchuria and the adjacent fringe of the Djerim League even before the years 1876-1880 when the Government made various reforms and instituted bureaux for promoting the settlement of vacant lands. However, until 1902 the colonization of the Djerim League was really unaided by the officials. But in 1901 Governor-General (Chiang Chun) Sa Pao, alarmed by the Russian invasion of Manchuria and by the friendly attitude of some Korchin princes towards the foreigners, sent in an important memorial to the Throne strongly recommending that every means should be employed to plant a large Chinese element in Djerim and along the line of the new Russian railway. As a result of this memorial there was instituted an elaborately organized system of expropriation of lands belonging to the Mongol Hoshuns for the purpose of sale to Chinese farmers.

In general the system is as follows: In the hoshuns where it is proposed to expropriate land, offices called Ken³ wu⁴ chü² (colonization bureaux) are set up at certain points for the purpose of measuring and selling the lots. Each Mongol family has preserved for it a certain quantity of land in the place usually frequented by it. Land is also reserved for Mongol temples. The remaining land or such of it as it is proposed to expropriate is assessed under three classes, according to quality. Half the sale price goes to the Jassak (prince) of the hoshun concerned, half to the Chinese Government. To cover expenses of measurement 15 per cent on sale price is demanded in addition and an extra 15 per cent in the case of lands for villages and towns is levied and given to the Jassak. On purchase only seven-tenths of the total area is taken into account in reckoning the price. Mongols who require more than their share of land must buy from the expropriated land on the same conditions as From each "shang" of expropriated land sold a tax is collected. In the case of the hitherto virgin land this tax is, however, only levied after five years have elapsed. As stated above, before this Government organized system came into being there were already many Chinese farmers working land which they had acquired by some kind of private agreement. These already ploughed lands were often situated in the area destined for the official expropriation, and in such cases the workers had to make good their claims by purchasing the land from the colonization bureau at the same rates as if it were virgin soil.

Besides the free unaided colonization and the Government organized colonization two other forms were also used in Eastern Mongolia. Of these, one was colonization by soldiers and gangs of workmen. This was applied in a few cases where it was desired to found a Chinese settlement at a given point with the least possible delay. The other form was what has been called "commercial." Large Chinese firms bought considerable tracts of

land, which they re-let in small lots to farmers, having previously made the land suitable for agriculture by building farmhouses and digging wells. The owner lets it to the tenant for five years in exchange for half the yearly harvest. As a result the owner in these five years makes about 40 per cent profit on his outlay in improvements and buildings, whilst the value of his land has been increased by the labour of the tenant. The latter at the end of five years may buy the land outright.

To move to the other end of Inner Mongolia, we find that Chinese cotonization has slowly been extended along the borders of Shensi and Kansu and out along the great highways to Kuldja and Kashgar. This however takes us out of Mongolia, so we must pass on to the only remaining area where Chinese colonists have taken a firm hold, namely, in the valleys of the Tola, Hara Gol, Iro and Orkhon north of Urga. This movement began about 1880. With the object of forming a Chinese bulwark against Russian encroachment the Urga Amban began to foster the settling of Chinese farmers, to whom were allotted large areas in the fertile valley bottoms, in exchange for which they paid a small rent.

The influx of Chinese into this area was further promoted by the opening of work in the goldfields of the Iro basin by the Mongolor Company in the last years of last century. Nearly all the Chinese in the Urga-Kiachta region are Shansi men, lao hsi 'rh, except for a considerable community of Peking traders in Urga itself. A new impetus was given to Chinese colonisation by the cancellation of the autonomy of Outer Mongolia, and large parties of Chinese immigrants passed through Urga in 1920 on their way to the valleys near the Russian frontier.

In Barga, Chinese colonization was eradicated by the secession of that area in January, 1912. In Kobdo likewise the few Chinese colonists fled as the result of the fighting in the early half of 1912. In Altai also the Chinese colonists are very few.

In the above sketch only colonists have been considered, traders being left out of account, as they do not represent a permanent entity. Recent conditions which have made Mongolia economically entirely dependent on China, have contributed to the increase of the number of Chinese traders in Mongolia.

MONGOLIA AS A MARKET.

Trade in Mongolia has certain peculiar characteristics arising from the backward state of the country and its people and their nomadic form of life.

There is no regular currency in Mongolia. In those parts where Chinese predominate, some forms of the various Chinese coinages are in use. Chinese lump silver is accepted everywhere. Russian silver coins and Russian Government notes were also accepted almost everywhere in Outer Mongolia before 1920. Chinese notes and dollars are now also used there. But all the above methods of exchange are overshadowed by that of barter. The great volume of trade consists in exchanging the manufactured and food wants (more especially tea) of the Mongols for their live stock and its raw and semi-manufactured products. This barter system is in practice most advantageous to the trader because it obviates the profit of a middle man.

Another peculiarity of much of Mongolian trade is the necessity for credit in many transactions. The Mongol needs goods and food all the year round, but the live stock and raw products which he can give in exchange are only fit for acceptance at certain definite seasons. Cattle can

only be accepted to be driven a long way to China or Russia when it is already fat and has recovered from the winter scarcity, otherwise, if thin at the start, it would not stand the journey. Furs can only be given in the hunting season in autumn and winter, wool after shearing, and so forth. Thus the trader frequently has to wait a long period after handing over his manufactured goods before he can receive the raw produce or livestock for which he has bargained. This makes it necessary that the trader in his turn also should be able to command credit.

The Mongol has never been provided with superior quality goods, and the consequence is that he is mostly satisfied with inferior articles. He is of very conservative tastes, and having become accustomed to a particular class or pattern of goods he is loath to use any others, even though the new ones present many advantages.

Transport in Mongolia, if properly managed, may be made to cost very little.

Exports are in almost all cases exported by foreign traders. They include: (1) Live stock—horses, large-horned cattle, sheep, camels, goats. (2) Raw produce—sheep's wool, hides of all kinds, furs (including sable, marmot, bear, squirrel, fox), sheep-skins, camel's hair, horse-hair, fat, timber, salt from lakes and saltpetre, mushrooms dried, deer horns for medicinal purposes. (3) Semi-manufactured produce—felt imports, from or through Russia, included the following: cotton manufactured goods for clothing, metal goods, enamel-ware and hardware, dressed skins, sugar and sugar confections, groceries and haberdashery, iron, tobacco, spirit and wines.

The Chinese imports into Mongolia include: cotton sheetings and other piece goods for clothing purposes (the bulk of these were of British origin), silks, brick tea, meta! goods (e.g. cooking utensils, kettles, cups, jugs, basins, trivets, stirrups and bits, knives, ladles, axes, fire-tongs, buttons, needles); Borkhans (figures and pictures of lamaistic deities) and other ecclesiastical paraphernalia, incense and rosaries; flour, millet, Chinese vermicelli, cakes; wooden goods, e.g. cups and other vessels, boxes, cupboards, parts for yurts; paper; tobacco, pipes, snuff-bottles, mending-wool; brushes, combs; boots.

The following notes on Mongolian trade are taken from a Consular Report of the United States Department of Commerce:—

Comprehensive figures are hard to get because of the lack of a systematized statistical service. Foreigners who trade with Mongolia say that the only word to apply to its resources in pastoral products is "unlimited."

Several trade routes into Russia exist, and some into Manchuria, but at present the chief lines of traffic are through Lanchowfu in Kansu, through Suiyuan in Shansi, and through Kalgan in Chihli. Lanchowfu is reached from the Chinese coast by the Yellow River, and from there caravans cross the desert into central-western Mongolia. Suiyuan and Kalgan are reached from Tientsin and Peking by the Peking-Suiyuan Railway, which was opened to traffic as far as Kalgan in 1911, to Fengchen in 1915 and to Kweihwacheng in April 1921.

Kalgan, a gate in the Great Wall of China, 125 miles north-west of Peking, is the present chief entrepôt of Mongolian trade. It is a picturesque Chinese-Mongolian city of 60,000 inhabitants. The Mongolian Trading Co. in June, 1917, inaugurated a motor-car service between Kalgan and Urga. Camels remain, however, the chief carriers of freight.

Cattle and sheep for export through China come down to Kalgan on the hoof, and so plentiful is feed along the way that owners do not have to invest heavily in provisions. The animals travel by day and graze at night, reducing the cost of bringing them to Kalgan to a minimum.

Mongolian hides are no less plentiful than Mongolian meat. Furs of every kind come into Kalgan, from the costly sable to the countless and consequently cheap wild cats, whose fur forms the popular lining of Chinese winter clothes. Mongolian and Chinese furriers have not, however, learned the art of curing very well, and skins for export are now preferably shipped raw. Wool, it is stated on good authority, can be bought in Mongolia at 45s. a picul and transported to Kalgan for 30s. or 35s. It sold in Kalgan in 1917 at £9 a picul.

The manner of buying and paying for Mongolian produce is unique. Mongolia is still divided into tribes, and most of the tribal business is done by chiefs or princes. It is customary to make contracts in advance with the princes for any large quantity of goods, and the princes collect from their subjects the things that are desired. It is, of course, necessary to make advance payments on large contracts, for cattle, cereals, fur, and wool can be delivered only at a certain season, while the needs of the producers are constant. The investment of capital in Mongolian trading would mean an immediate and great expansion of that trade.

In past years payment has been made to a considerable extent by barter -the exchange of cotton and other wearing apparel, small hardware, tea, tobacco, etc., for hides, cattle, wool, etc. More recently the larger part of the payments has been made in lump silver, and Chinese and Russian silver and paper money. The Mongolians feel very keenly a need for a silver currency of their own, for Chinese silver is growing scarce, and the paper rouble and Chinese paper notes have been sadly depreciating. They also need increased banking facilities. The Bank of China has a branch at Urga, but the Bank of China has not been a very great factor in finance in the past two or three years, while the Russian banks in Mongolia have almost gone out of business. The Bank of Chosen (Japanese) has recently been authorized to operate in Inner Mongolia, and will probably issue notes for Mongolian circulation, as it is now doing along the line of the South Manchuria Railway. It was announced, November 29, 1917, that the Bank of Chosen hereafter would have a monopoly of the Japanese note issue in Manchuria, substituting its notes for those of the Yokohama Specie Bank now in circulation there.

No more definite data have lately been available on the trade of Mongolia, save the incomplete information which may be derived from the reports of the Kalgan Native Customs. The importance of this centre, which has already been pointed out, has increased of late as a consequence of the diminution of Russo-Mongol trade and the resumption of the Urga-Kalgan caravan traffic on practically the old scale.

An expert estimates that the total balance of the Mongolian trade amounts to about 15,000,000 dollars Mex. a year. It is computed that this figure does not greatly vary from year to year, notwithstanding the vacillations of Russian and Chinese trade:—the needs of the Mongols and their standards of living undergoing no change, whatever products may not be obtained in one of these countries are ultimately bought in the other one:—the general figures thus ought to remain the same.

Let us mention finally that Mongolia is very rich in every kind of mineral wealth:—little of this has, however, been investigated. One exception is the sc-called "Mongolor" concession, including vast rights in the Khan aimaks), the most valuable part of which are 16 gold mines near Urga. It is owned by a Russian company, but was in 1920 leased for a whole of the eastern half of Outer Mongolia (Tushetu Khan and Tsetsen term of 30 years, with an option for renewal, by the Peking-Mongotor Mining Company, the shareholders of which are Americans, British and Chinese.

ANNEX I.

RUSSO-MONGOLIAN AGREEMENT AND PROTOCOL OF THE 21ST OCTOBER (3RD NOVEMBER), 1912.

(Translated from the French).

As presented to both Houses of Parliament, February 1913. (China No. 1. 1913).

AGREEMENT.

In accordance with the desire unanimously expressed by the Mongolians to maintain the national and historic constitution of their country, the Chinese troops and authorities were obliged to evacuate Mongolian territory, and Djebzoun Damba-Khutukhta was proclaimed ruler of the Mongolian people. The old relations between Mongolia and China thus came to an end.

At the present moment, taking into consideration the facts stated above, as well as the mutual friendship which has always existed between the Russian and Mongolian nations, and in view of the necessity of defining exactly the system regulating trade between Russia and Mongolia;

The actual State Councillor Jean Korostovetz, duly authorised for the

purpose by the Imperial Russian Government; and

The protector of the ten thousand doctrines Sain-noin Khan Namnan-Souroun, President of the Council of Ministers of Mongolia;

The plenipotentiary Tchin-souzouktou Tzin-van Lama Tzerin-Tchimet,

Minister of the Interior;

The plenipotentiary Daitzin-van Handa-dorji, of the rank of Khanerdeni, Minister for Foreign Affairs;

The plenipotentiary Erdeni Dalai Tzun-van Gombo Souroun, Minister

of War;

The plenipotentiary Touchetou Tzun-van Tchakdorjab Minister of Finance; and

The plenipotentiary Erdeni Tzun-van Namsarai, Minister of Justice; Duly authorised by the Ruler of the Mongolian nation, by the Mongolian Government and by the Ruling Princes, have agreed as follows:—

ARTICLE 1.

The Imperial Russian Government shall assist Mongolia to maintain the autonomous regime which she has established, as also the right to have her national army, and to admit neither the presence of Chinese troops on her territory nor the colonisation of her land by the Chinese.

ARTICLE 2.

The Ruler of Mongolia and the Mongolian Government shall grant, as in the past, to Russian subjects and trade the enjoyment in their possessions of the rights and privileges enumerated in the protocol annexed hereto.

It is well understood that there shall not be granted to other foreign subjects in Mongolia rights not enjoyed there by Russian subjects.

ARTICLE 3.

If the Mongolian Government finds it necessary to conclude a separate treaty with China or another foreign Power, the new treaty shall in no case either infringe the clauses of the present agreement and of the protocol annexed thereto, or modify them without the consent of the Imperial Russian Government.

ARTICLE 4.

The present amicable agreement shall come into force from the date of its signature.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries having compared the two texts, Russian and Mongolian, of the present agreement, made in duplicate, and having found the two texts to correspond, have signed them, have affixed thereto their seals, and have exchanged texts.

Done at Urga on the 21st October, 1912, corresponding to the 24th day of the last autumn month of the 2nd year of the reign of the Unanim-

ously Proclaimed, according to the Mongolian calendar.

Protocol annexed to Russo-Mongolian Agreement of the 21st October, (3rd November), 1912.

By virtue of the enactment of the second article of the agreement, signed on this date between Actual State Councillor, Ivan Korostovetz, Plenipotentiary of the Imperial Russian Government, and the President of the Council of Ministers of Mongolia, Sain-noin Khan Namnan-Souroun, the Protector of ten thousand doctrines; the Plenipotentiary and Minister of the Interior, Tchin souzouktou Tzin-van Lama Tzerin-Tchimet; the Minister for Foreign Affairs, Daitzin-van Handa-dorji of the rank of Khan erdeni; the Plenipotentiary and Minister of War, Erdeni Dalai Tzunvan Gombo-Souroun; the Plenipotentiary and Minister of Finance, Touchetou Tzun-van Tchakdorjab; and the Plenipotentiary and Minister of Justice, Erdeni Tzun-van Namsarai, on the authority of the Ruler of Mongolia, the Mongolian Government and the Ruling Princes; the above named Plenipotentiaries have come to an agreement respecting the following articles, in which are set forth the rights and privileges of Russian subjects in Mongolia, some of which they already enjoy, and the rights and privileges of Mongolian subjects in Russia:-

ARTICLE 1.

Russian subjects, as formerly, shall enjoy the right to reside and move freely from one place to another throughout Mongolia; to engage there in every kind of commercial, industrial and other business; and to enter into agreements of various kinds, whether with individuals or firms, or institutions, official or private, Russian, Mongolian, Chinese or foreign.

ARTICLE 2.

Russian subjects, as formerly, shall enjoy the right at all times to import and export, without payment of import and export dues, every kind of product of the soil and industry of Russia, Mongolia and China, and other countries, and to trade freely in it without payment of any duties, taxes or other dues.

The enactment of this (2) article shall not extend to combined Russo-Chinese undertakings, or to Russian subjects falsely declaring themselves to be owners of wares not their property.

ARTICLE 3.

Russian credit institutions shall have the right to open branches in Mongolia, and to transact all kinds of financial and other business, whether with individuals, institutions, or companies.

ARTICLE 4.

Russian subjects may conclude purchases and sales in cash or by an exchange of wares (barter), and they may conclude agreements on credit. Neither "Khoshuns" nor the Mongolian Treasury shall be held responsible for the debts of private individuals.

ARTICLE 5.

The Mongolian authorities shall not preclude Mongolians or Chinese from completing any kind of commercial agreement with Russian Subjects, from entering into their personal service, or into commercial and industrial undertakings formed by them. No rights of monopoly as regards commerce or industry shall be granted to any official or private companies, institutions, or individuals in Mongolia. It is, of course, understood that companies and individuals who have already received such monopolies from the Mongolian Government previous to the conclusion of this agreement shall retain their rights and privileges until the expiry of the period fixed.

ARTICLE 6.

Russian subjects shall be everywhere granted the right, whether in towns or "khoshuns", to hold allotments on lease, or to acquire them as their own property for the purpose of organising commercial industrial establishments, and also for the purpose of constructing houses, shops and stores. In addition, Russian subjects shall have the right to lease yacant lands for cultivation. It is, of course, understood that these allotments shall be obtained and leased for the above-specified purposes, and not for speculative aims. These allotments shall be assigned by agreement with the Mongolian Government in accordance with existing laws of Mongolia, everywhere except in sacred places and pasture lands.

ARTICLE 7.

Russian subjects shall be empowered to enter into agreements with the Mongolian Government respecting the working of minerals and timber, fisheries, etc.

ARTICLE 8.

The Russian Government shall have the right, in agreement with the Government of Mongolia, to appoint consuls in those parts of Mongolia it shall deem necessary.

Similarly, the Mongolian Government shall be empowered to have Government agents at those frontier parts of the Empire where, by mutual agreement, it shall be found necessary.

ARTICLE 9.

At points where there are Russian consulates, as also in other localities of importance for Russian trade, there shall be allotted, by mutual agreement between Russian consuls and the Mongolian Government special "factories" for various branches of industry and the residence of Russian subjects. These "factories" shall be under the exclusive control of the above-mentioned consuls, or of the heads of Russian commercial companies if there be no Russian Consul.

ARTICLE 10.

Russian subjects, in agreement with the Mongolian Government, shall retain the right to institute, at their own cost, a postal service for the dispatch of letters and the transit of wares between various localities in Mongolia and also between specified localities and points on the Russian frontier. In the event of the construction of "stages" and other necessary buildings, the regulations set forth in article 6 of this protocol must be duly observed.

ARTICLE 11.

Russian consuls in Mongolia, in case of need, shall avail themselves of Mongolian Government postal establishments and messengers for the dispatch of official correspondence, and for other official requirements, provided that the gratuitous requisition for this purpose shall not exceed one

hundred horses and thirty camels per month. On every occasion a courier's passport must be obtained from the Government of Mongolia. When travelling, Russian consuls, and Russian officials in general, shall avail themselves of the same establishments upon payment. The right to avail themselves of Mongolian Government "stages" shall be extended to private individuals, who are Russian subjects, upon payment for the use of such "stages" of amounts which shall be determined in agreement with the Mongolian Government.

ARTICLE 12.

Russian subjects shall be granted the right to sail their own merchant-vessels on, and to trade with the inhabitants along the banks of those rivers and their tributaries which, running first through Mongolia, subsequently enter Russian territory. The Russian Government shall afford the Government of Mongolia assistance in the improvement of navigation on these rivers, the establishment of the necessary beacons, etc. The Mongolian Government authorities shall assign on these rivers places for the berthing of vessels, for the construction of wharves and warehouses, for the preparation of fuel, etc., being guided on these occasions by the enactments of article 6 of the present protocol.

ARTICLE 13.

Russian subjects shall have the right to avail themselves of all land and water routes for the carriage of wares and the droving of cattle, and, upon agreement with the Mongolian authorities, they may construct, at their own cost, bridges, ferries, etc., with the right to exact a special due from persons crossing over.

ARTICLE 14.

Travelling cattle, the property of Russian subjects, may stop for the purpose of resting and feeding. In the event of prolonged halts being necessary, the local authorities shall assign proper pasturage areas along travelling cattle routes, and at cattle markets. Fees shall be exacted for the use of these pasturing areas for periods exceeding three months.

ARTICLE 15.

The established usage of the Russian frontier population harvesting (hay), as also hunting and fishing, across the Mongolian border shall remain in force in the future without any alteration.

ARTICLE 16.

Agreements between Russian subjects and institutions on the one side and Mongolians and Chinese on the other may be concluded verbally or in writing, and the contracting parties may present the agreement concluded to the local Government authorities for certification. Should the latter see any objection to certifying the contract, they must immediately notify the fact to a Russian consul, and the misunderstanding which has arisen shall be settled in agreement with him.

It is hereby laid down that contracts respecting real estate must be in written form, and presented for certification and confirmation to the proper Mongolian Government authorities and a Russian consul. Documents bestowing rights to exploit natural resources require the confirmation of the Govern-

ment of Mongolia.

In the event of disputes arising over agreements concluded verbally or in writing, the parties may settle the matter amicably with the assistance of arbitrators selected by each party. Should no settlement be reached by this method, the matter shall be decided by a mixed legal commission.

There shall be both permanent and temporary mixed legal commissions. Permanent commissions shall be instituted at the places of residence of Russian consuls, and shall consist of the Consul, or his representative, and a delegate of the Mongolian authorities of corresponding rank. Temporary commissions shall be instituted at places other than those already specified, as cases arise, and shall consist of representatives of a Russian consul and the prince of that "Khoshun" to which the defendant belongs or in which he resides. Mixed commissions shall be empowered to call in as experts persons with a knowledge of the case from among Russian subjects, Mongolians and Chinese. The decisions of mixed legal commissions shall be put into execution without delay, in the case of Russian subjects through a Russian consul, and in the case of Mongolians and Chinese through the prince of the "khoshun" to which the defendant belongs or in which he is resident.

ARTICLE 17.

The present protocol shall come into force from the date of its signature. In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries finding upon comparison of the two parallel texts of the present protocol-Russian and Mongol-drawn up in duplicate, that the texts correspond, have signed each of them, affixed their seals and exchanged texts.

Executed at Urga, the 21st October, 1912 (o.s.), and by the Mongolian calendar, on the twenty fourth day of the last autumn moon, in the second

year of the administration of the "Unanimously Proclaimed." In the original follow the signature of M. Korostovetz, Minister Plenipotentiary: and in the Mongol language the signatures of the President of the Mongolian Council of Ministers, and the Plenipotentiaries, the Ministers of the Interior, Foreign Affairs, War, Finance and Justice.

ANNEX II.

RUSSO-CHINESE DECLARATION OF OCTOBER 23RD (NOVEMBER 5TH), 1913. (Translated from the authentic French text).

DECLARATION.

The Imperial Russian Government having stated the principles which it takes as a basis in its relations with China concerning Outer Mongolia, ard the Government of the Republic of China having expressed its approval of the said principles, both Governments have agreed upon the following:

I.-Russia recognises that Outer Mongolia is under the suzerainty of

China.

II.—China recognises the autonomy of Outer Mongolia.

III. - Recognising the exclusive right of the Mongols of Outer Mon golia to provide themselves for the interior administration of autonomous Mongolia and to regulate all commercial and industrial questions concerning that country, China undertakes not to interfere with these matters; she will consequently not send troops to Outer Mongolia, will have no civil or military officials there and will abstain from any colonisation of that country. It is however understood that a dignitary despatched by the Chinese Government may reside at Urga, accompanied by the necessary staff of assistants and by an escort. The Chinese Government may moreover, in case of need, have agents for the protection of the interests of its subjects in certain localities of Outer Mongolia to be defined in the course of the negociations foreseen in article five of the present agreement. Russia, for her part undertakes not to maintain troops in Outer Mongolia, with the exception of consular guards, not to interfere with any part of the administration of that country and to abstain from the colonisation thereof.

IV .- China declares herself ready to accept the good offices of Russia for the establishment of its relations with Outer Mongolia in conformity with the principles stated above and with the stipulations of the Russo-

Mongolian Commercial Protocol dated October 21st, 1912.

V.—The questions relating to the interests of Russia and China in Outer Mongolia and which have been created by the new order of things in that country will be the object of ulterior negociations.

In witness whereof the undersigned, duly authorised for this purpose, have signed the presented declaration and have affixed thereto their seals.

Done at Peking, in duplicate, on the 23rd of October—5th of November 1913, corresponding to the 5th day of the 11th month of the second year of the Republic of China.

(Signed) B. Krupensky, L. S. (Signed) Sun Pao-chi, L.S.

Proceeding to sign the Declaration of this day's date relating to Outer Mongolia, the undersigned, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of His Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, duly authorised for this purpose, has the honour to declare, in the name of his Government, to His Excellency Monsieur Sun Pao-chi, Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China, that:—

1.—Russia recognises the territory of Outer Mongolia to be part of

the territory of China.

2.—With regard to political and territorial questions the Chinese Government will come to an agreement with the Russian Government through negociations in which the authorities of Outer Mongolia will take part.

3.—The negociations foreseen in article five of the Declaration will take place between the three parties concerned who will designate for this

purpose a place for the meeting of their delegates.

4.—Autonomous Outer Mongolia will comprise the regions which have been under the jurisdiction of the Chinese Amban at Urga, the Tartar General of Uliassutai and the Chinese Amban at Kobdo. In view of the fact that no detailed maps of Mongolia exist and that the limits of the administrative divisions of that country are uncertain, it is agreed that the exact limits of Outer Mongolia as well as the delimitation between the district of Kobdo and the district of Altai will be the object of the ulterior negociations foreseen in article five of the Declaration.

The undersigned avails himself, etc.

(Signed) B. KRUPENSKY.

Proceeding to sign the Declaration of this day's date relating to Outer Mongolia, the undersigned, Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China, duly authorised for this purpose, has the honour to declare, in the name of his Government, to His Excellency Monsieur Kroupensky. Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of His Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, that:—

(The text which follows is identic to the one reproduced above).

The undersigned avails himself, etc.

(Signed) SUN PAO-CHI.

ANNEX III.

THE MONGOL-TIBETAN TREATY (1913).

The following is a translation from the Mongol text of the treaty between Mongolia and Tibet, signed on January 11, 1913:—

Whereas Mongolia and Tibet, having freed themselves from the Mongolian Dynasty and separated themselves from China, have become in-

dependent States; and whereas the two States have always professed one and the same religion; and to the end that their ancient mutual friendships

may be strengthened;

On the part of the Government of the Sovereign of the Mongolian people Nikta Biliktu da Lama Rabdan, Acting Minister of Foreign Affairs and Assistant Minister, General and Manlai Baatyr Bei-Tzu Damdinsurun; on the part of the Dalai Lama, ruler of Tibet, Gujir tsanshib Kanchen Lubsan-Agwan, donir Agwan Choinzin, Ishichamtso, manager of the bank, and Gendun-Galsan, secretary, have agreed on the following:-

ARTICLE I.—The Dalai Lama, Sovereign of Tibet, approves of and acknowledges the formation of an independent Mongolian State and the proclamation, on the ninth day of the eleventh month of the year of the Swine, of the Master of the Yellow Faith, Je-tsun Dampa Lama, as the

Sovereign of the land.

ARTICLE II.—The Sovereign of the Mongolian people, Je-tsun Dampa Lama, approves of and acknowledges the formation of an independent State and the proclamation of the Dalai Lama as Sovereign of Tibet.

ARTICLE III. - The two countries agree to take steps after an exchange

of views to establish Buddhism on a firm footing.

ARTICLE IV.—Both States, Mongolia and Tibet, shall henceforth for all time afford each other aid against dangers from without or within.

ARTICLE V .- Each State shall afford protection and assistance to the subjects of the other when travelling within its territory, whether on religious or state affairs.

ARTICLE VI.—Both States, Mongolia and Tibet, shall as formerly carry on mutual trade in the produce of their lands, in goods, cattle, etc., and

likewise shall open industrial institutions.

ARTICLE VII.—Henceforth transactions on credit shall be allowed only with the knowledge and permission of official institutions. When no such permission has been granted, no claims will be investigated by the Government institutions. Where agreements on credit have been entered into before the conclusion of the present treaty, in the event of the parties to such agreements being unable to settle matters amicably, the payment of the debts incurred may be enforced by the said institutions in cases where large sums of money are at issue; but in no instance shall the debts be the concern of the Shabinars or Hoshuns.

ARTICLE VIII.—If it should be found necessary to insert additional articles to this agreement, the Mongolian and Tibetan Governments shall appoint special plenipotentiaries, who shall come to an agreement in ac-

ccrdance with the requirements of the moment.

ARTICLE IX.—This agreement shall come into force on the date of signature, namely, according to Mongolian chronology, on the fourth day of the twelfth moon of the second year of the One placed on the throne by all, and according to Tibetan chronology in the year of the Water mouse, in the same month and on the same day.

ANNEX IV.

RUSSO-MONGOL RAILWAY AGREEMENT.

The following text is translated from the Official Gazette of the Russian Empire, October 29th (November 11th), 1914.

AGREEMENT.

In view of the necessity, resulting from the development of trade in Mongolia, to make a provision for the connection of Mongol railways with the nearest railway system, this being namely the Siberian Railway, by building corresponding railway lines, the Imperial Russian Government and the Mongol Government have, as a result of their friendly relations, mutually

agreed upon the following:

ARTICLE 1.—The Imperial Russian Government recognises the eternal right of the Mongol Government to build railways in the boundaries of its territory.

ARTICLE 2.—The Imperial Russian and the Mongol Governments will jointly consider and decide the most profitable directions of the railways which will meet the needs of Mongolia and Russia, and the order in which

the construction of these railways will be started.

ARTICLE 3.—The Imperial Russian Govrenment will assist the Mongol Government in the construction of the railways planned, either by building then at the expense of the Imperial Russian or of the Mongol State, or by means of private capital.

ARTICLE 4.—The Imperial Russian and the Mongol Governments, in the matter of construction of railways of connection with the adjacent Russian railways, will discuss the conditions of the connection of Russian and Mongol

railways, the rights and revenues of the country.

ARTICLE 5.—In view of the right of the Mongol Government to build railways on its territory, the Imperial Russian Govenernment will not interfere in the case of the Mongol Government's intention to build a useful railway with its own means. As for the granting to anyone, of railway concessions, the Mongol Government, in view of the deeply friendly relations with the neighbouring great Russian State, will previously to the granting of such concessions, enter into negociations with the Imperial Russian Government and consider with it whether or not the planned railways are harmful to Russia from an economical or a strategical point of view.

A translation of the Mongol signatures:—the Minister of the Interior of the Mongol State, Biliktu Kung Lama (signed) Tashidjab,—the Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, Hichienkuei Kung (signed) Tsereng Dordji.

The Imperial Russian Diplomatic Agent and Consul General in Mon-

golia (signed) A. Miller.

September 17th, 1914.—Kiachta.

Although the matter dealt with above has been the object of lengthy discussions of the Chinese authorities with various interested parties, it may be pointed out that this agreement is no more than a confirmation of the Russian option for the construction of any railway "in a northern, or north-eastern direction or, generally, from Peking in any direction whatsoever towards the Russian frontier", secured by an exchange of notes between the Chinese Ministers and the Russian Minister in Peking, dated May 20th and June 5th 1899, No. 79 and 81 (officially communicated to the Japanese Ambassador at St. Petersburg in 1910), confirmed by an exchange of notes between Prince Ch'ing and Mr. Lessar, Russian Minister in Peking, dated June 10/23rd and 11/24th 1902, Nos. 75 and 41, and again confirmed, with special reference to the Peking-Kalgan railway, in an exchange of notes between Prince Ch'ing and the Russian Chargé d'Affaires in Peking, Mr. Kozakeff, dated May 13th and 24th 1905, No. 66.-(These documents have been published in the Journal of the Russian Foreign Office, 1916).

ANNEX V.

Sino-Russo-Mongolian

TRIPARTITE AGREEMENT CONCERNING AUTONOMOUS OUTER MONGOLIA.

(Kiachta, May 25th-June 7th, 1915.)

(Translated from the authentic French text.)

The President of the Republic of China, His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of all Russias, and His Holiness the Bogdo Djebtsung Damba Hutuk-

htu Khan of Outer Mongolia, animated by a sincere desire to settle by mutual agreement various questions created by a new state of things in Outer Mongolia, have named for that purpose their Plenipotentiary Delegates, that is to say:

The President of the Republic of China, General Pi Kuei-fang and Cheng-lu, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of China to

Mexico:

His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of all Russias, His Actual Councillor of State Alexandre Miller, Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General in Mongolia; and His Holiness the Bogdo Djebtsung Damba Hutukhta Khan of Outer Mongolia, Erdeni Djonon Beise Shirnin Damdin, Vice-Chief, of Justice, and Tuchetu Tsing Wang Tchakdurjab, Chief of Finance, who having verified their respective full powers found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following:—

ARTICLE I.—Outer Mongolia recognizes the Sino-Russian Declaration and the Notes exchanged between China and Russia of the 5th day of the 11th month of the 2nd Year of the Republic of China, 23rd October, 1913.

ARTICLE II.—Outer Mongolia recognizes China's suzerainty. China and Russia recognize the autonomy of Outer Mongolia forming part of Chinese territory.

ARTICLE III.—Autonomous Mongolia has no right to conclude international treaties with foreign powers respecting political and territorial ques-

tions.

As respects questions of a political and territorial nature in Outer Mongolia, the Chinese Government engages to conform to Article II of the Note exchanged between China and Russia on the 5th day of the 11th month of the 2nd Year of the Republic of China, 23rd October, 1913.

ARTICLE IV.--The title: "Bogdo Djebtsung Damba Hutukhtu Khan of Outer Mongolia" is conferred by the President of the Republic of China. The calendar of the Republic as well as the Mongol calendar of cyclical

signs are to be used in official documents.

ARTICLE V.—China and Russia, conformably to Articles II and III of the Sino-Russian Declaration of the 5th day of the 11th month of the 2nd Year of the Republic of China, 23rd October, 1913, recognize the exclusive right of the Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia to attend to all the affairs of its internal administration and to conclude with foreign Powers international treaties and agreements respecting questions of a commercial and industrial nature concerning Autonomous Mongolia.

ARTICLE VI.--Conformably to the same Article III of the Declaration, China and Russia engage not to interfere in the system of autonomous in-

ternal administration existing in Outer Mongolia.

ARTICLE VII.—The military escort of the Chinese Dignitary at Urga provided for by Article III of the above-mentioned Declaration is not to exceed two hundred men. The military escorts of his Assistants at Uliassutai, at Kobdo, and at Mongolian-Kiachta are not to exceed fifty men each. If, by agreement with the Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia, Assistants of the Chinese Dignitary are appointed in other localities of Outer Mongolia, their military escorts are not to exceed fifty men each.

ARTICLE VIII.—The Imperial Government of Russia is not to send more than one hundred and fifty men as consular guard for its representative at Urga. The military escorts of the Imperial consulates and vice-consulates of Russia, which have already been established or which may be established by agreement with the Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia, in other localities of Outer Mongolia, are not to exceed fifty men each.

ARTICLE IX.—On all ceremonial or official occasions the first place of honour is due to the Chinese Dignitary. He has the right, if necessary to present himself in private audience with His Holiness Bogdo (ditto)

Hutukhtu Khan of Outer Mongolia. The Imperial Representative of Russia enjoys the same right of private audience.

ARTICLE X.—The Chinese Dignitary at Urga and his Assistants in the different localities of Outer Mongolia provided for by Article VII of this Agreement are to exercise general control lest the acts of the Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia and its subordinate authorities may impair the suzerain rights and the interests of China and her subjects in Autonomous Mongolia.

ARTICLE XI.—Conformably to Article IV of the Note exchanged between China and Russia on the 5th day of the 11th month of the 2nd Vear of the Republic of China, 23rd October, 1915, the territory of Autonomicus Outer Mongolia comprises the regions which were under the jurisdiction of the Chinese Amban at Urga, or the Tartar-General at Uliassutai and of the Chinese Amban at Kobdo; and connects with the boundary of China by the limits of the banners of the four aimaks of Khalkha and of the district of Kobdo, bounded by the district of Hulun-Bouire on the east, by Inner Mongolia on the south, by the Province of Sinkiang on the southwest, and by the districts of Altai on the west.

The formal delimitation between China and Autonomous Mongolia is to be carried out by a special commission of delegates of China, Russia, and Autonomous Outer Mongolia, which shall set itself to the work of delimitation within a period of two years from the date of signature of the present Agreement.

ARTICLE XII. It is understood that Customs duties are not to be established for goods of whatever origin they may be, imported by Chincse merchants into Autonomous Outer Mongolia. Nevertheless Chinese merchants shall pay all the taxes on internal trade which have been established in Autonomous Outer Mongolia and which may be established there in the future, payable by the Mongols of Autonomous Outer Mongolia. Similarly the merchants of Autonomous Outer Mongolia, when importing any kind of goods of local production into "Inner China," shall pay all the taxes on trade which have been established in "Inner China" and which may be established therein in the future, payable by Chinese merchants. Goods of foreign origin imported from Autonomous Outer Mongolia into "Inner China" shall be subject to the Customs duties stipulated in the Regulations for land trade of the 7th year of the Reign of Kuang-Hsu (1881).

ARTICLE XIII.—Civil and criminal actions arising between Chinese subjects residing in Autonomous Outer Mongolia are to be examined and adjudicated by the Chinese Dignitary at Urga and by his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia.

ARTICLE XIV.—Civil and criminal actions arising between Mongols of Autonomous Outer Mongolia and Chinese subjects residing therein are to be examined and adjudicated conjointly by the Chinese Dignitary at Urga and his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia. or their delegates, and the Mongolian Authorities. If the defendant or accused is a Chinese subject and the claimant or the complainant is a Mongol of the Autonomous Outer Mongolia, the joint examination and decision of the case are to be held at the Chinese Dignitary's place at Urga and at that of his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia; if the defendant or the accused is a Mongol of Autonomous Outer Mongolia and the claimant or the complainant is a Chinese subject, the case is to be examined and decided in the same manner in the Mongolian yamen. The guilty are to be punished according to their own laws. The interested parties are free to arrange their disputes amicably by means of arbitrators chosen by themselves.

ARTICLE XV.—Civil and criminal actions arising between Mongols of Autonomous Outer Mongolia and Russian subjects residing therein are to be examined and decided conformably to the stipulations of Article XVI of the Russo-Mongolian Commercial Protocol of 21st October, 1912.

ARTICLE XVI.—All civil and criminal actions arising between Chinese and Russian subjects in Autonomous Outer Mongolia are to be examined and decided in the following manner: in an action wherein the claimant or the complainant is a Russian subject and the defendant or the accused is a Chinese subject, the Russian Consul personally or through his delegate participates in the judicial trial, enjoying the same rights as the Chinese Dignitary at Urga or his delegate or his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia. The Russian Consul or his delegate proceeds to the hearing of the claimant and the Russian witnesses in the court in session, and interrogates the defendant and the Chinese witnesses through the medium of the Chinese Dignitary at Urga or his delegate or of his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia; the Russian Consul or his delegate examines the evidence presented, demands security for "revindication" and has recourse to the opinion of experts, if he considers such expert opinion necessary for the elucidation of the rights of the parties, etc.; he takes part in deciding and in the drafting of the judgment, which he signs with the Chinese Dignitary at Urga or his delegate or his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia. 'The execution of the judgment constitutes a duty of the Chinese authorities.

The Chinese Dignitary at Urga and his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia may likewise personally or through their delegates be present at the hearing of an action in the Consulates of Russia wherein the defendant or the accused is a Russian subject and the claimant or the complainant is a Chinese subject. The execution of the judgment constitutes a duty of the Russian authorities.

ARTICLE XVII.—Since a section of the Kiachta-Urga-Kalgan telegraph line lies in the territory of Autonomous Outer Mongolia, it is agreed that the said section of the said telegraph line constitutes the complete property of the Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia. The details respecting the establishment on the borders of that country and Inner Mongolia of a station to be administered by Chinese and Mongolian employees for the transmission of telegrams, as well as the questions of the tariff for telegrams transmitted and of the apportionment of the receipts, etc., are to be examined and settled by a special commission of technical delegates of China, Russia and Autonomous Outer Mongolia.

ARTICLE XVIII. The Chinese postal institutions at Urga and Mongolian Kiachta remain in force on the old basis.

ARTICLE XIX.—The Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia will place at the disposal of the Chinese Dignitary at Urga and of his Assistants at Uliassutai, Kobdo and Mongolian-Kiachta as well as of their staff, the necessary houses, which are to constitute the complete property of the Government of the Republic of China. Similarly, necessary grounds in the vicinity of the residences of the said staff are to be granted for their escorts.

ARTICLE XX.—The Chinese Dignitary at Urga and his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia and also their staff are to enjoy the right to use the courier stations of the Autonomous Mongolian Government conformably to the stipulations of Article XI of the Russo-Mongolian Protocol of 21st October, 1912.

ARTICLE XXI.—The stipulations of the Sino-Russian declaration and the Notes exchanged between China and Russia on the 5th day of the 11th month of the 2nd Year of the Republic of China, 23rd October, 1913, as well as those of the Russo-Mongolian Commercial Protocol of the 21st October, 1912, remain in full force.

ARTICLE XXII.—The present Agreement drawn up in triplicate in Chinese, Russian, Mongolian and French languages, comes into force from the day of its signature. Of the four texts which have been duly compared and found to agree, the French text shall be authoritative in the interpretation of the Present Agreement.

Done at Kiachta the 7th day of the Sixth Month of the Fourth Year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the Twenty-Fifth of May One

Thousand Nine Hundred Fifteen.

(Signed) PI KUEI FANG. (Signed) A. MILLER,
L.S.
CHENG LU.

L.S.

(Signed) SHIRNIN DAMDIN.
L.S.

(Signed) TCHAN DURJAB, L.S.

The Kiachta Tripartite Agreement of 1915 was supplemented by an exchange of notes of the same date, stipulating a complete amnesty, on the part of the Chinese Government, for all the Mongols who had submitted themselves to the Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia, confirming the right of the Mongols both of Outer and of Inner Mongolia freely to reside and displace themselves in those regions, confirming the right of the Mongols freely to make pilgrimages to Urga, to testify their veneration of the Living Buddha, and stipulating, finally that the telegraph offices, mentioned in article XVII of the Tripartite Agreement, would be handed over by the Chinese to the Mongol officials in a term of six months from the date of the signing of the Agreement and that the junction of Chinese and Mongol telegraph lines would be decided upon by the Technical Commission, provided for by the same Agreement.

ANNEX VI.

Provisional Regulatons for the organisation of the Administration of the Pacification Commissioner of the Urga, Uliassutai, Kobdo and Tannu-Urianghai regions and the institutions dependent on him. (Translated from the Chinese).

(Promulgated by a mandate of the President of the Republic of China,

dated September 9th, 1920).

ARTICLE 1.—In the present regulations the following districts are comprised in the Urga, Uliassutai, Kobdo and Tannu-Urianghai regions (Ku-Wu-K'o-T'ang).

1.—The Khalkha aimaks of Tushetu-Khan and Tsetsen-Khan of the

Urga region;

2.—The Khalkha aimaks of Sain-Noin and Dzasaktu-Khan of the Ulias-sutai region;

3.—The aimaks of the Durbets, Dzahachin, Oleuts and Mingyt of the

Kobdo region;

4.—The hoshuns of the Tannu-Urianghais.

ARTICLE 2.—The office of a Pacification Commissioner (Chen-fu Shih), who is to reside at Urga, is instituted in the Urga-Uliassutai-Kobdo-Tannu-Urianghai region; this Pacification Commissioner is to be appointed by special mandates of the President of the Republic and he will be in charge of the civil affairs of the aforesaid regions as also of those of the Tushetu-Khan and Tsetsen-Khan League, belonging to the Urga region; he will generally be in control of all the detachments of troops quartered in his region, of the detachments of police in the Mongol hoshuns, and, generally, of all affairs concerning military administration; he will furthermore, acting by full powers to be given by the Government, supervise finances,

justice, and administrative matters belonging to the sphere of competence of special governmental institutions.

ARTICLE 3.—Offices of Chinese (Han) and Mongol (Meng) Councillors (Ts'an-tsan) are instituted at Urga; they will be appointed upon selection by the President of the Republic and will help the Pacification Commissioner in the administration of the Tushetu-Khan and Tsetsen-Khan League in local civil matters and also in the administration of the police in the Mongol hoshuns of all the Leagues.

ARTICLE 4.—Offices of Councillors (Ts'an-tsan) are instituted in Uliassutai, Kobdo and in the Tannu-Urianghai region: these Councillors will be appointed upon selection by the President of the Republic and will be under the orders of the Pacification Commissioner; they will attend to the affairs of the hoshuns within the limits of the regions of which they will be in charge and may, moreover, by order of the Pacification Commissioner, be in charge of the military detachments and of the police detachments in the Mongol hoshuns in their regions.

Offices of Assistant Councillors (Fu T'san-tsan) are instituted at Uliassutai, Kobdo and in the Tannu-Urianghai region—one in each—these Assistant Councillors will be appointed upon selection by the President of the Republic and will assist the Councillors in the conduct of affairs.

The offices of Councillors and their Assistants will be filled both by Chinese and Mongols; in the latter case they must be selected from among the princes who will best satisfy all the requisite conditions.

ARTICLE 5.-The Councillors mentioned in the foregoing article will be in charge of the following regions:

1.—The Uliassutai Councillor will be in charge of the affairs of the Sain-Noin and Dzasaktu-Khan Leagues;

2.—The Kobdo Councillor will be in charge of the affairs of the two Durbet aimaks and also of the Oleut, Dzahachin and Mingyt, aimaks;

3.—The Tannu-Urianghai Councillor will be in charge of the affairs of the Tannu, Kemchik (right and left), Saldjin, Tudji and Kosogol administrations and of all the somons.

ARTICLE 6.—The office of a Chief of Civil Administration (Ming-cheng yuan), to be appointed by the President of the Republic, is instituted at Kiachta; the Chief of Civil Administration will be under the orders of the Pacification Commissioner and will be in charge of the civil affairs of his region as well as of the affairs of frontier trade.

The office of an Assistant Chief of the Civil Administration (Fu Mingcheng yuan), to be appointed upon selection by the President of the Republic, is instituted a Kiachta; he will assist the Chief of Civil Administration in the conduct of affairs mentioned in the foregoing paragraph.

The offices of Kiachta Chief of Civil Administration and of his Assistant will be filled both by Chinese and by Mongols.

ARTICLE 7.—In those localities of the Urga, Uliassutai, Kobdo and Urianghai regions in which traders reside (with the exception of Kiachta) special officers (Li-shih kuan) may be installed to take charge of local commercial and police affairs. Those affairs which have heretofore been in charge of the Jassaks (Hoshun princes) will continue to remain in their hands.

The special officers referred to above will be supervised by the Councillors and will be appointed by the Pacification Commissioner, who will report accordingly to the Ministry of the Interior.

ARTICLE 8.-Both Chinese and Mongols will be appointed to positions in the offices of the Pacification Commissioner, of the Councillors, of the Chief of Civil Administration and of the special officers (Li-shih kuan).

ARTICLE 9.—The Pacification Commissioner will be directly under the orders of the President of the Republic to whom he will report on all

questions enumerated in Article 2; he will moreover communicate with the

corresponding departments.

ARTICLE 10.—In all affairs concerning the granting of and the succession to titles and the reincarnations of lamas in the hoshuns, the Pacification Commissioner will be bound, according to the established order, to report to the President of the Republic and also to communicate with the Chief Administration for Mongolian and Tibetan affairs.

ARTICLE 11.—Should the Pacification Commissioner discern an infraction of the law or of the limits of their competence in the dispositions of the administrations under his orders, he may suspend their action or repeal

ARTICLE 12.—The Pacification Commissioner will report to the President of the Republic and communicate with the corresponding departments in matters concerning punishments and rewards of the officials under his orders.

ARTICLE 13 .- In affairs concerning military administration the Pacification Commissioner will, by order of the President of the Republic, be under the control of the Ministry of War, from which he will receive directions.

ARTICLE 14.—In affairs relating to military plans and dispositions the Pacification Commissioner, will, by order of the President of the Republic, be under the control of the General Staff, from which he will receive direc-

ARTICLE 15.—In affairs concerning the appointment or discharging of military officers under his orders, the Pacification Commissioner will report to the President of the Republic, or communicate with the General Staff and the Ministry of War.

ARTICLE 16.—The staff regulations of the office of the Pacification Com-

missioner and of all administrations under his orders are to be elaborated

additionally.

ARTICLE 17.-Before judicial institutions are established, tribunals (Shen-p'an ch'u) for the examination of civil and criminal cases may provisionally be opened in the places of residence of the Pacification Commissioner, Councillors and Chief of Civil Administration. Offices of judges (Ch'engshen yuan) may be established in the places of residence of special officers (Li-shih yuan) or the latter may themselves act as judges.

Regulations governing the organisation of courts of law are to be

elaborated additionally.

ARTICLE 18.-Police offices (Ching-ch'a chü) are instituted to be in charge of police affairs at Urga, Uliassutai, Kobdo, in the Urianghai region and also at Kiachta.

Regulations governing the organisation of police offices are to be

elaborated additionally.

ARTICLE 19.—The present regulations enter into force from the day of their publishing.

ANNEX VII.

Sino-Russian Agreement Concerning Hulunbuir (Barga) dated October 24th (November 6th), 1915.

Note From The Minister of Foreign Affairs of China to the Russian Minister at Peking.

Dated 24th October (6 November), 1915.

I hasten to inform Your Excellency that my Government has approved the Agreement, attached hereto, arrived at between us on the subject of the situation of Hulunbuir-which Agreement our two Governments will do their best to have accepted by the authorities of this district.

At the same time I have the honour to inform you, in the name of my Government, that the Uherida Shen-fu will be appointed by the President of the Chinese Republic first Fututung of Hulumbuir.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) LOU TSENG-HSTANG.

Note From The Russian Minister at Peking to the Minister of Foreign Affairs of China.

Dated 24th October (6 November), 1915.

I have the honour to inform Your Excellency that my Government gives its adherence to the Agreement, attached hereto, arrived at between us—which Agreement our two Governments will do their best to have accepted by the authorities of this district.

I am directed by my Government to take note of the statement which Your Excellency has made to me at the same time, namely that the

Uherida Shen-fu will be appointed first Fututung of Hulunbuir.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) B. Kroupensky.

AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE 1MPERIAL RUSSIAN GOVERNMENT AND THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA CONCERNING THE SITUATION OF HULUNBUIR.

ARTICLE 1.

The Hulunbuir shall form a special district directly subject to the Central Administration of the Republic of China. However, in case of necessity and in order to hasten correspondence the authorities of Hulunbuir may place themselves in communication with the principal authority of the province of Heilungkiang on whom they will depend.

ARTICLE 2.

The Fututung of Hulunbuir will be appointed by a mandate of the President of the Republic of China, and will have the powers of the Governor of a province. Only the five Uherida of Hulunbuir and such among the officials as have not less than Third Class rank shall be eligible for this post.

ARTICLE 3.

Two sections shall be created in the administration of the Fututung, the right, and the left. One of the chiefs of these two sections will be chosen by the Fututung, and the other by the Minister of the Interior. Their appointments will be confirmed by the Central Government of the Republic of China. Only those officials of Hulunbuir whose rank is not below the Fourth Class may be appointed to the post of chief of a section.

It shall rest with the Fututung to define the sphere of action of each of these sections, whose chiefs will be under his orders and will have no right of direct communication with the central authorities or those of other provinces unless with the authorisation of the Fututung.

ARTICLE 4.

In normal times all the military needs of Hulunbuir will be served by the local militia only. The Fututung will be required to report to the Central Government on all military measures which he has taken, giving reasons for the same.

In case of trouble in Hulunbuir which the local authorities would admit themselves unable to repress, the Central Government may send detachments of its troops into this district after having given notice to the Russian Government. When order is restored, these detachments shall be withdrawn from the territory of Hulunbuir.

ARTICLE 5.

The proceeds of all taxes collected in Hulunbuir as well as all the revenues of this district shall be used for local needs, with the exception, however, of the revenues of the Maritime Customs and of the Salt Gabelle which shall be received by the Central Government. At the end of each year the Fututung will be required to report the sums collected by his administration and give an account of how they have been expended.

ARTICLE 6.

Citizens belonging to the classes of agriculturists, artisans and merchants both of Hulunbuir and of China proper shall be permitted to circulate freely and to reside equally in China and in Hulunbuir. They shall be treated on an equal footing and no distinction shall be made between them.

As, however, the lands of Hulunbuir are the common property of all its people, the Chinese may only acquire land on lease for definite periods and only in such places where, according to the opinion of the local authorities, agricultural exploitation will not interfere with stock raising by the native population.

ARTICLE 7.

If in future the construction of railways is undertaken in Hulunbuir and foreign capital is required for these enterprises, the Government of the Republic of China will first ask Russia for the necessary funds.

The branch lines that the Chinese Eastern Railway Company and other Russian concessionaires with mining and timber concessions, etc., propose to construct in Hulunbuir for the transport of their material and products for export, may only be built with the permission of the Central Government of the Republic of China. This permission will be given to concession holders in case no special considerations forbid it.

It must be understood, however, that the above stipulation does not apply to the branch lines whose construction is already foreseen in the concessions of Russian subjects ratified by the Central Government of the Republic of China as is stipulated in the following article.

ARTICLE 8.

The Contracts which have been already made between Russian contractors and the authorities of Hulunbuir and which have been examined by a commission composed of Russian and Chinese delegates, are now confirmed by the Government of the Republic of China.

(Signed) B. Kroupensky. (Signed) Lou Tseng-hsiang.

ANNEX VIII.

ARTICLE VI of the Russo-Mongolian Commercial Protocol of 1912 was supplemented by the

Russo-Mongolian Agreement concerning constructions and allotments,

done at Urga on March 25th, 1917.

This agreement confirmed the right of Russian citizens to acquire allotments in Outer Mongolia as their own property, or to hold them on lease for a term of 25 years, for the purpose of organising commercial industrial establishments and for the purpose of constructing houses, shops and stores,—whereas, according to Mongol law, pastures and land for cultivation could only be leased and that for a term not exceeding three years. The agreement stipulated the price of the lease to be paid to the Mongol Government according to the nature of the different localities in which allotments could be obtained, the taxes to be paid, etc.

MANCHURIA.

[Reproduced from "Manchuria" in the "Peace Handbook" issued by the British Foreign Office.]

Position and Boundaries.

Manchuria, the north-easternmost dependency of China, is bounded by the Chinese provinces of Chihli and Mongolia on the west; by the Siberian provinces of Transbaikalia, Amursk, and Primorskaya on the north-west, north-east, and east; and by Korea on the south-east. On the south it projects into the Yellow Sea, the Liaotung peninsula being washed by the Gulf of Liaotung to the west and Korea Bay to the east. It lies between 38° 40' and 53° 30' north latitude and about 116° and 135° east longitude. The area is probably something over 350,000 square miles.

The frontiers on the north, east, and south are clearly demarcated, almost wholly by rivers and the sea. The western boundary is for the greater part undefined in any reliable document or map, and is political

or ethnical.

The diplomatic instruments in which are recorded the limits on the north and east of Manchuria between the Russian and Chinese dominions are the Treaty of Nertchinsk, 1689, the Treaty of Aigun, 1858, and the Treaty of Peking, 1860. By the first the Argun river was adopted as the boundary in the north-west, and this is the only portion determined in 1689 which has remained unchanged; by the second the Amur was made the frontier from the Argun to the Ussuri river on the north-east; and by the third the Ussuri, Lake Hinka, and a portion of the watershed as far as the Tumen river were fixed as the limits on the east.

Between Korea and Manchuria (provinces of Kirin and Shengking or Fengtien) the long-established boundaries are the Yalu and Tumen rivers, the sources of which almost meet in the highest summits of the Changpaishan (Ever White Mountains). A vexed question arose between China and Japan, after the Russo-Japanese War, in regard to a portion of the Korean frontier (Chientao): this dispute was settled by an agreement of September 4, 1909, in which the Tumen was adhered to as the boundary.

On the west, between Manchuria and Mongolia, the boundary lies between the grazing-grounds of Mongol tribes and the cultivated lands of Chinese immigrants from Chihli and Shantung. In some maps the line is drawn to include in Manchuria the Barükh (Barkhut, Bargu, or Barga) country in the north-west, but the Barükhs are nomads, under a separate organization like the Chahars on the Chihli border, and their country must in an ethnical sense be considered part of Mongolia; politically the Chinese regard them as neither Mongol nor Manchu. South of the Barükh country the administrative boundary has been steadily advancing westward with the movement of Chinese colonization, and is now west of Taonanfu in land traditionally Mongol. The south-western boundary of Shengking between that province and Chihli is an old-established one, and can be relied upon.

If Barükh is included in Mongolia, the boundary runs north_west and south-east, crossing the Khingan range in about longitude 120° east, and turns sharply eastward to the Nonni river in latitude 47° north; thence it trends south and west across the valley of the Liao and Ta-ling rivers to

the sea near Shanhaikwan.

Early History.—Before the conquest of China by the Manchus, Manchuria was the abode of various tribes of the Tungus race, sparsely distributed along the courses of the rivers. These tribes were known to the Chinese under many names, amongst which Khitan and Nüchên (Nüchih) stand out; they were mostly forest hunters, though those in southern Manchuria became to a large extent farmers. The Khitans made their first ap-

pearance in the beginning of the tenth century, when they established the Liao dynasty and ruled a territory embracing much of south-west Manchuria, east Mongolia, and north Chihli. Two centuries later they were in turn overthrown by the Nüchêns, who were the direct ancestors of the Manchus. In 1115 the Nüchêns founded the Chin (Golden) dynasty, and, a century later, were driven out by the Mongols under Jenghiz Khan; but their descendants, the Manchus, returned to power on the fall of the Ming dynasty (1644), and ruled the Chinese Empire until the revolution of 1911.

Treaty of Nertchinsk, 1689.—Early in the seventeenth century the Russian penetration of Siberia extended to the Amur basin and led to conflicts with the newly-established Manchu dynasty. These were put an end to by the Treaty of Nertchinsk (1689), under which the Russians were forced to retire behind the Argun river and beyond the Amur watershed on

the north.

Treaty of Aigun, 1858, and Treaty of Peking, 1860.—Early in the nineteenth century the attention of the Russian Government was again directed to the Amur, and an unsuccessful attempt appears to have been made to obtain from the Chinese the right of using it to facilitate communication with Okhotsk and Kamschatka. Later, under the active rule of Count Muraviev, Governor-General of Eastern Siberia, from 1847 onward the river was explored without reference to China, and settlements were established on its banks. In 1851 Nicolaevsk and Mariinsk were founded, and in 1853 Alexandrovsk and Constantinovsk were established on the sea-coast, all in territory which was unquestionably Chinese according to the Treaty of Nertchinsk. These encroachments, and others of a more warlike nature, arising out of the needs of the Crimean War, were the subject of protest from China, whose hands were tied by the Taiping rebellion and the disputes with Great Britain; and finally, under pressure from Maraviev, the Treaty of Aigun was concluded (May 29, 1858) to regularize the new conditions. Under this the whole of the north bank of the Amur from the Argun fork to the sea was recognized as Russian; the south bank down to the Ussuri as Chinese; and the territory between the Ussuri and the seas was to be held in common, pending a settlement of the frontier. Later, advantage was taken of the second Chinese war with Great Britain to press claims to the Ussuri country, and on November 14, 1860, General Ignative signed a convention at Peking under which China ceded this tract to Russia.

For over 30 years little more was heard of Manchuria. The port of Newchwang, opened by the Treaty of Tientsin (June 1/13, 1858), was the only point of general foreign interest, and that was purely commercial, until the quarrel between Japan and China over Korea brought the ques-

tion of Manchuria acutely to the notice of the European Powers.

Treaty of Shimonoseki, 1895.—Under the treaty of peace concluded at Shimonoseki on April 17, 1895, by Count Ito and Li Hung-chang, the southern portion of the Shengking (Fengtien) province of Manchuria was

ceded by China to Japan.

There had been for some years a current of opinion that the ice-free port in eastern Asia which Russia was in search of was to be found in the territory thus handed over to Japan. At all events, Russia, in the interval between the signature and ratification of the Treaty of Shimonoseki, invited the Great Powers to intervene in order to preserve southern Manchuria to China, on the ground that the occupation of Port Arthur by Japan would 'destroy the political balance of the Far East.' France and Germany fell in with this view, but Great Britain declined to do so. In May 1895 Russia, Germany, and France made joint representations to Japan, recommending her not to occupy permanently the territory ceded in southern Manchuria, and indications were given that the advice, if unheeded, would be supported by force of arms. Japan yielded to this coalition, and in a

Convention of November 8, 1895, retroceded the districts in question, receiving as compensation a money payment of 36 millions of taels from China In return for her services in this matter Russia was given by China the right to carry the Siberian Railway across northern Manchuria from Stretensk to Vladivostok (Chinese Eastern Railway); and it is further said that a secret treaty, known as the 'Cassini Convention,' but more probably an understanding negotiated by Li Hung-chang at Moscow, gave Russia the right in certain contingencies to occupy Port Arthur.

In connexion with this and latter events it may be mentioned that in 1896 an official statement was made in the Reichstag that Germany had come to an understanding with Russia on their respective interests in

China.

Lease of Port Arthur, 1898.—After the seizure of Kiaochao (November 1897, and while Germany and China were negotiating, the Russian fleet was sent to winter at Port Arthur (December 1897), and when two British cruisers put in there in January 1898 the Russian Ambassador in London was instructed to request their withdrawal 'in order to avoid friction in the Russian sphere of influence.' In March 1898, when the German Convention was signed, a demand for a lease of Port Arthur and Talienwan was put forward by Russia. A sharp correspondence ensued between the British and Russian Governments. The British Government were not opposed to 'the lease by Russia of an ice-free commercial port connected by rail with the trans-Siberian railway,' but pointed out that 'questions of an entirely different kind were opened if Russia obtained control of a military port in the neighbourhood of Peking,' and that the occupation of Port Arthur 'would inevitably be considered in the East as a standing menace to Peking and the commencement of the partition of China.' China, being unable to resist it, acquiesced in the demand; and the British Government received assurances that 'the Russian Government had no intention of infringing the rights and privileges guaranteed by existing treaties between China and foreign countries.' By an agreement of March 27, 1898, Port Arthur, Talienwan, and adjoining territory (Kwangtung), all of which had been retroceded by Japan in 1895, were leased to Russia for twenty-five years.

Exchange of Notes between Great Britain and Russia respecting Railway Interests in China, 1899.—In the spring of 1898 the Chinese Government entered into negotiations with a British bank to raise a railway loan, secured on the lines already constructed, for an extension of the North China Railway through southern Manchuria to Newchwang. The Russian representative at Peking, M. Pavlov, demanded that the British engineer should be replaced in the sections north of Tientsin, and objected to these railways being mortgaged to British subjects with a right of control in

case of default.

The British Government took the matter up strongly both at Peking and St. Peterburg as a breach of the Treaty of Tientsin, and in the end the British railway loan was carried through. At the same time an agreement was concluded between Great Britain and Russia, by an exchange of Notes on April 29, 1899, in which the former engaged: 'not to seek for her own account, or on behalf of British subjects or of

others, any railway concessions to the north of the Great Wall of China, and not to obstruct, directly or indirectly, applications for railway concessions in that region, supported by the Russian Government';

while Russia, on her part, gave an identical undertaking with respect to railway concessions 'in the basin of the Yangtze' and applications for railway concessions in the region, supported by the British Government.

Occupation of Manchuria by the Russians and Russo-Chinese Agreement of 1902 - During the Boxer outbreak the Governors of the Manchurian provinces declared war on Russia (June 1900), in obedience to the Imperial Decrees issued under the influence of Prince Tuan. Their sudden attacks created a panic along the Amur and led to savage reprisals, the Chinese population of Blagovestchensk, some 5,000 men, women, and children, being at the outset driven into the river. Soon afterwards Manchuria was overrun by Russian troops and proclamations were issued by the Russian commanders which amounted to declarations of conquest. In December 1900 a Russo-Chinese agreement, concluded at Mukden by the local Chinese authority, came to light, by which the province of Shengking (Fengtien) was placed under Russian control, and this was followed up by negotiations at St. Petersburg with the Chinese Minister for the conclusion of a formal convention which would, in effect, constitute a Russian protectorate over Manchuria. Some leading Powers advised China to abstain from separate negotiations with one Power while the joint conferences for the Boxer settlement were proceeding at Peking, and a strong Chinese opposition arose. The Chinese Minister at St. Petersburg was instructed to refuse his signature, and on August 6, 1901, the Russian Government issued an official communiqué to the effect that, their instructions having been misrepresented, the Convention was temporarily dropped.

Soon after the return of the Chinese Court from Sianfu to Peking (January 1902), Russia renewed her negotiations. She abandoned some of the demands which had been objected to the year before, and, on March 26/April 8, 1902, an agreement was signed at Peking which provided for the evacuation of Manchuria by stages in eighteen months. That the terms were so moderate was due to the support given to China by Great Britain, Japan, and the United States. It was soon apparent that they did not satisfy the Russian Government. In October 1902 the railway between Shanhaikwan and Newchwang was restored to the Chinese, and the country west of the Liao river was evacuated in accordance with the agreement; but when it appeared that, in the negotiations of Japan and the United States for the commercial treaties provided for in the French Protocol with China, three new ports were to be opened in Manchuria, Russia refused to carry out the second stage of evacuation until certain further demands, designed to rivet Russian control on Manchuria to the exclusion of all other foreign influences, were conceded.

Great Britain, Japan, and the United States again supported the Chinese in refusing the fresh demands, and representations were made by al! three Powers at St. Petersburg. China being unable to press matters to a practical conclusion, Japan, whose interests ranked next in importance, entered into negotiations at St. Petersburg and offered to recognize the special position of Russia in Manchuria if Russia would recognize that of Japan in Korea, and provided also that Russia would join with Japan in an engagement to recognize the territorial integrity of China and Korea, and to maintain the 'open door' in both countries. Russia refused to make the smallest concession, and the Russo-Japanese War resulted.

Treaty of Portsmouth, 1905.—The Treaty of Portsmouth, by which the Russo-Japanese War of 1904.5 was brought to an end, recognized the 'predominant political, military, and economic interests' in Korea of Japan; provided for the simultaneous evacuation of Manchuria by the forces of Russia and Japan; and transferred to Japan the Russian lease of Kwantung (Liaotung) with all the privileges attaching, including that portion of the Chinese Eastern Railway south of Kwanchengtze (Changchun). Manchuria, except the leased territory, was to be restored 'entirely and completely to the exclusive administration of China,' whose consent to the transfer of Liaotung to Japan was to be obtained. Russia disavowed the possession of exclusive rights in Manchuria inconsistent with the 'open door,' and Japan and Russia

"engaged reciprocally not to obstruct any general measures common to all nations which China might take for the development of commerce and

industry in Manchuria."

The southern part of the island of Sakhalin up to the 50th parallel of north latitude was ceded by Russia to Japan under Article IX of the Treaty of Portsmouth. Japan and Russia mutually agreed not to construct fortifications in their possessions on Sakhalin or on the adjacent islands, and not to take any military measures which could impede the free navigation of the Straits of La Pérouse and Tartary.

In Article XI of the same treaty Russia undertook to come to an agreement with Japan to concede to Japanese subjects fishery rights along

the Russian coasts in the Seas of Japan, Okhotsk, and Behring.

Treaty of Peking and Additional Agreement between China and Japan respecting Manchuria, 1905.—China's consent to the transfers and assignments made by Russia to Japan by the Treaty of Portsmouth was obtained in a treaty between Japan and China signed at Peking on December 22, 1905. In an Additional Agreement regulating railway and other matters, China engaged to open a number of towns in all three provinces of Manchuria to international residence and trade. China's own position in Manchuria was not greatly altered by these documents: she had two Powers to deal with instead of one, for Russia retained her railway zone in northern Manchuria; but in the south Japan was at this period more conciliatory in her methods than Russia had been.

Agreements between China and Japan, 1909.—But vexed questions arose with Japan over Manchurian affairs, and the tension was not removed until the conclusion of two agreements (September 4, 1909), in one of which the Tumen river was made the boundary between China and Korea, and Koreans were allowed to settle freely in the border district of Chientao, but were made subject to Chinese jurisdiction; in the other railway and mining

questions were arranged.

Policy of the United States, 1909.—After the Russo-Japanese War there had been a marked tendency on the part of the United States to champion the rights of China against Japan. In 1909 an active policy, commercially and politically, was inaugurated by President Taft in China, and the first step taken was to insist on the participation of American financiers in the Hukuang railway loan. The real aim, however, was Manchuria, where there had been for years a special American trade interest. An American group was given a concession for a railway in Manchuria from Chinchow to Aigun, and in November 1909 an unsuccessful proposal for the neutralization of railways in Manchuria was made to Great Britain. France, Germany, Russia, Japan, and China by the American Secretary of State.

Russo-Japanese Convention, 1910.—Shortly afterwards (July 4, 1910) and no doubt in consequence of this last proposal, Japan and Russia signed a Convention in which the two Powers agreed to work together on Manchurian questions and to maintain the status quo in Manchuria resulting from treaties and other arrangements concluded up to date between Japan and

Russia, or between either of them and China.

The treaty of August 22, 1910, by which Japan annexed Korea, altered the status of the numerous Koreans inhabiting the Chinese borderlands, and entitled them to the privileges of Japanese consular jurisdiction. This must be noted as an important addition to Japanese interests in southern Man-

churia.

Treaty of Tsitsihar, 1911 - Since the Russo-Japanese War China has been disposed to treat Russian affairs with little consideration, and disputes connected with the long Siberian frontier accumulated. The conclusion of the 1910 Convention with Japan emboldened Russia to take a stronger line with China, and on February 16, 1911, she made a series of demands at Peking to secure the full enjoyment of the 1881 treaty, which she alleged

had been practically abrogated. After a long discussion, on March 24 an ultimatum was delivered by Russia, and the acute controversy was closed by a note of the Wai-wu Pu accepting the Russian demands completely and unequivocally. Later (December 20, 1911) a treaty was concluded at Tsitsihar delimiting the frontier in northern Mongolia from 'frontier point No. 58 to frontier point No. 63 and further along the Mutny tributary up to the River Argun,' and thence along the Argun to the Amur.

Treaties and Exchange of Notes between China and Japan, 1915.—
Following the capture of Kiaochao (November 7, 1914) Japan made a series of demands upon China. Some of these were reduced in the course of the subsequent negotiations; but in the treaties and exchange of Notes which recorded the final settlement (May 25, 1915) the following terms relating

to South Manchuria were included:

1. The term of the lease of Port Arthur and Talienwan, and the terms of the South Manchurian and Antung railway concessions, were extended.

2. Japanese subjects were privileged to lease land and to trade throughout South Manchuria.

3. Mining areas in South Manchuria were allotted to Japanese enterprise.

4. A preference was given to Japanese capital if required for railways in South Manchuria, or if loans were made on the security of the local 'taxes; and

5. If foreign advisers or instructors on political, financial, military, or police matters were to be employed in South Manchuria, Japanese were 'to be employed first.'

It is noteworthy that the "South Manchuria" of these documents is an indefinite term and the interpretation of it may easily lead to disputes.

Russia agreed that neither should be 'a party to any political arrangement or combination directed against' either of them, and to 'take counsel of each other as to the measures to be taken in view of the support or the help to be given in order to safeguard or defend the territorial rights or the special interests in the Far East of one of the contracting parties' should these be threatened.

Concurrently with the conclusion of this treaty, the Russian Government ceded 60 miles of the Chinese Eastern Railway between Changchun and the River Sungari to Japan, in appreciation of the goodwill shown by the latter since the commencement of the war in regard to the supply of munitions. In addition, Russia agreed to recognize, so far as she was concerned, Japan's right of navigation on the Sungari between Kirin and the junction of the rivers Nonni and Sungari. This right was secured to Russia under Article II of the Aigun Treaty of 1858 between China and Russia; hitherto it had been exercised only by Russian and Chinese subjects.

THE HUNCHUN INCIDENT.

The incidents which led to the military occupation of the Hunchun District (on the Korean-Manchurian Frontier) by Japanese troops are thus

described in the 1920 Customs report:

On the 12th September, at 6 a.m., a band of robbers, whose strength is variously reported between 75 and 150 men, entered the town and held it practically unopposed for two hours, during which time 190 chien of houses were burnt, 94 shops looted, among them the official bank, and about 90 persons, including seven Koreans, taken away. The raiders did not invade the western suburb or trade mart, where the foreign, i.e., Japanese, community lives. Customs funds, amounting to Hk. Tls. 2.000, were lost in this raid. The casualties were trifling, which is easily explained by the lack of resistance on the part of the military. In the next few days 50

armed Japanese police arrived from Korea for the protection of the Japanese Consulate, but were promptly withdrawn. The bulk of the local garrison, consisting of two battalions of the 2nd Kirin Mixed Brigade, under the command of Majors Wu En-ch'eng and Ting Ch'i-ch'ang scattered in pursuit of the bandits. Nevertheless, on the 30th September a military detachment posted at Mikiang, some 60 li west of Hunchun, was captured by, and 20,000 rounds of ammunition lost, to, a second gang of robbers numbering, according to reports, from 400 to 600 men, some six Russians but no Koreans amongst them. This gang fell upon the town on the 2nd October at dawn, sweeping on its way from the north-western hills and attacked the Japanese Consular buildings, newly erected at the extreme end of the western suburb. For some five hours, and again with but little opposition, the bandits burnt, locted, and ransacked, and eventually made away with booty and about 170 prisoners, one of them a Japanese, leaving but few casualties behind. A serious loss of life occurred at the Japanese Consulate, whither the Japanese community had partly gone for safety the preceding night when news was received of the impending raid. The then Commissioner of Customs, Mr. K. H. von Lindholm, with Mrs. von Lindholm, had also sought hospitality there, preferring to be killed, if need be, amongst people that would certainly put up a strenuous resistance. They, as well as the Japanese Consul, Mr. I. Akisu, miraculously escaped from harm, in spite of the active part taken in the fight; but the casualties amounted to 11 killed and 10 wounded amongst the Japanese and seven killed and seven wounded amongst the Koreans assembled in the place. members of the Customs staff had narrow escapes, but suffered no injury. The total loss in cash, goods and property sustained by the Chinese merchants in the course of both raids is estimated at some Hk. Tls. 273,000 On the 3rd October, during the night, the bandits attacked the northern barracks, situated some 3 li north-west of the town, but were repulsed. Ever since the first raid the inhabitants of Hunchun lived in a constant state of alarm, often fleeing en masse into the country at the slightest rumours of trouble. During October and November some 3,000 Japanese troops of all arms, air force included, were moved by the Japanese authorities to and fro within the district, at first under protest and subsequently in accordance with arrangements alleged to have been made by the Central Government or high provincial authorities. They patrolled a vast stretch of country, establishing field telephones and telephone and telegraph connexions with the Korean system. For some days a wireless station was erected near the Japanese Consulate. With the exception of some 250 men left to protect the Japanese community and to patrol the country, the contingent was withdrawn at the end of the year. Their presence and activity in Chinese territory has been much discussed in the press* foreign and vernacular, and seems yet to form the object of negotiations between the Governments concerned. The Chinese garrison was reinforced at the beginning of December by one battalion of the 1st Kirin Mixed Brigade under the command of Colonel Yang Chin-sheng; the two battalions originally stationed at Hunchun have been posted at some distance east and west of the town.

TIBET.

Tibet first come under China's control in the latter years of the seventeenth century, and China's power over the country was strengthened by the Emperor Ch'ien Lung a century later. In the later years of the Manchu dynasty, however, China's control over Tibet steadily diminished. In 1888 Tibetan aggressions on the Sikkim border compelled the Indian Government to intervene, and two years later the Anglo-Chinese Agree-

^{*} It was alleged by foreign eyewitnessess that scores of inoffensive Koreans were killed, and numbers of villages, schools and churches destroyed, by the Japanese forces-

610 TIBET.

ment (Tibet-Sikkim Convention) was ratified in London. This was followed in 1893 by trade regulations which China undertook to enforce. During the ten years that followed there was no pretence of complying with the terms of the Convention or the trade regulations agreed upon as the result thereof, and the inability of the Chinese Government to bring the Tibetans to reason led to the dispatch of the Younghusband Expedition tc Lhassa. Direct relations between India and Tibet were then established by the Lhassa Convention. The latter completely ignored China's suzerainty over the country, and the Chinese Government was not long in putting forward claims to her recognition as suzerain State. Lengthy negotiations followed at Peking and Calcutta, which eventuated in the conclusion of an Anglo-Chinese Convention in 1906. In 1908 this was supplemented by turther trade regulations. An arrangement between the British and Russian Governments in 1907 recognized Britain's interests in the maintenance of the status quo in Tibet's external releations. The conclusion of the Lhassa Convention in 1904 was followed by the appointment of the late Chao Eth-feng as Warden of the Marches, and between 1905 and 1910 he completely subjugated the tribal territory between the Szechuan frontier and central Tibet. But he was bent on reconquering Tibet, and in the spring of 1910 he succeeded in pushing 1000 men through to Lhassa, under General The Dalai Lama having fled to India on their approach, the lamas submitted with ill grace to the reintroduction of Chinese control. Chao Erh-feng was a capable administrator, and when he succeeded his brother, Chao Erh-hsun, as Viceroy of Szechuan, he lost no opportunity to consolidate Chinese control over Tibet. But during the Revolution of 1911—12 Szechuan was reduced to a condition of anarchy. Chao Erh-feng was murdered, and the systems of administration and transport, which he had so carefully organized, collapsed like a house of cards.

When the news of the Republican successes reached Lhassa, the Chinese garrison mutinied in sympathy with their fellow-countrymen, and indulged in unrestrained excesses at the expense of the inhabitants. The latter rose up in arms, and for a long time the Chinese garrison was besieged in the Tibetan capital. The Dalai Lama, who had been in exile in India since February, 1910, left Kalimpong on June 24 to return to his own country, and was duly installed in authority in Lhassa. Peace between the Chinese and Tibetans was concluded in August, 1912, when it was agreed that all the Chinese troops over and above the ordinary escort of the Amban should march out of Tibet via India, leaving their arms and ammunition behind them at Lhassa, where they were to be scaled by both parties. In the meantime the semi-independent chiefs in Eastern Tibet and in Chinese territory west of the Yalung River had successfully challenged Chinese authority in these regions, and caused the hasty withdrawal of the garrisons that had been in occupation since 1910. The work of recovering the lost ground was entrusted to two forces raised by the Military Governors of Szechuan and Yunnan. The Szechuanese army left Chengtu in July, and the Yunnan force, converging from the south, was directed upon Hsiangchen. Both the latter town and Litang were occupied by the Chinese, but at this point the action of Great Britain led to the withdrawal of the expedition.

While the Tibetan Marches formed the immediate objective of the Chinese troops, there was reason to suppose that after the restoration of Chinese authority along the border the expedition would continue its march to Lhassa. Accordingly on August 17th the British Minister in Peking presented a Memorandum to the Chinese Government defining the attitude of Great Britain towards the Tibetan question. China was asked to refrain from dispatching a military expedition into Tibet, as the re-establishment of Chinese authority would constitute a violation of the Anglo-Chinese Treaty of 1906. Chinese suzerainty in regard to Tibet was recognized, but Great Britain could not consent to the assertion of Chinese sovereignty over a State enjoying independent treaty relations with her. In conclusion, China was invited to come to an agreement regarding Tibet on the lines indicated in the Memorandum, such agreement to be antecedent to Great Britain's recognition of the Republic.

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The reply to this communication was withheld until December 23rd, but in the middle of September the expedition to Tibet received orders to retrace its steps, on the ground that peace had been restored. December, however, the Chinese forces were still engaged in dealing, without much success, with revolt of the Tibetans of the Marches. In its reply the Chinese Government began by citing Article II of the Anglo-Chinese-Tibetan Agreement of 1906, in which "Great Britain engages not to annex Tibetan territory, nor to interfere in the administration of Tibet," China undertaking "not to permit any other foreign State to interfere in the territory or internal administration of Tibet." cited the Tibetan trade regulations of 1906, requiring China to police the trade marts and protect lines of communications. After this preamble, the reply declared that the Chinese Government had no intention of converting Tibet into another province of China. Her Tibetan policy was governed by the Provisional Constitution of the Republic, the Abdication Edict, the President's inauguration oath, and the restoration of the Dalai Lame to his former titles and honours. The reply insisted that the "union of the five races into one family," mentioned in the Provisional Constitution, was wholly different from converting Tibet into a province of China, and asserted that the preservation of the traditional system of Tibetan government was as much the desire of China as of Great Britain. The Chinese Government maintained that the right of dispatching troops into Tibet was necessary for the fulfilment of the responsibilities attaching to China's treaty obligations with Great Britain, which required her to preserve peace and order throughout that vast territory. China, the reply added, never contemplated the idea of stationing an unlimited number of soldiers in Tibet.

Regarding the British request that China should negotiate a new treaty, China considered that the present treaties signed by the late dynasty defined Tibet's status with sufficient clearness, and therefore considered there was no need to negotiate a new treaty. The Government expressed regret that the India Government should close all communications between China and Tibet via India, especially in view of the friendly relations between Great Britain and China, such an act being rarely resorted to except by nations at war. It hoped that Great Britain would reconsider this attitude. Finally, the Government regretted that Great Britain should threaten to refuse recognition of the Republic, and on its side asked Great Britain to give her recognition to the new Republic, such recognition being of mutual advantage of both countries.

1913

When the year opened the Chinese had been completely driven out of Tibet, and on January 11 1913. Tibet declared its independence by concluding a treaty with the Hutukhtu of Urga, the ruler of Outer-Mongolia. But Tutuh Yuin of Szechuan had proclaimed the creation of the province of Western Kham and resolved to make an attempt to justify the statement. As soon as the weather permitted the troops to leave their winter quarters, operations against the Tibetans were begun, the main struggle centring on Haiangchen, the fortified Lamasery of Sanpeiling. Meanwhile, President Yuan Shih-kai sent a special delegate to Chamdo to meet representatives of the Dalai Lama in order to discuss terms of peace and the definite demarcation of the frontier.

In May the British Government repeated its suggestion of the previous year that China should come to an agreement on the Tibetan question, and ultimately a Tripartite Conference was opened on October 13 at Simla. Lieut.-Col. Sir A. H. McMahon presided, and the other members of the Conference were Mr. Ivan Chen (China) and Long Chen Shatra (Tibetan

Prime Minister).

1914.

Although no official pronouncement was made on the subject it was understood that an agreement was reached which provided for (1) the

complete autonomy of Tibet Proper, (2) the right of China to maintain a Resident at Lhassa with a suitable guard, and (3) a semi-autonomous zone in Eastern Tibet in which China would occupy a stronger position. The conferences, however, failed to find an acceptable demarkation of Outer and Inner Tibet, and broke up in July, 1914, without arranging for the ratification of the agreement.

1915-1920.

The next three years passed more or less without incident. 1917, two Tibetans were arrested by Chinese troops in the Chamdo district. The Kalong Lama applied for their release, and asked to have the matter settled by negotiation. His request was refused, and the arrested men were ordered to be taken to Chamdo. Thereupon fighting broke out, and the Chinese eventually found themselves hard pressed by the Tibetans. By February, 1918, General Peng Tso-sheng was surrounded at Chamdo, and a few months later the country east of Chamdo as far as the right bank of the Yangtze was overrun by the Tibetans, who were now in possession of a third of the Marches. Chamdo surrendered in April; Draza and Derge were also captured. Overtures with a view to entering upon reace negotiations were first made by the Chinese military authorities in February, 1918, and were repeated in March and April. They were unsuccessful, however, and the Chinese continued to lose ground. In July, 1911, at the instance of the British Vice-Consul, Mr. Eric Teichman, an armistice between the belligerents was arranged for one month. A peace conference was subsequently opened at Chamdo under the auspices of Mr. Teichman, the Chinese being represented by Lu Tsan-ting and the Tibetans by the Kalong Lama, and an agreement was reached by which hostilities were to be suspended for a year, the Tibetans retiring within the boundary or Derge and the Chinese to Kantze. The Chinese Government has up to the present declined to enter into further negotiations for the settlement of the Tibetan question.

AGREEMENTS CONCERNING TIBET. Signed at Peking, April 27th, 1906.

To which is annexed the Convention between the United Kingdom and Tibet, Signed at Lhassa, September 7th, 1904.

Ratifications exchanged at London, July 23rd, 1906.

Whereas His Majesty the King of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, and His Majesty the Emperor of China are sincerely desirous to maintain and perpetuate the relations of friendship and good understanding which now exist between their respective Empires;

And whereas the refusal of Tibet to recognize the validity of or to carry into full effect the provisions of the Anglo-Chinese Convention of March 17th, 1890, and Regulations of December 5th, 1893, placed the British Government under the necessity of taking steps to secure their rights and

interests under the said Convention and Regulations;

And whereas a Convention of ten articles was signed at Lhassa on September 7th, 1904, on behalf of Great Britain and Tibet, and was ratified by the Viceroy and Governor-General of India on behalf of Great Britain on November 11th, 1904, a declaration on behalf of Great Britain modifying its terms under certain conditions being appended thereto;

His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the Emperor of China have resolved to conclude a Convention on this subject, and have for this pur-

pose named Plenipotentiaries, that is to say:-

His Majesty the King of Great Britain and Ireland: Sir Ernest Mason Satow, Knight Grand Cross of the Most Distinguished Order of Saint Michael and Saint George, His said Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to His Majesty the Emperor of China; and His Majesty the Emperor of China:

His Excellency Tang Shao-yi, His said Majesty's High Commissioner Plenipotentiary and a Vice-President of the Board of Foreign Affairs;

Who having communicated to each other their respective full powers and finding them to be in good and true form, have agreed upon and con-

cluded the following Convention in six articles :-

ARTICLE 1.—The Convention concluded on September 7th, 1904, by Great Britain and Tibet, the texts of which in English and Chinese are attached to the present Convention as an annex, is hereby confirmed, subject to the modification stated in the declaration appended thereto, and both of the High Contracting Parties engage to take at all times such steps as may be necessary to secure the due fulfilment of the terms specified therein.

ARTICLE II.—The Government of Great Britain engages not to annex Tibetan territory or to interfere in the administration of Tibet. The Government of China also undertakes not to permit any other foreign State to

interfere with the territory or internal administration of Tibet.

ARTICLE III.—The concessions which are mentioned in Article IX. (d) of the Convention concluded on September 7th, 1904, by Great Britain and Tibet are denied to any State or to the subject of any State other than China, but it has been arranged with China that at the trade marts specified in Article II of the aforesaid Convention Great Britain shall be entitled to lay down telegraph lines connecting with India.

ARTICLE IV.—The provisions of the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1890 and Regulations of 1893 shall, subject to the terms of this present Con-

vention and annex thereto, remain in full force.

ARTICLE V.—The English and Chinese texts of the present Convention have been carefully compared and found to correspond, but in the event of there being any difference of meaning between them the English text shall be authoritative.

ARTICLE VI.—This Convention shall be ratified by the Sovereigns of both countries, and ratifications shall be exchanged in London within three months after the date of signature by the Plenipotentiaries of both Powers.

In toker whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed and sealed

this Convention, four copies in English and four in Chinese.

Done at Peking this twenty-seventh day of April, one thousand nine hundred and six, being the fourth day of the fourth month of the thirtysecond year of the reign of Kuang Hsü.

> (L.S.) ERNEST SATOW. (Signature and Seal of the Chinese Plenipotentiary.)

SIGNED AT LHASSA, 7TH SEPTEMBER, 1904.

Whereas doubts and difficulties have arisen as to the meaning and validity of the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1890, and the Trade Regulations of 1893, and as to the liabilities of the Tibetan Government under these agreements; and whereas recent occurrences have tended towards a disturbance of the relations of friendship and good understanding which have existed between the British Government and the Government of Tibet; and whereas it is desirable to restore peace and amicable relations and to resolve and determine the doubts and difficulties as aforesaid, the said Governments have resolved to conclude a Convention with these objects, and the following articles have been agreed upon by Colonel F. E. Younghusband, C.I.E., in virtue of full powers vested in him by His Britannic Majesty's Government and on behalf of that said Government, and Lo-Sang Gval, Tsen, the Ga-den Ti-Rimpoche and the representatives of the Council of the three monasteries Se-ra. Dre-pung, and Ga-den, and of the ecclesiastical and lay officials of the National Assembly on behalf of the Government of

I .- The Government of Tibet engages to respect the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1890 and to recognize the frontier between Sikkim and Tibet, as defined in Article I of the said Convention, and to erect boundary pillars accordingly.

II.—The Tibetan Government undertakes to open forthwith trade marte to which all British and Tibetan subjects shall have free right of access

at Gyangtze and Gartok, as well as at Yatung.

The Regulations applicable to the trade mart at Yatung, under the Anglo-Chinese Agreement of 1893, shall, subject to such amendments as may hereafter be agreed upon by common consent between the British and Tibetan Governments, apply to the marts above mentioned.

In addition to establishing trade marts at the places mentioned, the Tibetan Government undertakes to place no restrictions on the trade by existing routes, and to consider the question of establishing fresh trade

marts under similar conditions if development of trade requires it.

III —The question of the amendment of the Regulations of 1893 is reserved for separate consideration, and the Tibetan Government undertakes to appoint fully authorized delegates to negotiate with representatives of the British Government as to the details of the amendments required.

IV.—The Tibetan Government undertakes to levy no dues of any kind other than those provided for in the tariff to be mutually agreed upon.

V.—The Tibetan Government undertakes to keep the roads to Gyangtse and Gartok from the frontier clear of all obstruction and in a state of repair suited to the needs of the trade, and to establish at Yatung, Gyangtse, and Gartok, and at each of the other trade marts that may hereafter be established. a Tibetan Agent who shall receive from the British Agent appointed to watch over British trade at the marts in question any letter which the latter may desire to send to the Tibetan or to the Chinese authorities. The Tibetan Agent shall also be responsible for the due delivery of such communications and for the transmission of replies.

VI.—As an indemnity to the British Government for the expense incurred in the dispatch of armed troops to Lhassa, to exact reparation for breaches of treaty obligations, and for the insults offered to and attacks upon the British Commissioner and his following and escort, the Tibetan Government engages to pay a sum of Pounds five Lundred thousand, equiva-

lent to Rupees seventy-five lakhs, to the British Government.

The indemnity shall be payable at such place as the British Government may from time to time, after due notice, indicate, whether in Tibet or in the British districts of Darjeeling or Jalpaiguri, in seventy-five annual instalments of Rupees one lakh each on the 1st January in each year,

beginning from the 1st January, 1906.

VII.—As security for the payment of the above-mentioned indemnity, and for the fulfilment of the provisions relative to trade marts specified in Articles II, III, IV, V, the British Government shall continue to occupy the Chumbi Valley until the indemnity has been paid and until the trade marts have been effectively opened for three years, whichever date may be the later.

VIII.—The Tibetan Government agrees to raze all forts and fortifications and remove all armaments which might impede the course of free communications between the British frontier and the towns of Gyangtse and Lhassa.

IX.—The Government of Tibet engages that, without the previous consent of the British Government.—

(a) No portion of Tibetan territory shall be ceded, sold, leased, mort-gaged, or otherwise given for occupation, to any foreign Power;

(b) No such Power shall be permitted to intervene in Tibetan affairs;
 (c) No representatives or agents of any foreign Power shall be admitted
 to Tibet;

(d) No concessions for railways, roads, telegraphs, mining, or other rights, shall be granted to any foreign Power, or the subject of any foreign Power. In the event of consent to such concessions being granted, similar or equivalent concessions shall be granted to the British Government;

(e) No Tibetan revenues, whether in kind or in cash, shall be pledged

or assigned to any foreign Power, or the subject of any foreign Power.

X .- In witness whereof the negotiators have signed the same, and

affixed thereunto the seals of their arms.

Done in quintuplicate at Lhassa, this 7th day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand nine hundred and four, corresponding with the Tibetan date, the 27th day of the seventh month of the Wood Dragon vear.

ARRANGEMENT BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND RUSSIA CONCERNING TIBET.

The Governments of Britain and Russia recognizing the suzerain rights of China in Tibet, and considering the fact that Great Britain, by reason of her geographical position. has a special interest in the maintenance of the status quo in the external relations of Tibet, have made the following Arrangement :-

1.—The two High Contracting Parties engage to respect the territorial integrity of Tibet and to abstain from all interference in its internal

II.—In conformity with the admitted principle of the suzerainty of China over Tibet, Great Britain and Russia engage not to enter into negotiations with Tibet except through the intermediary of the Chinese Government. This engagement does not exclude the direct relations between British Commercial Agents and the Tibetan authorities provided for in Article V of the Convention between Great Britain and Tibet of September 7th, 1904, and confirmed by the Convention between Great Britain and China of April 27th, 1906; nor does it modify the engagements entered into by Great Britain and China in Article I of the said Convention of 1906.

It is clearly understood that Buddhists, subjects of Great Britain or of Russia, may enter into direct relations on strictly religious matters with the Dalai Lama and the other representatives of Buddhism in Tibet; the Governments of Great Britain and Russia engage, as far as they are concerned, not to allow those relations to infringe the stipulations of the present arrangement.

III .- The British and Russian Governments respectively engage not

to send representatives to Lhassa.

IV .-- The two High Contracting Parties engage neither to seek nor to obtain, whether for themselves or their subjects, any concessions for railways, roads, telegraphs, and mines, or other rights in Tibet.

V.—The two Governments agree that no part of the revenue of Tibet, whether in kind or in cash, shall be pledged or assigned to Great Britain or

Russia or to any of their subjects.

ANNEX.

Great Britain reaffirms the Declaration, signed by His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General of India and appended to the ratification of the Convention of September 7th, 1904, to the effect that the occupation of the Chumbi Valley by British forces shall cease after the payment of three annual instalments of the indemnity of 7,500,000 Rupees, provided that the trade marts mentioned in Article II of that Convention have been effectively opened for three years, and that in the meantime the Tibetan authorities have faithfully complied in all respects with the terms of the said Convention of 1904. It is clearly understood that if the occupation of the Chumbi Valley by the British forces has, for any reason, not been terminated at the time anticipated in the above Declaration, the British and Russian Governments will enter upon a friendly exchange of views on this subject.

The present Convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged

at St. Petersburg as possible.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Convention and affixed thereto their seals.

Done in duplicate at St. Petersburg, the 18th (31st) August, 1907.

(L.S.) A. NICOLSON. (L.S.) ISWOLSKY.

St. Petersburg, August 18th (31st), 1907.

M. le Ministre-With reference to the Arrangement regarding Tibet, signed to-day. I have the honour to make the following Declaration to

your Excellency :-

"His Britannic Majesty's Government think it desirable, so far as they are concerned, not to allow, unless by a previous agreement with the Russian Government for a period of three years from the date of the present communication, the entry into Tibet of any scientific mission whatever, on condition that a like assurance is given on the part of the Imperial Russian Government.

"His Britannic Majesty's Government propose, moreover, to approach the Chinese Government with a view to induce them to accept a similar obligation for a corresponding period; the Russian Government will, as ε matter of course, take similar action.

"At the expiration of the term of three years above mentioned His Britannic Majesty's Government will, if necessary, consult with the Russian Government as to the desirability of any ulterior measures with regard to scientific expeditions to Tibet."

I avail, etc.,
A. NICOLSON.

St. Petersburg, August 18th (31st), 1907.

M. l'Ambassadeur,-In reply to your Excellency's note of even date, I have the honour to declare that the Imperial Russian Government think it desirable, so far as they are concerned, not to allow, unless by a previous agreement with the British Government, for a period of three years from the date of the present communication, the entry into Tibet of any scientific mission whatever

Like the British Government, the Imperial Government propose to approach the Chinese Government with a view to induce them to accept

a similar obligation for a corresponding period.

It is understood that at the expiration of the term of three years the two Governments will, if necessary, consult with each other as to the desirability of any ulterior measures with regard to scientific expeditions to Tibet.

I have, etc.,

ISWOLSKY.

THE TIBET-SIKKIM CONVENTION, 1890. Ratifled in London, 17th August, 1890.

ARTICLE I .- The boundary of Sikkim and Tibet shall be the crest of the mountain range separating the waters flowing into the Sikkim Teesta and its affluents from the waters flowing into the Tibetan Machu and northwards into other rivers of Tibet. The line commences at Mount Gimochi on the Bhutan frontier, and follows the above-mentioned waterparting to the point where it meets Nepaul territory.

ARTICLE II.—It is admitted that the British Government, whose protectorate over the Sikkim State is hereby recognized, has direct and exclusive centrol over the internal administration and foreign relations of that State. and except through and with the permission of the British Government neither the ruler of the State nor any of its officers shall have official relations of any kind, formal or informal, with any other country.

Article III.—The Government of Great Britain and Ireland and the

Government of China engage reciprocally to respect the boundary as defined in Article I and to prevent acts of aggression from their respective sides of

the frontier.

ARTICLE IV.—The question of providing increased facilities for trade across the Sikkim-Tibet frontier will hereafter be discussed with a view to a mutually satisfactory arrangement by the high contracting powers.

ARTICLE V.—The question of pasturage on the Sikkim side of the frontier is reserved for further examination and future adjustment.

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ARTICLE VI.—The high contracting powers reserve for discussion and arrangement the method in which official communications between the British authorities in India and the authorities in Tibet shall be conducted.

ARTICLE VII.—Two joint Commissioners shall within six months from the ratification of this Convention be appointed, one by the British Government in India, the other by the Chinese Resident in Tibet. The said Commissioners shall meet and discuss the questions which by the last three preceding articles have been reserved.

ARTICLE VIII.—The present Convention shall be ratified, and the

ARTICLE VIII.—The present Convention shall be catified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged in London, as soon as possible after the

signature thereof.

Chinese Official Version of Anglo-Chinese Negotiations.

The Chinese version of recent events in Tibet was set forth as follows,

by an official of the Waichiaopu.

In November, 1911, the Chinese garrisons in Lhassa, in sympathy with the revolutionary cause in China, mutinied against Amban Lien Yu, a Chinese Bannerman, and a few months later, the Tibetans, by order of the Dalai Lama, revolted and besieged the Chinese forces in Lhassa till they were starved out and eventually evacuated Tibet. Chinese troops in Kham were also ejected. An expedition was sent from Szechuan and Yunnan to Tibet, but Great Britain protested and caused its withdrawal.

In August 1912, the British Minister in Peking presented a Memorandum to the Chinese Government outlining the attitude of Great Britain towards the Tibetan question. China was asked to refrain from dispatching a military expedition into Tibet, as the re-establishment of Chinese authority would, it is stated, constitute a violation of the Anglo-Chinese Treaty of 1906. Chinese suzerainty in regard to Tibet was recognized, but Great Britain could not consent to the assertion of Chinese sovereignty over a state enjoying independent treaty relations with her. In conclusion, China was invited to come to an agreement regarding Tibet on the lines indicated in the Memorandum, such agreement to be antecedent to Great Britain's recognition of the Republic. Great Britain also imposed an embargo on the communications between China and Tibet via India.

In deference to the wishes of the British Government, China at once issued orders that the expeditionary force should not proceed beyond Chamda. In her reply she declared that the Chinese Government had no intention of converting Tibet into another province of China and that the preservation of the traditional system of Tibetan government was as much the desire of China as of Great Britain. The dispatch of troops into Tibet was however necessary for the fulfilment of the responsibilities attaching to China's treaty obligations with Great Britain, which required her to preserve peace and order through that vast territory, but she did not contemplate the idea of stationing an unlimited number of soldiers in Tibet. China considered that the existing treaties defined the status of Tibet with sufficient clearness, and therefore there was no need to negotiate a new treaty. She expressed her regret that the Indian Government had placed an embargo on the communications between China and Tibet via India, as China was at peace with Great Britain, and regretted that Great Britain should threaten to withhold recognition of the Republic, such recognition being of mutual advantage to both countries. Finally, the Chinese Government hoped that the British Government would reconsider its attitude.

In May 1913, the British Minister renewed his suggestion of the previous year that China should come to an agreement on the Tibetan question and ultimately a Tripartite Conference was opened on 13th October at Simla with Mr. Ivan Chen, Sir Henry McMahon, and Lonchen Shatra as plenipotentiaries representing China, Great Britain, and Tibet respectively.

The following is the substance of the Tibetan proposals:

- Tibet shall be an independent State, repudiating the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1906.
- The boundary of Tibet in regard to China includes that portion of Sinkiang south of Kwenlun Range and Altyn Tagh, the whole territory of Chinghai, the Western portion of Kansu and Szechuan, including Tachienlu, and the north-western portion of Yunnan, including Atuntze.
- Great Britain and Tibet to negotiate, independently of China, new trade regulations.
- 4. No Chinese officials and troops to be stationed in Tibet.
- Chinese to recognize the Dalai Lama as the head of the Buddhist Religion and institutions in Mongolia and China.
- China to compensate Tibet for forcible exactions of money or property taken from the Tibetan Government.

The Chinese Plenipotentiary made the following counter-proposals:

- 1. Tibet forms an integral part of Chinese territory and Chinese rights of every description which have existed in consequence of this integrity shall be respected by Tibet and recognized by Great Britain. China engages not to convert Tibet into a province and Great Britain not to annex Tibet or any portion of it.
- China to appoint a Resident at Lhassa with an escort of 2,600 soldiers.
- Tibet undertakes to be guided by China in her foreign and military affairs and not to enter into negotiations with any foreign Power except through the intermediary of China, but this engagement does not exclude direct relations between British Trade Agents and Tibetan authorities as provided in the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1906
- 4. Tibet to grant amnesty to those Tibetans known for their pro-Chinese inclinations and to restore to them their property.
- 5. Clause 5 of 'Tibetan claims can be discussed.
- 6. Revision of Trade regulations of 1893 and 1908, if found necessary, must be made by all parties concerned.
- 7. In regard to the limits of Tibet, China claims Chamda and all the places east of it.

The British plenipotentiary sustained in the main the Tibetan view concerning the limits of Tibet. He suggested the creation of Inner and Outer Tibet by a line drawn along the Kweniun Range to the 96th longitude, turning south reaching a point south of the 34th latitude, then in southeasterly direction to Miarong, passing Hokow, Litang, Batang in a western and then southern and south-western direction to Rima, thus involving the inclusion of Chiamda in Outer Tibet and the withdrawal of the Chinese garrison stationed there. He proposed that recognition should be accorded to the autonomy of Outer Tibet whilst admitting the right of the Chinese to re-establish such a measure of control in Inner Tibet as would restore and safeguard their historic position there, without in any way infringing the integrity of Tibet as a geographical and political entity. Sir Henry McMahon also submitted to the Conference a draft proposal of the Convention to the plenipotentaries. After some modification this draft was initialled by the British and Tibetan delegates but the Chinese delegate did not consider himself authorized to do so. Thereupon the British member, after making slight concessions in regard to representation in the Chinese Parliament and the boundary in the neighbourhood of Lake Kokonor, threatened, in the event of his persisting in his refusal, to eliminate the

clause recognizing the suzerainty of China, and *ipso facto* the privileges appertaining thereto from the draft Convention already initialled by the British and Tibetan plenipotentaries. In order to save the situation, the Chinese delegate initialled the documents, but on the clear understanding that to initial and to sign were two different things and that to sign he must obtain instructions from his Government.

China, dissastisfied with the suggested division into an Inner and Outer Tibet the boundaries of which would involve the evacuation of those districts actually in Chinese effective occupation and under its administration, though otherwise in accord with the general principles of the draft Convention, declared that the initialled draft was in no way binding upon her and took up the matter with British Government in London and with its representative in Peking. Protracted negotiations took place thereafter, but, in spite of repeated concessions from the Chinese side in regard to the boundary question, the British Government would not negotiate on any basis other than the initialled Convention. On July 3rd, an Agreement based on the terms of the draft Convention but providing special safeguards for the interests of Great Britain and Tibet in the event of China continuing to withhold her adherence, was signed between Great Britain and Tibert, not, however, before Mr. Ivan Chen had declared that the Chinese Government would not recognize any treaty or similar document that might thereafter be signed between Great Britain and Tibet.

With the same spirit of compromise and a readiness to meet the wishes of the British Government, even to the extent of making considerable sacrifices in so far as they were compatible with her dignity, China has more than once offered to renew negotiations with the British Government but the latter has up to the present declined to do so. China wants nothing more than the re-establishment of Chinese suzerainty over Tibet, with recognition of the autonomy of the territory immediately under the control of the Lhassa Government; she is agreeable to the British idea of forming an effective buffer territory in so far as it is consistent with equity and justice; she is anxious that her trade interest should be looked after by her trade agents as do the British, a point which is agreeable even to the Tibetans though apparently not to the British: 'in other words, she expects that Great Britain would at least make with her an arrangement regarding Tibet which should not be any less disadvantageous to her than that made with Russia respecting Outer Mongolia.

Considering that China has claimed and exercised sovereign rights over Tibet, commanding the Tibetan army, supervised Tibetan internal administration, and confirmed the appointments of Tibetan officials, high and low, secular and even ecclesiastical, such expectations are modest enough surely. At the present moment, with communication via India closed, with no official, representation or agent present, with relations unsettled and unregulated, the position of China vis-à-vis Tibet is far from satisfactory and altogether anomalous; while as between China and Great Britain there is always this important question outstanding. An early settlement in a reciprocal spirit of give and take and giving reasonable satisfaction to the legitimate aspirations and claims of all parties is extremely desirable.

SINKIANG (CHINESE TURKESTAN).

Sinkiang, the New Dominion, or Chinese Turkestan, has an area of about 550,580 sq. miles, and an estimated population of about 2.500,000. It consists largely of desert country, with areas of prairie thinly peopled by Mengols in the North. The bulk of the population, however, is of Turki race, and Sunni Mahommedan religion, and is for the most part concentrated in the region of the "six cities" which are situated in cases fertilized by rivers fed by the melting snows of the Pamir Plateau. Of

these cities the largest are: Kashgar (pop. about 80,000) Yarkand (Pop. about 70,000) and Khotan (pop. about 50,000). The Capital of Sinkiang is Urumchi, situated about 750 miles north-east of Kashgar, and close to the Northern slopes of the eastward extension of the Tien Shan, the mountain range which divides the Province into two sections, North and South

The population of Urumchi is about 60,000

The name of Sinkiang was bestowed on the Dependency after the reorganization of the local administration following the suppression of the Mohammedan rebellion. It is bounded on the North by Russian Siberia, on the West by Russian Turkestan and India, on the South by Tibet, and on the East by Kansu and Mongolia. Hemmed in by mountains, access to the outer world is gained by some seven passes, ranging in height from 4,500 to 18,500 ft. Rivers and lakes freeze in the winter, and all the large towns in the Province are situated on the banks of its only important river, the Tarim. Eastern Turkestan is famed for its jade-stone. Sand-buried cities attest to a period of departed prosperity.

The Province is now ruled by a Military Governor, who, at the moment also acts as Civil Governor. Subordinate to him are the Taoyins or Intendants of Circuit, at Urumchi, Tarbagatai Ili, Aksa and Kashgar. Under the Taoyin are District Magistrates at all the Hsien Cities, as in China Proper, 45 in all. All of these officials are Chinese. But subordinate to them are the Turki Begs in whose hands largely rests the actual government of the districts. Sinking is one of the most backward of China's Dominions. Its officials are a by-word for corruption. They play into the bands of the Turki squires, and join with them in keeping a docile population in a state of abysmal ignorance. The only printing Press in the Province which produces books in Turki, the one language in general use, is to be found in the compound of a foreign Mission at Kashgar. Native education is left in the hands of the old-fashioned Mohammedan religious authorities. A certain amount of Chinese education exists, but the students have to be paid to attend, the object of providing such education apparently being to furnish Chinese officials with a number of Turkis who can act—very inefficiently—as interpreters. Although China has been in touch with races speaking Turki from the earliest years of her history, and has ruled Turkestan off and on for 1,500 years, it is impossible even at the present time to obtain a Chinese book for the learning of the Turki language. Very few of the loca! Chinese officials can speak the language of the people they rule.

Sinkiang was represented in the Chinese Parliament by a dozen members, most of whom had never been in Sinkiang, and owed their "election" to the favour of the Military Governor. Only three of them were Turkis, and one a Chinese Mohammedan from Urumchi. All the members acted in accordance with the Governor's instructions in questions affecting

Sinkiang.

There is a British Consulate-General at Kashgar, which is in closer communication with the Indian Government than with the Legation at Peking. The Kashgar Consulate-General has a small guard of Indian troops for its protection and escort duty.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE RUSSIAN PROBLEM IN CHINA.

The extraterritorial rights of foreigners in China have become of late a vexed and much debated question. In discussing the subject many people forget that these rights were primarily an Oriental conception, and not a suggestion from abroad. They are in fact the expression of an old idea, with which even Rome had to reckon. The Ottoman Empire admitted them in the "mals" or "nations" into which the infidel subjects of the Sultan were classed for purposes of civil administration, under the control of their respective Patriarchs (Greeks, Armenians, Babylonians, etc.). In general the East agreed that aliens, while subject to the sovereignty of the land of their abode, are best governed and managed in their own language and according to their own laws and customs. The enforcement of the latter cught therefore to be entrusted to headmen (selected from the for communities) to serve as intermediaries between the strangers and the local government. This principle was admitted in China as early as the VIII-th century A.D. with regard to the Arab communities along the Southern coast. Although the Ta Ch'ing lü li (Code of the Manchu Dynasty) provides for the trial according to Chinese law of all foreigners for offences committed on Chinese territory, the same Code orders Mohammedans, wherever they may reside, to be tried, not according to the general laws of the Empire, but according to their own special laws (Shariat, etc.) Art 34 of the Code of the Li-fan-yuan expressly states that Chinese in Mongolia shall be tried not according to the provisions of this Code, specially drawn up for certain regions beyond the Great Wall, but according to the general Chinese laws. The first treaty to be concluded by China with any Western country was the Nerchinsk Treaty of 1689 with Russia, and we find the extraterritorial principle referred to above embodied in its Article VI, stipulating that "...if hereafter any of the subjects (traders or craftsmen) of either nationality pass the frontier (as if) for private (and legitimate) business, and (while in the foreign territory) commit crimes of violence to property and life, they are at once to be arrested and sent to the frontier of their own country and handed over to the chief local authority....".

The epoch making treaties of the XIX-th century between China and the West were made, however, in a different spirit. They appeared to the Chinese as forced upon them by armed foreign penetration into the country, especially after 1900. As a result of these treaties, foreigners not only became free from any Chinese authority, but the Chinese themselves had to submit in certain cases to foreign jurisdiction on Chinese territory, in

different leased areas and settlements.

The origin of the extraterritorial principle was then largely forgotten. though the Chinese never entirely lost sight of it. As an instance, the Chinese in Siberia still fail to understand why the Russian Governments, old and new, object to their communities dispensing justice for their members, including attempts at decreeing capital punishment for some serious offences.

Meanwhile foreigners were more and more convinced that all foreigners should enjoy extraterritoriality in China, regardless whether their countries had treaties with China to that effect, or not. This contention was based on the fact that the Chinese law-courts had no regulations for dealing with the rare foreigners of non-treaty Powers, and these, such as the Swiss (until quite recently), Persians, Greeks, Turks, Servians, etc., were placed

in China under the protection of Treaty Powers. The Chinese, however, opposed this, and in 1909 a mandate was issued by the Prince-Regent, declaring that non-treaty foreigners had no right to an extraterritorial status.

After the establishment of the Republic, the new Chinese rulers made the abolition of all extraterritorial rights in China one of their aims, it being a point of honour with them to establish their country on a basis of complete equality in its dealings with other States. The desired opportunity came with the Great War. When the Allies succeeded in prevailing upon China to join their ranks, China's declaration of war on Germany and Austria-Hungary automatically cancelled her treaties with those two Powers, and their subjects were placed under Chinese jurisdiction, which was made all the stricter on account of their position as The cancellation of the Germans' and Austro-Hungarians' extraterritoriality was the first breach in the elaborate structure, built up during decades, for the protection of foreign rights and interests generally amidst the inadequacy to their requirements of native law-courts and administrations. This first breach was soon enlarged by regulations concerning the status of all non-treaty foreigners, comprising the subjects of new States:-Poland, Czecho-Slovakia, Jugo-Slavia, etc. The recent treaty between China and Bolivia places Bolivian subjects under Chinese jurisdiction in China.

At last, in September 1920, the suspension of the recognition of the official Russian representation in China, for all practical purposes, if not in theory, brought under Chinese jurisdiction the majority of all for-

eigners in this country.

This event is important in two respects:—1: as a turning point in Russo-Chinese relations, with all they mean for the Far East generally; and 2; as a decisive development in the status of all foreigners in China.

I .- The Break in Russo-Chinese Treaty Relations.

It is necessary for a proper estimation of the Russo-Chinese treaty relations, and the position in which they stand, to bear in mind the continuity of these relations and their progressive development for a period of 300 years. The main factors to be considered in regard to them were the gradual Russian expansion towards the East and the advantages of mutual trade. When the first Russian mission came to Peking in 1613, China and Russia knew practically nothing of each other beyond vague reminiscences dating from the Mongol Empire. In the latter half of the XVIIth century the two Powers stood face to face on the Amur river, and the 1689 Nerchinsk Treaty, while territorially giving satisfaction to China, contains the first provisions allowing Russians to trade in China. The Kiachta and Bura Treaties of 1727 defined already existing relations and settled ambiguous boundary questions. They were followed by the Chinese Embassies to Moscow and St. Petersburg in 1731, the first to have travelled so far West. It took over a century before these relations assumed more important proportions. 1851 found Russia seeking an outlet on the Pacific and also on the confines of the Chinese domains in Central Asia. A rapid succession of important treaties between that date and 1881 secured for Russia the desired access to the ocean and a delimitation of the Russo-Chinese domains down to the Himalayas. They further defined the details of the extraterritorial status of Russians in China, their general commercial and industrial rights and the special Russian free trade facilities beyond the Great Wall. In 1896 the floating by Russia of the first large Chinese foreign loan, to meet the financial obligations resulting from the Sino-Japanese war, the lease of the Kwantung territory and the Chinese Eastern Railway concession marked the height of Russia's influence in China. The ensuing developments in Manchuria resulted in the setback which Russian prestige-at one time on the point of reigning paramount

in the whole of North China—experienced after the Russo-Japanese war of 1904-1905. The impulse which determined the Russian movement towards the Far East and that which brought about the intensified Chinese colonisation of Manchuria from 1902 on could, however, be checked only for a short time Already in 1907 and 1909 supplementary agreements provided for the settlement of questions pending on the Chinese Eastern Railway. In 1912 the Mongolian independence movement established the Russian position on a new basis in that country. Even the Great War did not distract Russia's attention from the Far East. The Kiachta Tripartite Agreement establishing the autonomy of Outer Mongolia and the Russo-Chinese agreement concerning the special position of the Hulunbuir district were actually signed during the War, in 1915.

Unpalatable as these Mongol agreements were to Chinese national feeling, even they did not impair the friendly character which Russo-Chinese relations had preserved in general from their inception. disputes of the XVIIth century were forgotten when a clear frontier line defined the vague boundaries of both countries, the advantages of Russo-Chinese trade overshadowed Russia's forward policy in Manchuria, and with the exception of the Mongol question, no vital or insuperable divergence of interests came to separate the two great neighbours of the Asiatic continent, bound together, as they were at bottom, by a deep community of interests both political and economical. The internal Russian weaknesses which resulted in the revolution of March 1917 had no direct reflection on the Russian situation in China, which was at that moment most advantageous. China, following the lead of the other Allies, as she has done ever since her entry into the War, hastened to recognise the new Provisional Russian Government and in due course, also adopted the Allied standpoint with regard to the Bolshevik coup d'etat at Petrograd in October 1917, even standing by the Entente Powers in their subsequent active intervention in Siberia.

Now the Bolshevik revolution in Russia and the disturbed conditions following it cut off the Russian communities in China from their homeland and placed them in a very peculiar position. In accordance with their extraterritorial rights, none but a Russian authority was entitled to control them or protect their interests, and Bolshevik control was not recognised anywhere in the world. Moreover these extraterritorial rights were based upon undisputed treaties, concluded by the lawful Governments of both countries, which could, as such, be cancelled or amended only by equivalent agreements between equally lawful and stable Governments, of which none exists in Russia, where no authority since 1917 has en-

jeved general recognition.

This difficulty was solved, without the question even being raised, by the Chinese Republic continuing to recognise in their official capacities the Russian representatives in China, confirmed by the Provisional Russian Government. Their recognition was of greater importance here than elsewhere, because in China foreign representatives are not only the mediums of intercourse between their Governments and the authorities to whom they are accredited, but, owing to the extraterritorial status of their nationals, are also entrusted with numerous administrative and legal functions for the latter. Thus it came about that the Russian Minister, Prince N. A. Koudacheff, (accredited to the Chinese Government both by the Imperial Government in March 1916, and by the Provisional Government after the Revolution) and the Russian Consuls in China continued to carry on their work, enjoying full recognition both on the part of the Chinese Government and of their foreign colleagues, even after the Bolshevik coup d'Etat. The Russian Minister's attitude towards the latter was defined when he deliberately ignored two telegrams, dated Petrograd November 30th and December 17th 1917, in which the Bolshevik People's Commissary for

Foreign Affairs, Leo D. Bronstein (Trotsky), summoned him and the officials under his orders either to serve the foreign policy of the Soviets, or to resign.

It is to be noted that the activities of the Russian representatives in China were not limited to current business for the protection of Russian interests and their administration, but also included participation in international diplomatic transactions of exceptional importance. The Russian Minister, for example, in accordance with instructions received by him from the last Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Provisional Russian Government, signed with the other Allied representatives (after the Bolshevik revolution had already taken place) the collective note to the Chinese Government, dated November 30th, 1917, which embodied the Allies' consent to the postponement for five years of the payment of the Boxer Indemnity. At the same time it was agreed that, as the Russian share of the Indemnity was by far the largest, only the payment of that part of it which corresponded to the average instalments due to other Powers, and equalling 10% of the whole Indemnity, would be postponed; the balance was as heretofore to be deposited monthly with the custodian-the Russo-Asiatic Bank,—on the pledge given by the Russian Minister at the Chinese Government's request (on January 23rd 1918), that "the Russian share of the Boxer Indemnity will not be handed over for the needs of the Bolsheviks," but "will be kept in safe-custody by the Russo-Asiatic Bank so as to be transferred to the future Russian Government, formally recognised by China.". The Chinese Government having on December 24th, 1917, prohibited exports to Russia from China (as a result of the Bolshevik revolution), the Russian Minister protested against this measure, pointing cut that "the prohibition to export foodstuffs to Russia will chiefly affect the peaceful population of the Russian provinces bordering on China. These provinces suffer from a dearth in supplies and, should the prohibition not be cancelled, they will be condemned to inevitable famine." Representatives appointed by the Russian Minister constituted the Russian Delegation in the International Commission for the revision of the Chinese Customs' Tariff of 1902, and signed the corresponding agreement with the Chinese Government, dated Shanghai, December 20th, 1918; in accordance with the conditions set down by the Provisional Russian Government, the Russian Delegation at the same time filed a protest against the application of the Revised Tariff to the Russo-Chinese land-frontier. The Russian Minister took part in all the official celebrations of the Armistice in Peking, and was given the highest Chinese Order—the 1st class Pao-kuang Chia-ho-which all the Atlied Ministers received in commemoration of that event.

As the Bolshevik defection in the War made the Allies take a strong stand towards the Soviets, the Chinese for many months not only continued to recognise the official Russian representatives in China, but observed all the main stipulations of the Russo-Chinese Treaties, both where the rights of private individuals and the interests of the Russian State were concerned. The single exception was the cancellation in 1918, under protest from the Russian Legation, of the agreement concerning the suppression of the alcohol trade on the Manchurian frontier.

As the attitude of the Great Powers towards the Bolsheviks became less decided after the failure of the Koltchak, Denikine and Yudenitch governments, the attitude of China changed correspondingly. In 1918 while the Central Government was concerned with the suppression of secret Bolshevik activities in China and went to the length of requesting the Russian and Allied Legations' assistance in this matter, the Chinese frontier authorities in Kuldja, Maimacheng and Heiho, showed a lenient attitude towards Bolshevik emissaries, fearing the trouble which they might

cause in their immediate vicinity. In November 1919, the Chinese Government cancelled the Russo-Sino-Mongol treaties connected with the autonomy of Outer Mongolia, and in January 1920, the Russo-Chinese agreement concerning the special position of the Hulunbuir district of Northern Manchuria (see "Mongolia" section of this Year Book). Seeing how easy the open violation of two important groups of international agreements proved to be, the Chinese Government grew bolder in its attitude towards Russian treaty rights. Moreover, early in 1920, a note signed by Karahan, Vice-Commissary for Foreign Affairs at Moscow, reached Peking, offering-for the recognition of the Soviet Government and the conclusion of a treaty with it-the abandonment of all Russian concessions and Russian treaty rights in China, including those of extraterritoriality. From March 1920, on, the intention of the Chinese Government to adopt a new policy in Russo-Chinese relations became clearer and clearer. This implied the necessity of doing away with the official Russian representatives, whose duty it was to defend the treaty "status quo;" and the suspension of their recognition therefore became only a matter of time. Following the change of the Chinese Cabinet in the summer of 1920, the new Minister for Foreign Affairs, Dr. Yen Hui-ch'ing, obtained permission for a former officer named Dzevaltovsky (alias Yourin), a member of the Central Siberian Soviet to proceed to Peking from Kiachta, where he had been awaiting this authorisation for some time. Yourin established himself in Peking with a numerous staff, in the guise of the representative of the so-called Russian Far Eastern Republic, professediv with the object of negotiating a resumption of commercial relations between this Republic and China. He did not conceal his efforts to discredit the existing official Russian representation. The advice which was given to the Chinese Government from various quarters to the same effect was supported by a campaign in a section of the press of the Chinese capital and open ports. On August 1st 1920, the Chinese Government suspended the payment of that share of the Russian portion of the Boxer Indemnity which it had been agreed in 1917-1918 that it would continue to deposit monthly with the Russo-Asiatic Bank, an action left under protest by the Russian Legation as an infringement of the 1901 Protocol and subsequent agreements. About the same time the collection of customs' duty was inaugurated on the Russo-Chinese frontier in Chinese Turkestan and a custom house was established on the Horgos river in Ili, in derogation to the Treaty of St. Petersburg 1881. Later a new basis of commercial relations between Chinese and Russian Turkestan was sanctioned by an agreement between plenipotentiaries of the Tashkent Soviet authorities and representatives of the Tu-chun of Sinkiang, which was endorsed by the central Chinese Government.

An incident hastened the suspension of the recognition of the Russian Legation and Consulates. In August 1920, Attaman Kalmikoff, who upon seeking refuge on Chinese territory had been interned by the Chinese authorities in Kirin, escaped during a visit to the local Russian Consulate, where he was concealed, contrary to the instructions of the Russian Legation. His discovery gave the Chinese Foreign Office the pretext for prohibiting communications in code between the Russian Legation and Consulates. In answer to an enquiry made by the Russian Minister in this connection, he was privately advised to resign his position voluntarily, a thing he refused to do, pointing out that his recognition did not depend upon his own desire, but upon the Chinese Government.

Several days later the following Mandate was issued under the seat of the President of the Chinese Republic, dated September, 23rd 1920, a copy of which was handed to the Russian Minister on behalf of the Minister for Foreign Affairs by a Councillor of the Wai-Chiao-Pu:

Mandate, Sept. 23rd, 1920.

"The Ministry of Foreign Affairs has reported as follows:

'In the course of the last years many organisations have appeared in Russia which are at war with each other; party strife took place and no united Government, expressing the will of the people, has been constituted until now; it is therefore difficult for the time being to restore regular diplomatic relations between China and Russia. With regard to the diplomatic and consular officers primarily appointed by Russia to China, they have long ago lost their representative character and have indeed no ground to continue discharging the responsible duties devolving upon them. Declarations in this sense have been made personally to the Russian Minister in Peking; the Ministry therefore requests the immediate promulgation of a Mandate, announcing the suspension of the recognition of the Russian Minister and Consuls in China.'

The contents of the report quoted above certainly correspond to the true condition of affairs. Considering the geographical proximity of China and Russia and their ancient friendship, China, while now ceasing to recognise the Russian Minister and Consuls, nevertheless preserves, with regard to Russian citizens, the same friendly feelings as before. Therefore efficient measures towards the safeguarding of the persons and property of peaceful Russian citizens residing in China must be taken as before. As for the civil war which is taking place in Russia, China will, as hitherto, observe neutrality and direct herself by the attitude of the Powers of the Entente.

The corresponding departments and chief provincial authorities are hereby instructed to devise adequate measures with regard to questions concerning Russian concessions, the leased territory of the Chinese Eastern Railway and the Russian citizens residing everywhere in China."

Upon receipt of this mandate, the Russian Minister addressed the following note to the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs, dated September, 24th, 1920:

Russian Note Sept. 24th, 1920.

"To day there has been made public a Decree of the President of the Chinese Republic, issued at the recommendation of Your Excellency on September 23rd instant, concerning the discontinuance of the recognition by the Chinese Government of myself and of the Russian Consuls in China in our official capacities.

The text of this Decree was personally handed to me on your behalf by Mr. Tyau Tso ch'ien, Councillor of the Foreign Office.

I am informing by wire all the Russian Consuls in China of the promulgation of this Decree for the information of the Russian citizens sojourning within their Consular districts.

Russian citizens in China remain henceforth deprived of any official Russian protection and I beg to express the hope that the Chinese Government will be careful to have the order of the President, embodied in the Decree above-mentioned, thoroughly executed in regard to efficient measures towards the safeguarding of the persons and property of peaceful Russian citizens. On this occasion I beg to affirm that this safeguarding must be based on the exact application of the status quo of the Russo-Chinese Treaties, because as I on several occasions warned the Chinese Government, all infringements which have been made in the last few years of the Russo-Chinese Treaties can only become lawful when they shall have been agreed to by a regular All-Russian Government recognised as such by the Chinese Government.

The following are the principal of these infringements:

1.—In May, 1918, the Russo-Chinese Agreement of 1916 concerning anti-alcohol measures along the frontier and on the Sungari river was cancelled by China (Note of the Wai-Chiao-Pu of May 21st, 1918).

2.- A Presidential decree of November, 22nd 1919, cancelled the

Treaties concerning the autonomy of Outer Mongolia.

3.—A Presidential decree of January 1920, cancelled the Agreement concerning the political status of the Hulunbuir region.

4.—The spirit and the text of the contract of 1896 regarding the

Chinese Eastern Railway have of late been repeatedly violated.

5.—In July 1920 the Protocol of 1901 was violated by the refusal of the Chinese Government to continue paying the Russian share of the Boxer Indemnity (Notes of the Wai-Chiao-Pu of July 2nd and August 7th last).

6.—During the summer of 1920 the Treaty of 1881 was violated through the establishment of Customs' duties on the land frontier

(Note of the Russian Legation of August 28th last).

7.—Finally, the decree of September 23rd instant, carries with it a radical change in the status of Russian citizens and their property which is based on all Treaties entered into between Russia and China in 1689, 1727, 1851, 1860 and 1881 and on various special Conventions and agreements deriving therefrom.

A copy of the present note is being forwarded to the Dean of

the Diplomatic Body."

Following the despatch of this note, the Russian Minister, Prince Kcudacheff, notified the Dean of the Diplomatic Body in Peking of the termination of his mission in China and instructed his subordinates to wind up their business, exerting himself at the same time, in the course of the liquidation, to assist in devising such arrangements as were possible for the establishment of an acceptable status for the Russian citizens in China

after the suspension of their official representation.

The premises of the Russian Legation, Military Quarters and Post Office, being situated in the Legation Quarter of Peking, were taken into the custody of the Powers which had signed the 1901 Protocol until such time as a Russian Government, recognised by the Powers would be restored. This measure was officially brought to the knowledge of the Chinese Government, and the immediate supervision of this property and of its contents was entrusted by the Diplomatic Body first to Prince Koudacheff himself, and, upon his departure from China in January 1921, to the Netherlands' Minister.

With the exception of the Russian Consular premises at Urga and Kirin, which were arbitrarily seized by the Chinese authorities, of the Consulate at Kobdo, which was turned over to the mayor of the local Russian community, and of the Consulate at Canton which was sealed by the British Consul, the remaining 19 Russian Consulates in China and Mongolia were formally given into the custody of the local Chinese authorities, and copies of the inventory lists and receipts were communicated to the Diplomatic Body at Peking. The closing of the Russian Post Offices in China proper, in consequence of the refusal of the Chinese authorities to forward their pouches according to the established rules, was followed by an official protest filed with the Ministry of Communications by the Russian Post-Master at Peking. The property of these Post-Offices was included in that of the respective Russian Consulates. The valuables of the Russian Government and of the Koltchak Government deposited with Banks in China were sequestrated until the restoration of a generally recognised All Russian Government. The important property of the Omsk Ministry of Supplies, which had been in charge of the Russian Consulate General at Harbin, was taken over, with detailed inventory, first by a

mixed Russo-Chinese commission appointed by the Chinese Government, and later by the local Chinese authorities. These dispositions concluded the official activity of the Russian Legation and Consulates in China.

That this should have been abruptly brought to an end at this time appears illogical, inasmuch as it ought either to have been suspended immediately after the collapse of the last recognised All-Russian Government, or else ought to have been allowed to continue, as it had done for nearly three years, until the recognition of a new Russian Government by China. For, from a political point of view, the suspension of the recognition of official Russian representation in China-one of the results of the Bolshevik revolution in Russia-made a definite break in the uninterrupted relations of two centuries between Russia and China. The Chinese hope to see them resumed on a new basis-more favourable to tlemselves. Yet, in principle, the Chinese Government cannot deny, and never has denied, the validity of the Chinese treaties with Russia. It is also to be noted that the Russian Legation has, by a series of protests, officially filed and put on record every infringement of these treaties, as mentioned in the Russian Minister's final note, thus leaving the future Russian Government at liberty to take up any one and all of these infringements exactly at the points in which the corresponding protests left

Meanwhile the suspension of the recognition of the Russian Legation and Consulates has brought the Chinese Government face to face with the establishment of the legal status of the numerous Russian communities in China, numbering anywhere from 200,000 to 300,000 persons. The treaties on which their extraterritorial, personal and commercial, rights are based remain unimpaired and the Chinese Government could only confirm the validity of these rights, at least in theory. The Chinese Government, however, took upon itself the functions of that national authority which is one of the essential requisites for the exercise of extraterritoriality, so that Russian citizens in China find themselves for all practical purposes in the position of non-treaty foreigners, enjoying no extraterritorial rights at all.

II .- The Status of Russians under Chinese Jurisdiction.

A.—THEORETICAL BASIS.

The importance of these general issues did not escape the attention of

the Foreign Representatives in Peking.

In a letter addressed to the Dean of the Diplomatic Body Prince Koudacheff, while approaching the subject of the safe-guarding of Russian State property in China, pointed out the uncertainty of the legal status of his co-citizens, and requested that this status might be examined by the heads of Missions in China.

The Dean of the Diplomatic Body thereupon despatched the following note to the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs, dated October 11th, 1920:—

Diplomatic Body's Note Oct. 11th, 1920.

"The Representatives of the Foreign Powers accredited to China who are anxious about the dispositions of the Presidential Mandate of September 23rd 1920, insofar as they touch the interests of the crizens of Powers which have signed treaties with China, have the honour to inform the Chinese Government, through my intermediary, that the Diplomatic Body will be glad to receive an official confirmation of the assurances which were verbally given to many of the Foreign Representatives by His Excellency the Minister of Foreign Affairs, assurances signifying that the measures taken by the Chinese Government in compliance with the aforesaid Presidential mandate may in no case constitute a permanent amendment of the legal status of

Russians, recognised by treaties, but must be considered purely provisional and subject to the agreement of the future officially recognised Russian Government.

Desirous, on the other hand, of removing the obstacles which the Chinese Government will meet as soon as these measures are put into execution, the Representatives have the honour to suggest, that the provisional "modus vivendi" for the administration of Russian interests shall be elaborated by agreement between the Chinese Government and the Diplomatic Body."

To this note the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs replied by the following note, dated October 22nd, 1920:--

Chinese Note Oct. 22nd, 1920.

"I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of You" Excellency's memorandum dated the 11th instant and have carefully perused the same

The reason why the Chinese Government issued a Mandate concerning the suspension of the official recognition of the Russian Minister and Consuls was, truly, that the Russian Minister and Consuls, having for a long time past lost their representative character, were unable to exercise their functions. The Chinese Government could, therefore, not do otherwise than follow the precedent of other countries and cease to recognise them in their official capacity, so as to avoid practical difficulties. The arrangements made at present are raturally of a temporary nature and will have to be reconsidered as soon as a lawful Government, recognised by China, shall have been constituted in Russia.

Russian citizens residing in China wur continue to enjoy the rights secured to them by treaties. As for the Russian concessions, the Chinese Government will take over the management of all administrative affairs within their limits, temporarily without introducing any changes. Should circumstances, however, make it necessary to make improvements, the Chinese Government may also make these improvements, according to circumstances.

Russian Consular jurisdiction must, of course, cease. In the trying of cases in which foreigners are plaintiffs and Russians defendants, the Chinese courts may apply Russian laws, but only those which do not conflict with Chinese legal rights. Possibly special persons, well versed in Russian law, may be employed as advisers to the Chin-

ese law courts.

The Foreign Diplomatic Representatives must admit that in making these arrangements the Chinese Government is exerting itself in every way to preserve the fundamental rights of Russian citizens and there is therefore, naturally, no need to negotiate with the Diploma tic Body a provisional method for governing Russians.

Should any foreign interests in China be affected by the suspension of the official recognition of the Russian Minister and Consuls, this Ministry is quite ready to negotiate in good time with every Minister

in order to obviate all difficulties.

Conveying the above to the knowledge of Your Excellency in answer to your memorandum, I have the honour to request that you may transmit it to all the Ministers."

This reply did not appear sufficiently clear to the Diplomatic Body and the Dean despatched to the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs on November 18th, 1920, the following note on the same subject:—

Diplomatic Body's Note Nov. 18th, 1920.

"In answer to your note dated October 22nd, I have the honour to inform Your Excellency that the Diplomatic Body has noted the

assurances which it contains, definitely confirming that all the measures taken at present with regard to the status of Russian citizens in China are, of course, of a temporary character and that all the questions relating thereto will be settled by mutual agreement with the lawful Russian Government, when it will have been constituted and recognised by China, also that Russian citizens residing in China will continue to enjoy the rights secured to them by treaties, that no changes will be made in the management of the Russian Concessions, with the exception of those which will be necessary for the improvement of this management and, finally, that the Chinese Government will generally exert every effort to preserve the rights recognised for the Russians.

The Diplomatic Body deems it a duty, however, to observe that the measures already taken with regard to the rights of Russian citizens in China, directly contradict these assurances. Thus, for instance, one of the most important rights secured to Russian citizens, as to other foreigners, by treaties, in force, (and the enjoyment of which is confirmed by Your Excellency's note), is that of trial, both in civil and in criminal cases, by Russian law-courts and according to Russian laws.

Your note of the 22nd of October mentions this right only indirectly, however, while, on the other hand, the Mandates of His Excellency the President of the Republic of China (vide infra) dated October 31st last regarding the new organisation of the judiciary on the territory of the Chinese Eastern Railway, have a tendency to abrogate the extraterritorial rights of Russians on that territory by abolishing the Russian law-courts and subjecting Russian citizens to the jurisdiction of Chinese law-courts, in which the foreign advisers, provided for by these mandates, will have a very secondary position only; as for the application of Russian laws to Russians these mandates make no mention of that whatsoever.

The measures taken by the Chinese authorities with regard to the management of the Russian Concession in Tientsin, are also at variance with the assurances of the Chinese Government that it will make only such changes as may be required for the improvement of the said management.

This observation applies in the first instance to the control over the police of that Concession, which control, according to existing regulations, approved of by all interested parties, belongs to the Municipal Council of the said Concession. The interference of the Chinese authorities with this most essential part of the sphere of competence of the Russian administration in Tientsin is useless and can only bring about the most serious misunderstandings for the foreigners of all nationalities residing in that Concession.

The "modus vivendi" contemplated by the Chinese Government for Russian citizens in China until the constitution of a lawful Russian Government recognised by China, does not decide the questions of documents relating to personal status, notaries public in the concessions, documents of personal identification, passports and other official papers, contracts, etc., with regard to Russian citizens. The sphere of competence of the officials who will be in charge of all these documents touches the essential interests of all foreigners who are in business relations with the numerous Russian population of this country.

Having carefully considered the above, the Diplomatic Body deems it a matter of general interest to indicate certain amendments to the measures already taken by the Chinese Government, and suggests that these might be as follows:—

1 .- With regard to Concessions.

To recognise that all the Russian Concessions must be served by their own police, depending upon the Municipal Councils. To allow the municipal administrations of the Russian Concessions to act on the basis of existing rules and regulations.

2.-With regard to jurisdiction.

To retain, as far as possible the former Russian law-courts, both as institutions and as to staff; these law courts to act henceforth in the name of China, but to apply Russian law, in accordance with the spirit of the Chinese Mandate of the 5th of August 1918. These law-courts to deal with cases between Russians and, eventually, between Russians and foreigners. Disputes between Russians and Chinese may be examined either by mixed courts, to be composed locally of Chinese and Russian judges, in those cases where the plaintiff is of Russian nationality, or should he be Chinese by the national court of the plaintiff or the defendant. This procedure, aiming at the solution of practical difficulties, will naturally be of a purely temporary character, allowing the principle of the observation of treaty rights and extraterritorial jurisdiction to be maintained unimpaired.

3.—With regard to the functions of notaries public and administrative functions.

To institute in those Chinese centres with a considerable Russian population, posts of Russian advisers attached to the Chinese Commissioners for Foreign Affairs, these advisers to discharge administrative functions and to act as notaries public for Russian citizens. In order to co-ordinate and control the activities of these different institutions it would certainly be useful to create a special Bureau for Russian affairs, to be composed of Russian advisers presided over by a high Chinese official, in the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

The detailed elaboration of the measures indicated above on general lines ought to be entrusted to a mixed conference, convened by the Minister for Foreign Affairs, in which representatives of non-political Russian institutions working in China and, in particular, of those in the leased territory of the Chinese Eastern Railway, would

participate.

The Diplomatic Body considers that only a system on the general lines indicated above, is capable of overcoming the difficulties which result from the Presidential Mandate of September 23rd last, difficulties which are detrimental to the interests of the citizens of foreign Powers which have signed treaties with China. Their settlement cannot be indifferent to the Diplomatic Body and my Colleagues therefore express the desire to see the Russian judges and advisers, suggested above, appointed by agreement between the Chinese Government and the Diplomatic Body, since their functions will place them in contact with foreign interests.

It remains in any case obvious that my Colleagues reserve full liberty to discuss additionally with the Chinese Government all the individual cases in which the interests of their nationals should be infringed by the enforcement of the Presidential Mandate of the 23rd

of September.

In view of the fact that more than six weeks have already elapsed in the course of which the situation of Russians in China has not yet received a definite and satisfactory solution, I have the honour to request Your Excellency, in the name of my Colleagues, to give me your answer to the above as speedily as possible."

This communication brought forth the following reply from the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs, dated November 29th, 1920;--

Chinese Note Nov. 29th, 1920.

"I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's note dated the 18th instant and have carefully perused the same.

All the arrangements new being made with regard to Russians in China are not in any way contradictory of the statements of (my) note of October 22nd, last.

Both civil and criminal cases in which Russians are involved, undoubtedly come, by treaty, under the jurisdiction of Consular Courts. But China has at present ceased to recognise the Russian Consuls in their official capacity and, as a result of this measure, there are now no persons capable of exercising this function. China could therefore not do otherwise than assume jurisdiction over the civil and criminal cases in which Russians resident in China are involved. This measure naturally results from the present situation.

The Russian law-courts in the leased territory of the Chinese Eastern Railway are based neither on the contract for the construction of this railway, nor on the treaty provisions relating to consular jurisdiction. They were established by the Russians in an arbitrary way, and the consent of the Chinese Government has never been obtained to them. Such an encroachment on treaty stipulations was, properly speaking, an infringement of the sovereign rights of China. Both the President of the Chinese Eastern Railway Company and the local authorities had, even before the withdrawal of the official recognition of the Russian Minister and Consuls, repeatedly raised the question of the closing of these law-courts with the (local) Russian Consul. Thus a decision with regard to this question had been arrived at long

ago, and the corresponding measures are in no wise a result of the withdrawal of recognition. These measures and the withdrawal of recognition are two entirely separate questions and their motives are quite clear.

As a matter of fact the Chinese Government deals with Russian

As a matter of fact the Chinese Government deals with Russian affairs with due care and concern. Only recently the Vice-Minister of Justice was sent to Harbin for the purpose of making investigations on the spot and with a' view to safeguarding Russian interests in China. The area of the Chinese Eastern Railway has been constituted a Special Region in which special law-courts have been established. Both the local Tribunal and Court of Appeal, as well as the local branch-courts may employ foreigners as advisers and investigators and these are allowed to assist in the trial of purely Russian cases in the branch-courts. Moreover foreign counsel may appear in the aforesaid special law-courts and Russian notaries public are allowed to exercise their functions as heretofore. As to the application of Russian laws, they may naturally be applied as long as they are within the provisions of the Rules for the Application of Laws promulgated by the Chinese Government; therefore these Rules did not call for mention in the Regulations concerning the organisation of (the aforesaid) law-courts.

As to the infringement by the Chinese authorities in Tientsin of the administrative rights of the Municipal Council of the Russian Concession, it is to be observed that all the regulations governing the activities of this Municipal Council have already been allowed to remain temporarily in force as they are; but the Official of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (T'eh p'ai-yuan), being appointed to take over the functions of the Russian Consul, has certainly the right to exercise control in all affairs. The statement of your note regarding the infringement of the administrative rights of the Municipal Council is therefore probably the result of a misunderstanding; moreover the duty

of officials to discharge the functions with which they are entrusted

has apparently not been taken into account.

With regard to passports (hu-chao), documents and such like matters, these must of course be dealt with by the official exercising the functions of the Russian Consul; all the measures in this connection must be taken in accordance with the fundamental Russian Consular regulations, for the sake of the convenience of Russian residents in China and so that the interests of foreigners who have commercial dealings with Russians should of course not be infringed. The Ministry requests that no unnecessary apprehension should be entertained with regard to this question.

I have now the honour to give further explanations concerning

the amendments suggested by the Diplomatic Body:

1.—Orders have already been given that the Municipal Councils of the Concessions continue to function as before on the basis of the regulations at present in force. With regard to the police, which is closely connected with the maintenance of local peace and order, the Chinese Government, in accordance with the spirit of the laws, must needs assume the corresponding duties; but the sphere of competence of the municipalities, within the limits of their attributions, will in no wise be interfered with.

2—Although the formerly existing Russian law-courts have never been recognised by China, the new (Chinese) law-courts of different degrees which are being established in the Special Manchurian Region are, nevertheless, for the convenience of Russians, modelled on the former law-courts, both with regard to their organisation and to the places where they are established. Moreover some of the former judges of the different grades of Russian courts have already been appointed advisers and investigators, and it is proposed to continue to appoint more of them. Some Russians have also been appointed as clerks and interpreters. Seventeen persons have already begun to discharge these functions and it is proposed to appoint more.

3.—The former Russian notaries public have already been allowed

to continue their functions.

For the purpose of giving due consideration to Russian affairs this Ministry has already established a Commission for the study of Russian affairs, composed of the most important officials from the different departments of the Ministry and of persons acquainted with Russian affairs. Mr. Liu Tsin-jen, formerly Minister to Russia, has been appointed President of this Commission. Russians have already been engaged as advisers in the offices of the Commissioners for Foreign Affairs of such places as Hankow and Hailar, where Russian residents are comparatively numerous. It is proposed to continue to engage such advisers in other places, when this will be found necessary.

The points referred to above all concern the internal administration of the Chinese Government. Should any of the Russian organisations in China deside to express their opinion, they will be at liberty to communicate thereupon with the Commission for the study of Russian affairs, and the Chinese Government will not fail to examine these opinions with the utmost attention. As to the convening of a Mixed Conference, such a step would not only create complications and raise many difficult questions in view of the great number of existing Russian party organisations, but constitutes a question concerning Chinese sovereignty. The Chinese Government therefore considers it impossible to execute (this suggestion) and hopes that the Diplomatic Body will realise this situation.

The appointment of advisers and investigators in the law-courts comes within the sphere of the judiciary. Such persons must be ap-

pointed. according to law, by the Ministry of Justice, in accordance with the principle of the independence of the judiciary. The employment of Russian advisers in the offices of the Commissioners for Foreign Affairs comes within the sphere of the executive authority, and these appointments must therefore be made under the supervision of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Speaking generally, the Chinese Government has already declared that in all cases touching the interests of foreign subjects, it will act with the utmost caution, so as in no wise to admit the infringement of these interests in any way. The Ministry again requests that full confidence should be placed in the sincerity of the Chinese Government in this question.

With regard to diverse questions, concerning Russians, the Chinese Government, in accordance with the Mandate of the President of the Republic, will protect the interests of Russians and give them assistance in their difficulties, without ceasing to devise adequate measures in this respect, as need may arise. The Chinese Government deserves full confidence in this sense and this Ministry sincerely desires that the above should be taken into consideration by the Diplomatic Body. With reference to the political changes which are taking place in Russia, it is to be observed that no fewer than several hundred thousand defeated Russian soldiers and Russian refugees are seeking shelter on Chinese territory in all the frontier regions, in the provinces of Sinkiang, Kirin, Heilungkiang, at Hailar and other places. At this time when China is experiencing the greatest difficulties in facing the famine which is devastating its northern provinces, she might properlyspeaking refuse to allow all these Russians to enter her territory. But for the sake of pure humanity she gives them adequate relief, gives them shelter and food and sends them further on, sustaining in consequence important material losses.

This Ministry must furthermore communicate to the Diplomatic

Body the following considerations:

Russians make raids into our frontier regions, molest Chinese citizens residing on Russian territory, confiscate the goods of Chinese merchants and, generally speaking, commit innumerable other deeds of the same kind. The Russians have thus long ago made manifest the impossibility of fulfilling the obligations resulting from treaty stipulations. As for China, in consideration of the difficulties which have fallen to the lot of the Russians, and maintaining the most friendly feelings towards Russia, she has not only refrained from repudiating her obligations, but has on the contrary acted in a manner that has made her Government and people assume a new share of serious duties. Since the Diplomatic Body has made some suggestions with regard to Russian affairs, this Ministry requests that it put itself in China's position and carefully consider the foregoing declarations.

Conveying the above to the knowledge of Your Excellency, I have the honour to request that you may transmit it to all the other Foreign

Ministers."

Upon the receipt of this communication, the Diplomatic Body decided to obtain a more definite statement concerning the many moot points which the document did not make clear; another note, dated December 14th, 1920, was consequently despatched to the Minister of Foreign Affairs by the Dean:—

Diplomatic Body's Note Dec. 14th, 1920.

"I had the honour to convey to the knowledge of my Colleagues of the Diplomatic Body the contents of Your Excellency's note of the

29th of November last, No. 61, regarding the legal status of Russian citizens in China.

The benevolent assurances which it contains and which have since then received the high sanction of the Presidential Mandate of the 1st of December (Vide infra), have been received with great satisfaction by the Diplomatic Body, which has requested me to note them. The Diplomatic Body expresses the hope that the assurances of the Chinese Government will without delay be put into practice.

From this point of view it is necessary to observe that certain questions of a practical order are not made sufficiently clear in Your Excellency's note. As these questions concern the interests of all foreigners in China who have business relations with Russians, I deem it my duty to request you in the name of the Diplomatic Body to

give me a definite answer to the following points:

1.--Will the Municipal Police of the Russian Concessions remain under the orders of the Municipal Councils, according to the Regulations of the Concessions, and may it be taken for granted that the control of the Chinese authorities over the police will be enforced only through the medium of these Councils?

2.—In what cases, by what procedure and by what institutions, does the Chinese Government consider that Russian laws shall be applied? The law of the 5th of August 1918, provides only for the

application of certain parts of foreign civil laws.

3.—Russian notaries public exercise their functions only on the leased territory of the Chinese Eastern Railway. How will the question of notaries public be solved in other places in China?

Both these last questions are particularly important and must be elucidated and decided upon in detail, so as to enable the corresponding Legations to warn their nationals, who are interested in the mat-

ter, of the measures taken in this connection.

4.—What will be the sphere of competence of the Russian Advisers mentioned in your note? Would it not serve a useful purpose to entrust them with the duties, necessary for a satisfactory solution of the questions referred to in points 2 and 3? Does the Chinese Government intend to engage Russian Advisers in the provinces of Chinese Turkestan, Mongolia and Peking itself?"

It was only after protracted delay and repeated reminders that the Minister of Foreign Affairs answered the questions put by the Diplomatic

Body in the following note, dated February 28th, 1921:-

Chinese Note February 28th, 1921.

"With reference to the subject of the legal status of Russians resident in China, I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency note of December 14th, 1920, in which you reply to a previous communication from this Ministry, and of your letter of February 2nd last requesting a reply which should elucidate various points you mention.

I have now the honour to reply seriatim on the points in ques-

tion as follows:

a. With regard to the policing of Russian Concessions it is essential, seeing that the Chinese authorities are responsible for the maintenance of order there, that these authorities should have the right to superintend the police. In the case of Tientsin, however, Mr. Zebrak, who held the post of police officer in the late Russian Concession, has been appointed assistant for the direction of all police matters in the ex-Russian Concession, and the Municipal Council has already sanctioned his appointment.

- b. The Provisions of the Rules for the application of Laws, promulgated in the 7th year of the Republic (August 5th, 1918) have reference to cases involving private international law, and are to be applied in all cases where questions of private international law are at issue. The answer to the question as to what cases it is in which Russian law is to be applied is that Russian, and not Chinese, law should be applied in cases where a question as to the applicability of Chinese or Russian law arises, as well as in cases in which, according to the provisions of the Rules, foreign law is to be applied. As regards the procedure to be followed and the organ which is to exercise the application of Russian law in such cases, it is the Chinese Court by which the case is being tried (including the special courts in Manchuria) which should apply Russian law, while using the forensic procedure laid down in Chinese law.
- c. The Russian notaries public in the Chinese Eastern Railway zone have already been given permission to continue to exercise their functions. The Commissioners for Foreign Affairs at Tientsin and Hankow, who exercise Consular functions in the stead of Consuls, have also been instructed to carry on concurrently the exercise of functions as Russian notaries public, which, in the Concessions at those places, was hitherto practised by the Consuls. In this the Russian advisers have been instructed to assist.
- d. The functions and powers of the Russian advisers attached to the offices of the Commissioners for Foreign Affairs are to assist the Commissioners in the arrangement of matters in which Russians are concerned. In the opinion of the Chinese Government there is at present no need to engage Russian advisers for Sinkiang, Mongolia or Peking.

I have the honour to address this reply for the information of Your Excellency.

Enclosure:—One copy, in English, of the Rules for the application of laws (See Annex I).

Note.—The texts of the foregoing six notes are an unofficial translation made for the *China Year Book* from the original texts.

The reply quoted above marks the point at which the negotiations between the Diplomatic Body and the Chinese Government regarding the Russian question in China stood when this article was written. A glance at the last Chinese note suffices to show how vague the whole question continues to remain, even in theory.

Two very important points have been put on record by the correspondence quoted above:—

- 1. That Russian citizens residing in China will continue to enjoy the rights secured to them by treaty, and that the Chinese Government will do everything in its power to preserve their fundamental rights.
- 2. That the Chinese Government maintains with regard to Russian citizens the same friendly feelings as heretofore, that it will take effective measures for the protection of their personal and material interests and that the Chinese Government deals with Russian affairs with sympathetic care.

The Chinese Government moreover officially confirms their claim to enjoy the most important right, that of extraterritoriality, and even goes on to say that "both civil and criminal cases in which Russian residents are involved, by treaty undoubtedly come under the jurisdiction of Russian Consuls," that the Chinese courts in Manchuria have been reconstituted in accordance with the former grading of the old Russian courts, and that

in administrative matters Russians will be dealt with in accordance with the Russian Consular Regulations. The inference from all these declarations would appear to be that while assuming, as a "practical" and "temporary" solution only, the exercise of the functions of the non-extant Russian Consuls, the Chinese authorities intended to preserve the Russian legal status otherwise unimpaired, with the full benefit of Russian laws, regulations and customs. This most essential assumption was duly brought forward in the note of the Diplomatic Body, dated November 18th, 1920. As soon as the matter was thus taken up, the Chinese declarations nevertheless began to waver. Already the Chinese note of October 22nd, 1920, states that in Russian cases Russian laws "may be applied," instead of saying "shall be applied." The Chinese note of November 29th, 1920, restricts the application of Russian laws to the limits prescribed by the "Rules for the application of (foreign) laws" of August 5th 1918. Now, these Rules aim at obviating conflicts between Chinese and foreign legislation in the domain of private international law. As no foreigner enjoying extraterritorial rights ever comes under the action of Chinese law, the said Rules deal, of course, with the application in Chinese law-courts of the laws of such foreigners only, as do not enjoy these rights. A reference to the 1918 Rules in connection with the application of Russian laws to Russians, therefore, in itself constitutes an obvious contradiction of the preceding declaration regarding the maintenance of the treaty rights of Russians and an infringement of these unquestioned rights.

Should the matter nevertheless be taken up from the standpoint of the 1918 "Rules for the application of (foreign) law," the first thing to be noticed is that the latter only deal with certain sections of civil law, a fact pointed out by the Diplomatic Body and with regard to which the Chinese note of February 28th, gives an exceedingly hazy answer. Practice has shown that the Chinese authorities have decided to apply the existing Chinese Provisional Criminal Code to Russians involved in criminal cases (with the exception of capital punishment):-however at variance with Russian Treaty rights this decision may be, it is at least a definite decision. But no such solution is possible in questions of legal procedure, for the simple reason that China has no codified legislation in this domain; the Chinese Code of Civil Procedure exists only in the form of a draft which will still require a long time before it is revised; only two of the six parts of the Chinese Draft Code of Criminal Procedure have been promulgated; fragmentary provisions concerning legal procedure may still be found in the "Law of the organisation of the judiciary" and in the "Provisional Regulations of the High Courts and their subordinate Courts;" beyond these provisions (which are in themselves open to much criticism) the Chinese judiciary must rely on whatever may be found in the old laws of the Manchu Dynasty. More important still-China has no modern Code of Civil Law; only the first forty odd articles of the existing draft have been proumulgated; the revision of the rest will not even be started before the protracted revision of the existing Criminal Code will have been completed. How will civil cases be decided then, for the application to which of foreign law the 1918 Rules do not provide and which are not provided for either by the Chinese civil legislation? It is true that a decision of the Chinese Supreme Court orders civil cases to be decided "first according to express provisions of law, in the absence of express provisions, then, according to customs, and, in the absence of customs, then according to legal principles." Is this to be taken to mean that when there is no provision for the application of foreign (i.e. in this case-of Russian) law, civil cases between Russians are to be tried according to the peculiar stipulations of the old "Ta Ch'ing lü li" and of Chinese custom?

B. PRACTICAL RESULTS.

1.—THE JUDICIARY.

Unpreparedness.—The decision to assume jurisdiction over Russians had been maturing for some time in the minds of the Chinese authorities, but was nevertheless taken suddenly, thus excluding the possibility of detailed forethought with regard to the regulations indispensable for coping with the new duties which were to devolve upon them. The Presidential Mandate of September 23rd, 1920, contains a frank avowal of this circumstance in ordering the corresponding authorities to devise adequate measures in this connection.

On October 1st 1920, following the closing of the Russian Consulates and corresponding Consular Courts, the Chinese authorities forcibly closed the Russian Tribunal at Harbin and the offices of the Justices of Peace and of Preliminary Investigation on the territory of the Chinese Eastern Railway. The existing Chinese Court of Kirin-Pinkiang at Harbin having received no definite instructions regarding the trial of Russian cases, the whole legal status of Russians, more especially in Manchuria, was simply left in suspense.

Mandates October 31st, 1920.

It was only on October 31st, 1920, that a Presidential Mandate was issued, promulgating the "Regulations for the organisation of the judiciary in the Special Manchurian Region," providing for the establishment of a Tribural at Harbin, with local sections along the line of the Chinese Eastern Railway, and of a Court of Appeal in the same town. The last appeal remained to the Supreme Court at Peking. Offices of Public Prosecutors were attached to these Courts. The same Regulations, while leaving legal procedure to be defined by subsequent instructions, allow foreign barristers to appear in these Courts and, essential feature, provide for the possibility of employing foreigners as advisers and investigators in them. The functions of these foreign advisers and investigators were simultaneously defined by a Mandate, prescribing that they be selected from foreigners who had been employed in foreign judicial department or had been barristersat-law, placing them under the supervision of the Presidents of the Chinese Courts of Appeal and of the Chinese Tribunal, and restricting their functions to a purely consultative rôle, excepting in cases between Russians in which they may be employed as assistants.

It took another month before these Mandates were enforced, and the new Chinese judicial system designed for Russians in Northern Manchuria was inaugurated only on the 2nd of December 1920. Only two Russian advisers had been enlisted, one for the Chinese Tribunal and one for the Chinese Court of Appeal at Harbin, with a few clerks and ushers. It took several more weeks before Russian investigators were appointed and it was not till February 1921, that either these advisers or these investigators were given the opportunity to do any effective work, even then, how-

ever, on a very limited scale.

Russian cases pending.—The chaos into which both civil and criminal cases in which Russians were involved had been thrown by the condition of affairs described above may well be imagined. The weirdest decisions, to some of which we will refer below, were announced, crimes remained without investigation, no decision could be obtained in civil claims. But where the Chinese unpreparedness was manifested most glaringly was in those cases which had arisen before the promulgation of the Presidential Mandate of September 23rd, and the closing of the Russian Courts, and had been left undecided. No provision of any kind had been made for their liquidation and these cases remained in a state of stagnation for over five long months, before any decision was arrived at, even in theory, as

to the mode of their settlement. This decision finally appeared in the shape of a Presidential Mandate, dated March 2nd, 1921, promulgating the "Regulations of the Section for the liquidation of old Russian legal cases in the Special Manchurian Region."

Mandate March 2nd, 1921

This section, to which the office of a Public Prosecutor is attached, is to liquidate all Russian legal cases, begun before the 23rd of September 1920. It consists of two Tribunals, the first consisting of one judge, the second of three judges, and the decisions of this second Tribunal are final. The Section is to fiquidate; at cases on which decisions have already been passed by the former Russian Courts, these decisions having however been appealed against; bt similar cases in which, under Russian law, appeal could still be brought against decisions already passed; ct cases not yet decided by the Russian Courts. Briefs and decisions of the former Russian Courts regarding the aforesaid cases are to be considered valid and are to be put into execution. Political cases, however, may be closed after having been considered. The staff of the Section is to be recruited from the Chinese judicial officers of the Special Manchurian Region. The most essential provision of the Regulations which we are examining is embodied in its Article 7, which reads as follows:—

"In examining cases the Section will apply the following laws:—a. in civil cases, apart from the application of the Rules of the 5th of August of the 7th year of the Republic (1918) on the application of foreign law, the existing Chinese laws and regulations will also be applied; b. in criminal cases the Provisional Criminal Code will be applied, but in those cases, where Russian criminal law provides for punishment in a minor degree, the punishment must be correspondingly

reduced."

It remains to be seen how these Regulations will be executed and to what extent the work of the Liquidation Section will be satisfactory. So far it required a "hunger strike" on the part of the prisoners of the Harbin jail (at the end of March 1921,) to move the Chinese judiciary to prompter action in the liquidation work. On the other hand an elementary legal axiom ought to have told the Chinese authorities that the Russian cases begun under Russian law could be finished only according to the same law; the Regulations mentioned above nevertheless provide for their trial according to Chinese law. Meanwhile the verdicts and sentences of the late Russian courts, already pronounced but not yet put into execution remain ineffective; the detrimental results of such inaction in cases both civil and criminal are self-evident. The Russian cases left pending by the sudden closing of the Russian courts number over 5,000 and their files comprise about 180,000 sheets in Russian, which the Chinese originally intended to translate into their language, forgetting that this work would occupy 150 interpreters for six months, whereas the Chinese judiciary at Harbin dispose of one tenth of that number only. A suggestion was then made by the Chinese authorities that only "essential extracts' from the said files should be translated, as if even a trained lawyer could decide what is essential or messential in a legal file before the nearing of the case. It is only after the "hunger strike" already referred to that the Chinese Ministry of Justice declared that the assistance of Russian experts would be secured for the completion of the Russian cases pending; but even then it made no mention of their liquidation either according to Russian law, or in the Russian language.

Language.—The absence of a common language between the Chinese Judges and Russians appearing before Chinese Courts is one of the insuperable difficulties to any fair dealing with Russian legal cases. Although it might have been inferred from the promises of the Chinese Government

that its officials would attempt to find a satisfactory answer to this question, they have not done so. The Chinese judiciary have taken the stand that Russians in China are under the obligation to know the Chinese language, in spite of the fact that this obligation was and remains excluded by their extraterritorial status. Chinese judges have therefore refused to hear evidence in Russian even when they themselves spoke it. In most cases the Chinese Courts demand any application to be stated in written Chinese before they agree to consider it.

The difficulty of conforming to this regulation is increased by the fact that the Chinese language has a comparatively limited legal vocabulary and is obliged to borrow a great number of judicial terms from Japanese hieroglyphical dictionaries. To establish the exact meaning corresponding to an idea presented by an artificial combination of characters (such combinations in many cases not appearing in any Chinese vocabulary) requires no little work and attention even from a Chinese scholar. One may then imagine the plight of an average foreign businessman, obliged to express his legal needs through the medium of an ordinary hired interpreter.

The Chinese Government has, it is true, made provisions for securing a staff of official interpreters in the courts at Harbin. None of these, however, are trained legal interpreters. Furthermore their number is totally inadequate. The Chinese Tribunal, the Court of Appeal, the Section of the Tribunal for cases of the First Degree, and the Office of the Fublic Prosecutor, dispose of a staff of 15 interpreters in all; two of these only have finished their studies at a commercial school, the others have scarcely a working knowledge of vernacular Russian, much less of legal The hopes of the Chinese authorities gradually to increase the number of official interpreters and to raise their standard are vain. The highest salary of an official interpreter at Harbin is \$120 a month; this sum scarcely meets modest living expenses, and the better qualified interpreters easily find more remunerative employment elsewhere. Meanwhile the cost of the translations, when done by private interpreters or by the official interpreters in their free hours, has soared to prohibitive limits. Hundreds of dollars are asked and paid for urgent translations of documents, and justice thus becomes a luxury of the wealthy.

Overworked as the official interpreters are, their functions have to be restricted to the most elementary requirements. Thus in criminal cases only extracts of the defendants' evidence can be translated to the judge. The speech of the Public Prosecutor is not translated to the defendant at all; he consequently remains in ignorance of the charges brought against him and the evidence thereanent.

The incompetence of the interpreters produces still greater confusion. A man sued for having broken a window was, as a result of an error of the interpreter, sentenced by the Chinese judge to hard labour for the "murder of Mr. Window;" the error was fortunately discovered, whereupon the judge simply repealed his own verdict and imposed a slight fine on the offender. The theft of N's money was translated "theft of money by N."—D. was accused of a murder "which did not succeed." T. was arrested "for keeping a strange thing". K. was imprisoned "for terrible things." The transcription of foreign names by Chinese characters sometimes makes them absolutely unidentifiable.

Absence of Laws.—We have already referred to the essential omissions in Chinese legislation. We have also mentioned that in absence of written law, the practice of the Chinese judiciary prescribes the application of custom and, in default of the latter, of "legal principles." A few examples will suffice to show how distant the Chinese conception of these "legal principles" is from the axioms of modern jurisprudence

The 1918 "Rules for the application of (foreign) laws" have been officially and repeatedly pointed out as one of the basis of the present day legal status of Russians in China. These Rules were moreover promulgated as a law of the Republic three years ago. Nevertheless, when reference was made to them by interested parties in the Chinese Courts at Harbin, the latter excused themselves from applying the Rules, on the ground that

they had no specific instructions to do so from Peking.

Far from recognising the binding force of the "res judicata," the condition of a case on which a legal decision has been passed and often put into execution, the Chinese judicial authorities in Manchuria decline to consider the verdicts of Russian Courts, unquestionably valid as they are, on the pretence that they have no instructions for the recognition of foreign verdicts and sentences. A provision for the recognition of the latter has been made by the Chinese Government only with regard to the cases left pending by the late Russian Courts in Manchuria, but no mention at all has been made so far in this connection of all other Russian cases. Russians are thus placed in the position of "foreigners" with regard to judgments passed on their cases by their own national courts. The fundamental principle "non bis in idem" is equally ignored. Several cases are on record where unscrupulous defendants or plaintiffs, discontented with the decisions of Russian Courts, took up the same cases before the Chinese Courts at Harbin. These courts not only agreed to examine these cases onew, well knowing that they had been already decided upon, but passed new sentences on them. Thus a man whose wife died leaving some landed property to her infant children for whom she appointed him trustee, filed a suit in the Chinese Court with a view to having the legacy turned over to him, despite the fact that the will had been proved before the Russian Tribunal at Harbin. The Chinese Court, ignoring the former decision, granted his claim, whereupon the "trustee" promptly sold the property and absconded with the proceeds. This is but a characteristic

remarked that "the court knew what it was doing."

It took several months before any definite regulations concerning legal fees and taxes were made public. It is on record that fees were fixed for certain cases and no receipt for them could be obtained. When the documents were subsequently lost, the applicants had to replace them and were again mulcted of an amount in fees that was in excess of those first charged.

Apart from the fact that the Chinese "lawyer Regulations" present many essential difficulties for qualified and sworn Russian barristersat-law in the pursuance of their profession, the Chinese Ministry of Justice, totally ignoring the treaty rights of Russians, further hampers them by requiring them to work under the terms of the "Provisional Regulations Governing Lawyers of Non-Extraterritorial Powers," notwithstanding the fact that Article 5 of these regulations clearly states that they "apply exclusively to subjects of non-extraterritorial Powers and cannot be applied to subjects of extraterritorial Powers." The very essential limitation which these regulations contain is embodied in their Article 3:— "Pleading by lawyers of a non-extraterritorial Power is confined to cases concerning subjects of such Powers and to representation of such subjects."

Allowing that some of the incongruities mentioned above may later be amended—albeit with great loss of time and most serious damage to the

interested parties—and turning to the application of Chinese custom (or possibly—antiquated law) we find still more striking facts.

Foremost among these is the detention of the defendant in the majority of civil cases, only allowing his release on bail. Questioned with regard to this measure an authority remarked that, although it met with censure in Chinese judicial circles, its application was rooted in the prependerance of material interests over personal liberty in the Chinese mind. Playing further for safety the Chinese authorities have gone to the length of imprisoning even the plaintiffs and witnesses in certain civil cases, not to mention accusers in criminal affairs. Some were released on bail, others remained under arrest until the completion of the preliminary investigation or even until the hearing of the case. Sometimes, however, there was no trial at all. 'Take the instance of a man who had caught some workmen in the act of stealing his tools and took them to a police station. Both the accuser and the accused were arrested and confined in the same cell. Some hours later a Chinese judge appeared, handed the man back his tools, then released everybody and thus closed the case. In another instance a man brought a thief who had robbed him of his fur-coat to the police. When told that not only the culprit, but he himself would be confined in a cell which was not heated, the window panes being replaced by boards, in mid-winter, the accused withdrew his com-

Another feature of Chinese justice, repugnant to modern ideas, is the manacling, or else—the binding of prisoners with so-called "judicial strings," when they are conveyed from the prison to the law-court. This treatment is applied not only to convicted criminals, but to those also are only apprehended and whose cases are still under preliminary investigation. The Chinese authorities at Harbin at first refrained from applying this measure. But on one occasion the Public Prosecutor authorised an important criminal to leave the prison under escort, in order to search personally for a witness in the town. The criminal availed himself of this opportunity to escape while thus quaintly assisting the authorities to collect evidence; thenceforth every prisoner was transported bound or manacled.

A still more barbarous measure was used when a plot of some prisoners to escape from the Harbin jail was discovered. The culprits were first cross-examined on their knees, with their hands tied behind their

backs, and were subsequently flogged with bamboos.

The abnormal position in which Russians in China are placed, not-withstanding repeated and solemn assurances, may further be evidenced by the fact that the special rules of procedure, both civil and criminal, promised for the Chinese law-courts in Manchuria as long ago as in the Mandates of October 31st, 1920, have up to the time of the writing of this article not been promulgated, that Russians are subjected to the effect of laws which they can neither read nor understand, and are on the other hand unable to ascertain which laws precisely are to be applied to them, that it took months before the Chinese courts began to annex to their verdiets, sentences and decisions any brief and very fragmentary translation of their Chinese text into Russian, that preliminary investigation of crimes remains in the most rudimentary stage, so much so that even the medical examination of corpses is a comparatively rare event, whereas photographic, calligraphic and chemical expert investigations are totally unknown.

Additional stress is laid upon these abnormal circumstances by the fact that, according to a general consensus of opinion, the majority of the Chinese judges, in Manchuria are exerting their best efforts, although most of them are not trained lawyers, to cope with a situation made impossible by insuperable difficulties of language, inadequate legislation, insufficient and unqualified personnel, etc. Yet these Chinese judges

are expected not only to make up for the failings of their national laws, incomplete and antiquated as they often are, but to master the complicated and delicate legal problems of private international law outlined in the 1918 "Rules for the application of (foreign) laws;" some of these problems are still a stumbling block for expert lawyers in the West; they moreover require a fair knowledge on the part of the Chinese judges of Russian law and the laws of other foreigners who happen to be under Chinese jurisdiction. How many years will it take before the Chinese

judiciary can dream of meeting these requirements?

We have dwelt with some length on the judicial status of Russians in China because it is of vital importance not only to Russians, but to every foreigner in the event of the general abolition of extraterritoriality in this country, desired by the Chinese. That this is no mere surmise appears from the fact that a Special Commission has been constituted for this purpose at Peking, that emissaries, both native and foreign have already been sent abroad to obtain this abolition and that the Chinese representatives abroad have been instructed accordingly. The experiment on the Russian "rabbit" is thus of a momentous interest to every foreigner in China, or dealing with China. Scarcely a doubt can be left after reading the facts set forth above that the experiment has already turned out a failure.

The Presidential Mandate of September 23rd, immediately brought forth detailed protests from the Harbin Municipality, the Russian Legal Association, the Russian merchants, etc. These protests dealt with the irregularity of the taking over of the Russian jurisdiction on principle, and foretold the innumerable difficulties which would result from it in practice. Delegations from the organisations mentioned above, from the Harbin Stock-Exchange, the Association of house-owners, the Russian colonies in Shanghai, Hankow and Tientsin, united to form a Committee of Russian Non-Political Institutions and Social Organisations in China. This Committee has repeatedly memorialised the Chinese Government on all the facts and cases enumerated above and on many others. A very few of its requests were complied with, some were flatly refused (for instance the use of the Russian language and the non-manacling of prisoners), most were left unanswered or brought forth elusive answers, given unwillingly although the Chinese Government had officially expressed its readiness to consider representative Russian opinion on questions concerning the status of Russians. The slightest pretexts were used to refuse interviews with the officials in charge, interviews granted at best with much delay and difficulty, and hints were given through indirect channels that the Ministry of Justice was overwhelmed by Russian affairs which now constituted the greater part of its work, whereas in China generally the judiciary had a comparatively very limited rôle, most cases being settled, when they went as far as the authorities, by the police.

It is characteristic that even the mission of the Far Eastern Republic, screening Soviet representation in Peking, although having expressed its readiness to abandon Russian extraterritoriality, saw fit in one of its notes to the Chinese Government, namely that of February 2nd, 1921, made public in the Press, to mention the anarchy prevailing in the Chinese law-courts at Harbin.

That the Chinese Government itself realised that everything was not going smoothly in the Russian question is shown by a Presidential Mandate, dated December 1st, 1920, or more than two months after the promulgation of the original Mandate of September 23rd, which runs as follows:—

Mandate December 1st, 1920.

"In a Mandate issued some time ago regarding the suspension of the official recognition of the Russian Minister and Consuls it was categorically said that all peaceful Russian citizens residing in China must enjoy effective protection as heretofore. Fearing, however, that this order is not fulfilled locally with sufficient energy nor thoroughly enough, I consider it necessary to reiterate it most strictly. It is the duty of all local authorities, both military and civil, to instruct the troops and police that they shall infallibly as before take effective measures for the protection of Russian citizens residing in China and shall properly deal with all of them equally, so as to meet my desire to give protection and assistance to foreigners residing in China."

One can but regret that the sincerity of this Mandate could but little improve the actual situation. This can be solved, pending the constitution of a recognised Russian Government, only by a wholehearted cooperation of the Chinese authorities, dealing with Russian affairs, with qualified Russian experts. The employment of such experts in sufficient number and with adequate full-powers and attributions is the only way to surmount the differences of language, of legislation, of customs, etc. It would enable Chinese judges and lawyers to acquire invaluable experience and knowledge and gradually to master every knotty problem. Gradually also the Russian experts, lawyers and population would adapt themselves to the new situation and overcome the hopeless difficulties which are now That the Chinese authorities should be loth to take such a course, on the pretext that it would impair Chinese sovereign rights, is all the more incomprehensible as a signal success which might be achieved by it would on the contrary be an important victory for Chinese sovereignty. Not only would it closen the ties between Russians and Chinese, but it would also be the first effective step towards the abolition of extraterritoriality in China.

Should the present chaos in the legal status of Russians be allowed to continue, it will on the contrary sooner or later become a universal scandal which will ruin the reputation of the Chinese judiciary and will postpone the abrogation of extraterritoriality for many years from the remotest date it may be thought of now, not only with regard to the existing Great Powers, but also with regard to China's closest neighbour-Russia, as soon as it resumes its place in the community of nations.

2.—Administrative Measures.

On October 30th, 1920, the Chinese Government promulgated the following "Rules for the administration of Russian citizens residing in China":—

(Translated from the Chinese text).

Administrative Regulations October 30th, 1920.

1. Russian citizens in China may continue to reside in ports opened for trade (Shan-fu) or those places in which they have been allowed to reside heretofore; they may, moreover, occupy themselves with suitable peaceful professions and also receive protection of their persons and property; they are, however, bound to obey Chinese laws and regulations, both in force at present and those which will be promulgated in good time in future.

In those cases, where it will be necessary to rent premises in the places mentioned in the foregoing paragraph, they will be bound to observe the regulations in force in these places with regard to renting premises and to apply to the local governmental institution for per-

mission.

Those Russian citizens, residing in China, however, who occupy themselves with missionary activities or benevolent purposes, may rent premises inside the country (Nei-ti) and are equally bound to observe regulations and apply for permission.

2. Russian citizens, residing in China, suspected of carrying contraband, will be bound to submit to examination on the part of the

local governmental institutions.

3. Should Russian citizens residing in China commit offences infringing the laws and disturbing public order, or should they be suspected and also in cases in which it will be considered absolutely necessary, they may, apart from legal consequences, be summoned to leave the territory of the country, or adequate observation and restrictions may be enforced with regard to them.

4. Russian citizens residing in China when they leave for a journey inside the country, are bound to apply, either through the local governmental institution or directly, to the office of the Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, requesting permission and the issuing of a passport (Hu-chao), mentioning in their request the object and locality of the journey and defining in advance its duration; they are, however, not allowed to make topographical surveys in the localities of their journey.

The passports mentioned in the foregoing paragraph are to be issued in the Capital by the Administration of the Metropolitan Police.

5. In the present regulations the term "local governmental institution" is to be taken to mean the Police offices in those localities where police have been established, and the District office and Offices preparatory to the establishment of districts, in those localities where police have not yet been established.

6. The present regulations come into force from the day of

their publication."

In these Regulations, explicitly stating that Russians will have to obey Chinese laws, we find another plain contradiction of the assurances regarding the maintenance of Russians' treaty rights. These regulations are, as a matter of fact, borrowed from the general regulations concerning the administration of subjects of non-treaty Powers, which were in their turn partly inspired by the strict regulations concerning the

treatment of enemy subjects in China during the war.

The possibilities which these regulations allow for the application of arbitrary administrative measures appear at a glance from their paragraph 3. An illustration of such arbitrary measures may be found in the recent arrest of two prominent Russians in Peking, detained for many days without any charge brought up against them and refused the permission to see their relatives or secure legal advice. The motive for this arrest was political, it is true:—alleged connection with the disturbances in Mongolia. The same motive probably inspired certain measures of supervision of Russians travelling between China proper and Manchuria (verification of passports, cross-questioning), also the censorship established with regard to Russian correspondence at Harbin; the latter measure, although in force has not been generally made public. Attempts to institute a preliminary censorship of the Russian newspapers edited at Harbin may also be mentioned in this connection.

A peculiar situation evolved with regard to Russians in Shanghai. A large proportion of the Russian citizens in that port reside and do business within the limits of the International and French Concessions, where the Chinese authorities have no jurisdiction. The closing of the local Russian Consulate General therefore deprived these Russians of any jurisdiction whatsoever, a situation which could be only partially cleared by the appointment of the Russian ex-Vice-Consul as Senior Consul's Assessor (under the Municipal Regulations) for the Russian group of unrepresented for eigners in the Shanghai Mixed Court. A general solution was arrived a after lengthy discussions between the Consular Body, the Commissioner for Foreign Affairs and Peking. A Bureau for Russian Affairs was in

augurated in the former Russian Consular building, presided over and controlled by the Commissioner for Foreign Affairs and administered as nearly as possible on the lines of the Russian Consular regulations, by the Russian ex Consul General in the capacity of the Commissioner's Deputy. This solution affects, of course, only administrative functions, and in judicial matters the local Russians depend upon the Mixed Court and the Chinese Court. A Russian tribunal has, however, been maintained for civil cases between Russians or foreign plaintiffs and Russian defendants in which parties express, before trial, their submission to the decision of this tribunal, which may thereafter be executed by the Municipal police with the sanction of the Mixed Court.

In Hankow the Chinese authorities have so far been true to their pledge not to interfere with the business of the Municipality of the Russian Concession, noted for its flourishing condition and efficient administration. No break was made in the relations of the Municipal Council and the Municipal police or in the collection of Municipal taxes. The collaboration of the Russian ex-Consul General has been secured through his appointment as adviser to the office of the Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, who acts officially instead of the Russian Consul as Chief of the Chancery for Russian Affairs

The same principle is adopted in Tientsin, where the Russian ex-Vice-Consul is also attached to the Commissioner's office. The situation of the Russian Concession, which the Chinese Government in its last note to the Diplomatic Body regarding the Russian question (dated February 28th, 1921), styles "The ex-Russian Concession," has, notwithstanding the representations of the Diplomatic Body, undergone a less favourable evolution than in Hankow. The Chinese police authorities have insisted on taking over the policing of the Russian Concession, thus breaking into one of the essential functions of the Municipality under existing regulations, the validity of which has been confirmed. This question is still pending in view of the serious inconvenience it involves for all the important foreign interests concentrated on the Russian Concession in Tientsin, with regard to the collection of taxes and fines, maintenance of order etc.

Chinese Turkestan is the place of residence of many thousands of Russian subjects, tradesmen and agriculturists, the majority of whom are natives from Russian Turkestan, Sarts, Tarantchis, Tartars, etc. Their number has been increased by some 10,000 refugees, mostly officers and soldiers of the Omsk Government troops. These were disarmed and interned under the orders of the chiefs, Generals Bakitck, Dutoff (recently murdered by Red emissaries) and Attaman Annenkoff near Chuguchak (Tarbagatai), Kuldja (Ili) and Kucheng respectively, and the Chinese authorities gave them material assistance by providing them with daily rations of food.

The new status of Russians in China has affected Russian citizens in Chinese Turkestan insofar, to judge by fragmentary information, as they have been subjected to new taxes and that in some districts land tenure has been made conditional, for natives who are Russian subjects, upon their becoming Chinese subjects. With regard to the Russian peasants who have during the last decades colonised parts of the Altai district, the Chinese authorities have apparently decided to expel them entirely from Chinese territory.

In Mongolia, the cancellation of that country's autonomy was followed in the Urianghai District by some atrocities of Chinese troops on Russian colonists, some of whom were barbarously imprisoned, tortured and killed. In the remoter confines of Mongolia, however, such as Kobdo and Uliassutai, this seems to have been an exception, and the situation of Russians does not appear so far to have been particularly affected otherwise

than as a general result of the Russian revolution. In the two last named places Chinese authority was moreover purely nominal.

In Urga, however the presence of an especially inferior class of Chinese troops, under Generals Chu Chi-hsiang and Kao Tsai-tien, resulted in very serious abuses towards the local Russian population after the closing of the Russian Consulate General in that town. The Russian chapel was desecrated, Russian official and public buildings were seized and despoiled, Russians were expelled from their houses, searched, illtreated, plundered and looted indoors and out. From 100 to 200 persons, not only refugees, but also prominent local residents, were summarily arrested without any charges and imprisoned in horrible circumstances, herded together by dozens into dark cells a few feet square which were left unheated in the midst of the Mongolian winter. The prisoners could not lie down and were not allowed outside for days. They were moreover often deprived of their warm clothes, fettered and scantily fed. Several prisoners vanished from these black holes never to reappear, others were killed in the open. The evidence brought regarding some of these cases to Peking by impartial witnesses moved the Diplomatic Body to draw the attention of the Chinese Government to them, in the name of humanity, in a Note dated December 23rd, 1920. The Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs replied to this note on January 24th, 1921, on the basis of local reports, denying some of the facts quoted and exonerating the local Chinese authorities from the rest, on the plea of the disturbances round Urga, disturbances in which some Russians were involved. How much the Chinese Government must have been misled by these local reports may be gathered from the case of 16 Russians who had been murdered in October 1920, in one of the Urga prisons, which was a specific case referred to in the note of the Diplomatic Body. The Chinese reply claimed that the nurdered persons were accomplices of the rebels attacking Urga, that they had nevertheless been generously treated, until, on the night of an attack, they had tried to overpower their guardians and escape. A list of the murdered people happened to reach Peking about the time of the sending in of this note. It included three women, two doctors and a majority of middle-aged men who had never been soldiers but had occupied prominent positions in Russian municipal administrations, schools and business firms. It became known later from one or two survivors who escaped from the massacre that most of the victims had been employed in Mongolian agencies of the Central Union of Russian Co-operative Societies, that they were traveiling to Urga with due authorisation from the Chinese Commissioner at Kobdo, that they had nevertheless been arrested and disarmed when near Urga, after their papers had been torn up by Chinese soldiers, and that on the night of the murder they had been deprived not only of their valuables (of which they had over \$20,000 worth with them) but also of part of their clothes.

The abuses in Urga, which in several instances took place with regard to non-Russian foreigners, induced the Diplomatic Body to deliberate upon the necessity of despatching a special commission of enquiry to that town. This plan was abandoned as a result of the passing of Urga into the hands of the insurgents.

As the majority of Russians in China reside in the area of the Chinese Eastern Railway, it is here that the arrangements of the Chinese administration with regard to them deserve special attention. (The present status of the Chinese Eastern Railway, as an institution, is a separate question and will be dealt with further on).—The results of the direct contact of the Chinese authorities with the large Russian population of over 200,000 persons inhabiting the area of this railway are therefore most important. Reference has already been made to the proceedings of the Chinese

judiciary in this region. Let us now see how the Chinese administrative authorities acted when dealing with the Russian population in the three chief spheres of :--1. police matters, 2. postal service and 3. municipal affairs.

Under the terms of the 1895 Contract for the Construction and the Exploitation of the Chinese Eastern Railway* (art. 6) and of the Preliminary Agreement of 1909* (art. 16) the administration of the railway zone was in the hands of the Railway Company, which had the important right among others to police this zone. Article 17 of the Preliminary Agreement of 1909 provided for the elaboration of detailed regulations regarding this latter right, which the Chinese Government claimed on the strength of Articles 1 and 2 of the same Preliminary Agreement, but these regulations were never drawn up, and the Russian authorities remained in control of the police. After the fall of the Omsk Government, whose influence on the railway had, though indirect, been considerable, the Chinese Government decided to enforce its claim without waiting for the supplementary understanding agreed upon in 1909. In March 1920, the Chinese authorities disarmed the Russian police ("militsia") and replaced them by their own police in the whole area of the railway. This measure applied to the police in the settlements along the line, including Harbin, and to the so-called railway police, who maintain order on the trains and at the railway stations. Some of the Russian police officers and constables were taken into Chinese service, but most of them were replaced; none were allowed back their arms and all the responsible positions were immediately entrusted to Chinese officials. Much disorder resulted from this drastic measure because of the low standard of the new Chinese police force and on account of the fact that even the most efficient police staff could not be expected to deal satisfactorily with a population with whom they had no language in common, besides being ignorant of the regulations under which this population had lived up to the moment of this sudden change. As the taking over of the policing of the railway zone by the Chinese authorities did not at that time affect the extraterritorial status of the Russian population, the Russian administrative, judicial and municipal institutions in this area continued to carry on their business. They were obliged, however, to put their decisions into execution, and to enforce their verdicts, through the Chinese police. The latter was therefore expected to make inquests, draw up minutes, to collect fees and taxes, to serve summonses, to control passports, to enforce public order, to attend to sanitary measures, etc., etc., all this according to Russian laws and regulations. when Russian citizens were concerned.

Unable to cope with these impossible problems, the Chinese police in the railway zone showed itself equally incapable of discharging the elementary duties which may be expected from any guardians of public order, and its own conduct was frequently illegal. Nor is this surprising when one considers how casually the Chinese police staff was recruited. A smart Chinese "boy," employed in a Russian family, was for instance, rapidly promoted to the post of chief of a police section, which he still holds, with the shoulder straps of lieutenant-colonel.

The Chinese police, obviously misunderstanding what was going on, repeatedly refused to give assistance when required to do so, or else made a rush for the scene of some disorder and only added to the confusion by firing into the air. It generally avoids performing its duties when Chinese soldiers happen to be involved, even when the latter are obviously break-

^{*} NOTE: - The text of both these agreements are to be found in several editions of the treaties between China and Foreign Powers and notably in the one published by the Chinese Maritime Customs.

ing the law. Corpses are not removed from streets and roadsides for days and weeks.

Although, on principle, the police in the Chinese railway zone is not supposed to encroach on the sphere of competence of the judiciary, arbitrary arrests are frequent. Russian citizens are often deprived of their freedom for several days "on suspicion" and are then released without any explanations. One man was arrested for four days because his name resembled that of a farm which the police was looking for and he was therefore supposed to be able to give the address. Persons who brought thieves to the police stations were arrested with these thieves; when both parties were subsequently released the stolen effects, brought as evidence, had meanwhile disappeared. Persons arrested in connection with any disturbance are often more or less severely beaten by the police, even in the case of a simple misunderstanding or when a person happens to be in the way. Not only Russians, but other foreigners suffered violence of this kind; on the 21 of August 1920, a Greek subject and three Belgian subjects were beaten and arrested by the Chinese police, the first for refusing to appear before the Chinese court, the latter-for noisy behaviour in the streets; the same thing happened on October 2nd, to a British subject, whom the Chinese police believed to have broken traffic regulations.

In other cases the Chinese police has used arbitrary means to enforce summary decisions of cases which were beyond its competence. A Russian officer, brought in an intoxicated condition to a police station, was given a punishment of 15 blows with bamboos for having upset a hot water kettle in this station. Several persons were forced by the Chinese police, under the threat of a beating to settle bills handed to them, notwithstanding the fact that they disputed the sums. Many cases of arbitrary searches and requisitions are on record. At Manchouli and at Djalainor the Chinese police went so far as to impose arbitrary taxation for the right of keeping cattle, for the right to keep shops, etc.

Graft is extensively practised by the Chinese police in Harbin, some policemen candidly stating that "they are very poorly paid;" it is practically impossible to obtain certain documents from the Chinese administrative authorities, as for instance permits to keep arms, without a remuneration to the official underlings.

The foregoing statements are supported not by isolated examples, but by long lists of facts, many of which have been put on record by representative Russian bodies in Harbin and which show that several types of abuses are systematically carried out. No Russian feels safe either with regard to his person, or with regard to his property, and this fear, based on past occurrences is a serious obstacle to the investigation and suppression of many abuses which remain unknown.

As these abuses naturally became more frequent after the virtual cancellation of the Russians' extraterritoriality, a reform of the Chinese police in the Chinese Eastern Railway zone has much been discussed recently. All parties interested, including the civil Chinese authorities, concur in the view that the best solution of the question would be to organise a municipal police, under the control of the municipal councils in the settlements along the railway. The Chinese military authorities, however, for reasons of their own, oppose this scheme. A suggestion was made to improve the standard of the Chinese police by placing it under the supervision of a foreign expert; rumours have been current of more adequate police regulations being prepared by the responsible administrations; suggestions have been made to maintain a sufficient Russian staff in the Chinese police force and to devise measures for the study of Chinese by Rus-

sian constables and of Russian by the Chinese constables. But none of

these projects have materialised so far.

With regard to the postal service, the Chinese authorities did not interfere for several months with the working of the Russian post-offices in the zone of the Chinese Eastern Railway and closed them suddenly only at the end of January 1921. Contrary as this action was to existing treaty stipulations, it was a natural result of the disappearance of other Russian administrations in China. It is to be regretted, however, that in this instance, as in several others, an important step was taken drastically, without any warning or adequate provisions for its consequences. It was taken moreover by the Chinese administrative authorities, and the Chinese Postal Administration was only instructed to replace the closed Russian postoffices. Much inconvenience to the public, delay in transmission, careless distribution and loss of correspondence resulted from this untoward haste. It is to be hoped that the general efficiency of the Chinese Postal Administration will gradually overcome all these difficulties. An element of uncertainty is nevertheless maintained by the perlustration of letters which takes place at Harbin.

The last measure which the Chinese authorities have taken in the Chinese Eastern Railway zone (at the moment of the writing of this article) as a consequence of the Presidential Mandate of September 23rd, 1920, was to assume control of the municipal administrations in Harbin and along the railway line (at Manchouli, Hailar, Buhedu, Tsitsihar, Handaohetze). The status of the these municipal administrations was based on article 6 of the 1896 contract and on the regulations and bye-laws laid down for them by the administration of the railway from 1907 on. The preliminary agreement of 1909 provided for the right of the Chinese members in these municipalities. The detailed municipal regulations which were to complete this agreement and replace the already existing ones have not been elaborated however. Meanwhile an Anglo-Russian agreement signed in 1914 accepted the regulations and bye-laws mentioned above for British subjects (vide Annex 2). The Governments of France, Italy, Japan, Denmark, Belgium, the Netherlands and Spain shortly afterwards notified their adherence to the Anglo-Russian agreement. The Chinese authorities announced their recognition of the latter when, in February 1921, they decreed that the municipal administrations in the Chinese Eastern Railway zone were to be under the orders of the Pinkiang (Harbin) Taoyin and his assistant. Their motive for this action is the preliminary agreement, of 1909, and so far no further steps of any importance have been taken to alter the working conditions of the municipalities. Chinese announcement is in itself however an infringement of the municipal regulations, sanctioned by the aforementioned treaties, and does not take into account the rights of the railway company in this connection. understanding with the latter and with the interested foreign Powers will therefore have to be made before the new preliminary status of the municipalities (pending the final regulations which are to be drawn up in accordance with the preliminary agreement of 1909) can be considered as regularly established.

In concluding this survey of the standing of Russians with regard to the Chinese administration, we may remark that the status of the Russian Ecclesiastical Mission has so far undergone no specific change. Pending the restoration of communications with the supreme authority of the Russian Church, it depends canonically upon the Occumenic Patriarch at Constantinople.

III.—Changes on the Chinese Eastern Railway.

The Company of the Chinese Eastern Railway was, according to Article 2 of the Contract of 1896 and to its Statutes, constituted by the Russo-

Chinese (now Russo-Asiatic) Bank as a private Russo-Chinese Company, managed by a Board of nine Directors, presided over by a Chinese Presi-

dent, appointed by the Chinese Government.

As a matter of fact the Bank was, and remains, the sole shareholder of this Company, with the exception of a very few individual shares. The vast funds required for the construction of the railway, and those which were necessary to cover the deficit of the first years of its working, were raised by the Bank by loans made, under special agreements, from the Russian Government, who was the only holder of the debentures of the railway for the total of the sums thus advanced. This explains the control of the Russian Ministry of Finance over the administration of the Chinese Eastern Railway.

When the Bolshevik coup d'Etat did away with the Board of Directors of the Company at Petrograd, and when the Russian troops who mutinied in the area of the railway had to be removed to Russia and replaced by Chinese troops, the Russo-Asiatic Bank, availing itself of the provision in the Statutes of the Company allowing its Board of Directors (Pravlenie) to reside either in Petrograd or in Peking, called a meeting of the shareholders of the Company in the latter city, in May 1918, and had a new Board of Directors elected, consisting of the following members:—Lieutenant-General Horvath, who also remained General Manager of the railway, Mr. Putiloff, President of the Bank, Count Jezierski, General Manager of the Bank in the Far East, Vice-Admiral Koltchak, who was to supervise the military protection of the railway, Mr. Ustrugoff, Mr. Konovaloff, Mr. Slauta, Mr. Yen Shih-ch'ing, the ninth post being reserved for Mr. Wentzel, the Vice-President of the Company, held up by the Bolshevik revolution in Russia.

To make clear the status of the Russo-Asiatic Bank, now actively attending to its interests as owner of the Chinese Eastern Railway, it is necessary to observe that the management of the Bank lies with a Board of Directors (Pravlenie) and a Council. The Statutes of the Bank made it possible to reconstitute these organs in France, while the Bolsheviks seized the Bank and arrested several of its Directors in Petrograd. The Pravlenie, thus reconstructed, made Paris its headquarters and carried on the management of the Bank from that centre. The protection and assistance given to the Bank by the French Government is explained by the fact that 60% or more of the shareholders of the Bank are French.

The primary object of the Chinese Eastern Railway had been to establish direct connection with the port of Vladivostok. The Amur Railway was not completed till the outbreak of the war. The Chinese Eastern Railway was also the base of Russian enterprise and commerce in Manchuria. As the population of the Russian Far Eastern provinces grew, this railway became further a vital medium in supplying it with certain necessaries of life. From the Chinese point of view it was the means of developing the rich resources of Northern Manchuria, which had hitherto lain fallow. The outbreak of the Great War laid additional stress on the political importance of the Chinese Eastern Railway for Russia, when it became, with the Amur Railway, the only channel of direct communication between Russia and the outer world.

This political rôle had never been advantageous to the commercial standing of the railway, which drew most of its revenue from local transportation and the handling of exports from Manchuria, and was obliged to handle transit transports at a loss—which became particularly burdensome during the war. Russian expansion in Northern Manchuria in more than one respect imposed additional expense on the administration of the railway, acting as it did on behalf of the Russian Government. Of course the losses resulting from such a situation were at the time only a disguised outlay of capital by the Russian State, made good by important advantages

on the more general scale of the interests of the Russian nation as a whole. It is however necessary to point this situation out, so that the difficulties which faced the Chinese Eastern Railway after the Russian revolution may be understood.

The Bolshevik coup d'Etat of 1917 isolated the Chinese Eastern Railway, already then suffering from the rapidly increasing depreciation of the rouble, its standard currency, not to mention other economic difficulties resulting from the revolution. This isolation disappeared when the Omsk Government was established in Siberia in 1918, although the separatist activities of Attaman Semenoff in Transbaikalia to the last days of this Government remained a serious obstacle to the resumption of normal traffic. Foreign intervention in Siberia added to the strain on the Chinese Eastern railway by using it for important transports of troops and war material. Most of the debts contracted by the Powers concerned have not yet been raid to the Railway.

On the other hand subsequent events showed that it would have been a wise policy for the Omsk Government, which was promptly recognised by the Russian authorities of the Chinese Eastern Railway, to make an effort so as to establish this railway as a paying concern. Such a measure would have obliged the Government to relieve the railway of some of the duties, imposed upon it for the sake of the general interests of the State. But it would have been the best means of strengthening the Russian situation in China at a critical moment and in a region upon which the Omsk Government itself largely depended for necessary imports and supplies. Hard pressed by financial difficulties Omsk could not bring itself, however, to take this point of view, and automatically adopted the stand of the Imperial Russian Government towards the railway, demanding that the latter do every thing to meet the new government's requirements, without giving it the moral and material support which the railway used to receive from the old government. The partial and compulsory exchange of the so-called "Kerensky" rouble notes against Siberian roubles may be quoted as one of the instances when the Chinese Eastern Railway sustained a heavy loss (amounting to many millions) in complying with orders from Omsk.

The Chinese Government, which had no capital invested in the railway and was moreover participating in the foreign intervention in Siberia, did not interest itself in the situation of the railway. The only thing it did was to appoint (since 1917) an official to the post of the President of the Society of the railway which had remained vacant since 1901. Neither did the Board of Directors elected in 1918 take a prominent part in the management of the railway, which practically remained entirely in the hands of General Horvath as General Manager, supported by the members of the railway admistration under his orders. The only change which took place in the Board of Directors was that Admiral Koltchak resigned from it when he went into Siberian politics.

This state of affairs was not changed as long as the Omsk Government lasted. Upon its fall at the end of 1919, the Chinese Government, however, decided to establish a more direct control of the Chinese Eastern Railway, partly with a view to the vindication of Chinese sovereign rights, partly from the fear that, if it abstained, other foreign influences might make their way into the railway management. In the spring of 1920, the Chinese authorities, availing themselves of disturbances among the workmen, prevented General Horvath from continuing the exercise of his functions, summarily selected Mr. Pimenoff to replace him, and appointed three Chinese Directors to the two posts left vacant by the resignation of Admiral Koltchak and the demise of Mr. Slauta at a later date.

These arbitrary measures brought forth protests against them from the owner of the railway—the Russo-Asiatic Bank, which was supported by the French Government. Long drawn negotiations were begun between the Bank and the Chinese Government, which resulted in a compromise embodied in a supplementary agreement to the Contract for the Construction and Exploitation of the Chinese Eastern Railway (1896), dated October 2nd, 1920, signed at Peking by representatives of the Russo-Asiatic Bank and of the Ministry of Communications, on behalf of the Chinese Government.

Supplementary Agreement October 2nd, 1920.

This agreement records the desire of the Chinese Government to assure the protection of the Railway and its decision, therefore, to assume temporarily the control over its administration, on the strength of the contract and regulations in force, pending an agreement to which the Chinese Government will come with the future Russian Government recognised by China. The Railway Company undertook to pay to the Chinese Government with accrued percentage the 5,000,000 taels mentioned in the last paragraph of the 1896 Contract, but which Petrograd had refrained from paying for reasons which remain unknown. It was agreed that the shareholders of the Railway Company (in other words—the Russo-Asiatic Bank) would freely appoint five members of the Board of Directors of the Company whereas the remaining four members would be appointed by the Chinese Government, besides the Chinese President who is to have the casting vote. The quorum of the Board of Directors is to be at least seven members. The Revision Committee, consisting of five members, is to include two Chinese members of whom one is to be president of this Committee. It was furthermore agreed that the offices of the railway administration would be fairly distributed among Chinese and Russians, a stipulation which is being put into execution by the adjunction of Chinese assistants to the Russian chiefs of the principal railway departments. It was emphatically stipulated that the activities of the Company were henceforward to be of a purely commercial character, excluding all political activity. Finally, the validity of the 1896 Contract and of the Statutes of the Chinese Eastern Railway Company was confirmed.

In the absence of any recognized Russian authority this agreement (which was signed after the Presidential Mandate of September 23rd, 1920, suspending the recognition of the Russian Minister) has no official endorsement on the Russian side. It will be observed however that it specifically claims to be only a provisional understanding, pending the constitution of a recognised Russian Government. It contains no essential derogations to the Statutes of the Railway Company, the stipulation regarding the severance of any connection with politics is certainly a wise decision and, under the circumstances, the agreement must be welcomed as a sound basis for securing the prosperity of this important enterprise, on the lines

Following the signing of this agreement, a meeting of the shareholders of the Railway Company was again called at Peking by the Russo-Asiatic Bank, and the following persons were elected to the new Board of Directors of the Company:—Engineer Latchinoff (who had for several months acted as Manager of the Railway on behalf of General Horvath), Engineer Danilevsky, Chief of the Technical Department of the Railway and M. M. Richter, Desnitsky and Pushkareff of the Russo-Asiatic Bank; the Chinese members appointed were Mr. Wang Ching-ch'un, Mr. Tung Shih-en (Tao-yin of Pinkiang), Mr. Yen Shih-ch'ing and Mr. Ho Shou-jen. The Revision Committee was composed of Mr. Ch'eng Han as president, and M. M. Konovaloff, Grosse Bliacher and Liu Ching-shan as members. The

of mutually advantageous Russo-Chinese economic co-operation.

President of the Board of Directors is Mr. Sung Hsiao-lien, the Vice-President Mr. Latchinoff.

The most important change in the staff of the Chinese Eastern Railway took place in the selection of a new General Manager, the running of the railway, as we have seen, practically depending entirely upon him. General Horvath went into retirement as adviser and representative of the Railway Company at Peking and was replaced by Mr. Ostroumoff, an engineer of great experience, who has set about the work of reconstruction facing him with energy and determination. Drastic improvements are being carried on in the traffic department, a retrenchment policy has been adopted with regard to expenses, measures are being enforced to improve the efficiency of the staff and to reduce it to the necessary limits, more moderate tariffs are being put into action to meet the changes in the demands upon the railway, steps are being taken to bring in sums due to

the railway and to secure funds to meet outstanding liabilities.

Excellent results may be expected on these lines, provided the business management of the railway is not interfered with and that adequate protection is guaranteed to its staff and property. We have mentioned that the Russian troops, were removed from the Chinese Eastern Railway zone as early as spring 1918. The guarding of the railway was then gradually taken over by Chinese troops, who were left alone to discharge this duty after the disarming of the Russian police in March 1920. The conduct of these troops has been far from satisfactory. Without going into details it will suffice to say that over 600 conflicts between them and members of the railway staff have been put on record during 1920. These soldiers often proved useless when their protection was needed against the brigands or "hunghutze" which are the scourge of the concessions along the railway line, and themselves repeatedly interfered with the regular running of trains, in commandeering rolling stock at their discretion, hastening or delaying the movement of trains without regard for schedules or resulting dangers, requisitioning premises and railway property or even simply appropriating goods and effects off the trains and out of the stations, ill-treating conductors, workmen, station masters, etc. The suppression of these abuses is one of the essential requisites for the satisfactory working of the railway.

ANNEX I.

Rules for the Application of Foreign Laws.

(Official translation from the Chinese, published by the Chinese Ministry of Justice, Peking, 1921.)

CHAPTER I.

THE APPLICATION OF LAWS.

Article 1. When according to these Rules a foreign law is to be applied, its application is nevertheless forbidden if it contravenes the public order

or good morals of China.

Article 2. When, according to these Rules, the national law of the party is to be applied, his national law is determined according to his nationality last acquired, if he has more than one nationality; provided that, if according to the law of nationality he should be recognised as a Chinese subject, Chinese law shall be applied.

If the party has no nationality, the law of his domicile shall be applied, and if his domicile is unknown, the law of his place of residence shall be

applied.

If, in the country of the party, the laws of different localities are different, the law of the locality to which he belongs shall be applied.

Article 3. The national law of a foreign juristic person whose existence is recognised by Chinese law consists in the law of its domicile.

Article 4. When, according to these Rules, the national law of the party is to be applied, Chinese law shall be applied if according to his national law Chinese law should be applied.

CHAPTER II.

LAWS RELATING TO PERSONS.

Article 5. The capacity of a person is governed by his national law.

A foreigner who has no capacity according to his national law, but has capacity according to the law of China, is considered to have capacity in regard to his juristic acts in China, except those concerning family law and the law of succession and those affecting immovables situate abroad.

A foreigner who has capacity but, on acquiring Chinese nationality, is considered to have no capacity according to Chinese law retains his original

capacity.

Article 6. A foreigner who has his domicile or residence in China and, according to both his national law and the law of China, has reasons to be interdicted may be interdicted.

Article 7. The provision of the last preceding article is applicable to

quasi-interdiction

Article 8. When a foreigner who has his domicile or residence in China is not known to be alive or dead, a declaration of death may be made according to Chinese law only as regards his property in China and legal relations based on Chinese law.

CHAPTER III.

LAWS RELATING TO THE FAMILY.

Article 9. The essentials of a marriage are governed by the respective national laws of the parties.

Article 16. The effect of a marriage is governed by the national law

of the husband.

The property relations between husband and wife are governed by the national law of the husband existing at the time of the formation of the marriage.

Article 11. A divorce may be decreed for a ground which, at the time of its occurrence, is, by the national law of the husband and the

law of China, considered as constituting a ground for divorce.

Article 12. The status of a child is governed by the national law of the husband of the mother existing at the time of its birth and, if he died before its birth, governed by the law of the country to which he last belonged.

Article 13. The essentials of legitimation of an illegitimate child are governed by the respective national laws of the legitimating parent and the

legimitized child.

The effect of legitimation is governed by the national law of the

legitimating parents.

Article 14. The essentials of adoption are governed by the respective national laws of the parties.

The effect of adoption is governed by the national law of the adoptive

parents.

Article 15. The legal relations between parents and child are governed by the national law of the father and, if it has no father, by the national law of the mother.

Article 16. The duty of maintenance is governed by the national law of the party liable, unless the right of maintenance is denied by Chinese law.

Article 17. Family relations other than those provided in the last preceding eight Articles and the rights and obligations arising out of such

relations are governed by the national law of the party.

Article 18. Guardianship is governed by the national law of the ward. provided that the guardianship of a foreigner who is domiciled or resident in China and is subject to one of the following conditions is governed by Chinese law :--

- 1. According to his national law there are reasons necessitating the appointment of a guardian, but there is nobody to exercise the functions of guardianship.
- He is interdicted in China.

Article 19. The provisions of the last preceding article apply mutatis mutandis to curatorship.

CHAPTER IV.

LAWS RELATING TO SUCCESSION.

Article 20. Succession is governed by the national law of the deceased. Article 21. The essentials and effect of a will are governed by the national law of the testator existing at the time of its making.

The revocation of a will is governed by the national law of the testator existing at the time of revocation.

CHAPTER V.

LAWS RELATING TO THINGS.

Article 22. Real rights are governed by the law of the place where the things are situate (lex loci situs); provided that real rights relating to ships are governed by the national law of the ship.

The acquisition and extinction of real rights, except those relating to ships, are governed by the law of the place where the things are situate at the time of the completion of the causal facts.

The form of a will relating to real rights may follow the provision of

the first clause of section 1 of Article 26.

Article 23. The proper law governing the essentials and effect of juristic acts giving rise to obligations is determined by the intention of the parties When the intention of the parties is uncertain, their national law governs if they are of the same nationality, but the law of the place of transaction governs if they are of different nationalities.

When there are different places of transaction, the place where com-

munication is made is the place of transaction.

When the offer and acceptance of a contract are made in different places, as regards the formation and the effect of the contract, the place where the offer is communicated is the place of transaction; but if the offeree does not know, at the time of acceptance, the place from which the offer was despatched, the domicile of the offeror is regarded as the place of transaction.

Article 24. Obligations arising out of management of affairs without mandate (negotiorum gestio) and unjustified benefits are governed by the

law of the place where the acts occurred.

Article 25. Obligations arising out of delicts are governed by the law of the place where the acts are committed, but this does not apply to acts not considered wrongful by Chinese law.

Applications for damages and for other dispositions on account of delicts mentioned in the above provision are limited only to those which

are allowed by Chinese law.

CHAPTER VI.

LAWS RELATING TO FORMS OF JURISTIC ACTS.

Article 26. The forms of juristic acts, unless otherwise provided, are governed by the law of the place where the acts are performed; provided that to follow the form prescribed by the law governing the effect of such acts is also effective.

The proviso of the above section is not applicable to the forms of acts which have for their object the exercise or preservation of rights arising out of negotiable instruments.

Article 27. These Rules shall come into operation on the day of promulgation.

ANNEX 2.

AGREEMENT

between the Russian and British Governments respecting the inclusion of British subjects within the scheme of municipal administration and taxotion established in the area of the Chinese Eastern Railway.

(official text).

Article 1.-The Imperial Russian Government having declared that all taxes and dues collected in the Railway Settlement at Harbin and in other Settlements situated in the area of the Chinese Eastern Railway shall be exclusively devoted to municipal and public purposes for the common benefit of the inhabitants of these places, His Britannic Majesty's Government agrees to the payment by British subjects residing in the Railway Settlement at Harbin and in other Settlements situated in the area of the Chinese Eastern Railway of the same dues and taxes, whether levied in money or in kind, which are paid by Russian subjects. His Britannic Majesty's Government further agrees that the payment of the said dues and taxes and the observance of the local Regulations and Byelaws, of which a list in hereunto annexed, shall be made obligatory upon the aforesaid British subjects from 1 January, 1915, and, in like manner undertakes to make binding upon British subjects from the day upon which they take effect for Russian subjects any additional or amended Regulations and Byelaws of a similar kind, provided that due notice of their intended introduction is given and that nothing is contained therein which conflicts with the extraterritorial rights of British subjects. It is agreed that the length of such notice shall in the case of new or amended Regulations be two months, and in that of new or amended Byelaws two weeks.

Article 2.—In consideration of the foregoing, British subjects residing in the Railway Settlement at Harbin and in other Settlements situated in the area of the Chinese Eastern Railway shall have the active and passive right of election to the local Municipal Administrations, both those now existing and those hereafter established and shall exercise this right, like Russian subjects, in accordance with the stipulations of the local Municipal Regulations. At Harbin, also, there shall be introduced into the Municipal Council consisting, in all, of six members, the term of whose office is three years, a representative of the foreign (non-Russian) community, who shall be a foreign (non-Russian) resident of good standing, the manner of whose election shall be as follows: the resident representatives, having full Consular jurisdictions, of those foreign Powers, exclusive of Russia, who have obliged their nationals to pay taxes and observe the local Regulations and Bye-laws in accordance with the stipulations of

this Agreement shall in consultation amongst themselves,-the opinion of the majority to prevail-prepare and present in good time to the Manager of the Chinese Eastern Railway for transmission to the Municipal Council a list containing the names of not less than three and not more than five persons from amongst whom the Assembly of Delegates shall elect by an ordinary majority vote-lots to be cast in case of even ballot-the representative in the Municipal Council of the foreign (non-Russian) community. The election of this Councillor shall be simultaneous with that of other members of the Council and the term of his office shall be concurrent with theirs. Should he resign or be dismissed before the expiration of this period, the Assembly of Delegates shall at the ordinary meeting occurring next after the preparation by the aforesaid Consular representatives of a new list, elect in the manner before stated, another member to serve for the remainder of the current term. The dismissal before his period of service has expired of a member of the Council elected in the method above described shall not be effected except with the consent of a majority of the Consular representatives aforesaid.

The member of the foreign community for the present triennial period shall be elected in the manner before stated at a supplementary election which shall be held not later than two weeks after the presentation to the Manager of the Chinese Eastern Railway by the Consular representatives of the prescribed list of names.

Article 3.—British subjects residing in the Railway Settlement at Harbin and in other Settlements situated in the area of the Chinese Eastern Railway shall—as regards all matters of an economic character, more especially such as relate to trade and industry and leases of land-lots—enjoy the same rights and privileges as Russian subjects. This equality shall also avail should, in the future, the present restricted rights to land be at any time enlarged or should lessees of land-lots or owners of houses be the recipients. on the lapse or termination of the Chinese Eastern Railway Company's holding, of compensation of whatever kind.

Article 4.—It is agreed that, should objections be raised by British subjects regarding the amount of the assessment tax on commercial and industrial enterprises exploited by them, their affidavits made before the British Consular Representative as to the size and character of the said enterprises shall be accepted in definite proof.

It is agreed, also, that permission shall not be given to British subjects to open, establish or maintain hotels, boarding or eating houses, houses of entertainment or shops for the sale of liquors except on production of a permit issued for the purpose by the British Consulate.

Article 5.—It is agreed that the police authorities in Harbin and in other Settlements situated in the area of the Chinese Eastern Railway shall give prompt effect to any requests preferred by the British Consular Representative for the adoption of coercive measures against British subjects; but officers of the force shall not, on their own initiative and in the absence of such requests, take any coercive action against British subjects except in cases involving a breach of the peace.

Article 6. British subjects shall be entitled to the benefit of any more favoured treatment which may be accorded by the Imperial Russian Government to the subjects or citizens of other foreign Powers resident in the Railway Settlement at Harbin or in other Settlements situated in the area of the Chinese Eastern Railway.

Article 7. The Imperial Russian Government undertakes that the Regulations and Bye-laws, of which a list is (hereunto) annexed, shall be brought into accord with the stipulations of this Agreement by the date mentioned in Article 1.

We, the undersigned, hereby certify that the foregoing is the draft Agreement concluded between us regarding the inclusion of British subjects within the scheme of Municipal Administration and taxation established in the area of the Chinese Eastern Railway.

Harbin, April 17/30, 1914.

(Signed) W. TRAUTSCHOLD, Imperial Russian Consul General.
E. DANIEL, Delegate of the Chinese Eastern Railway
Administration.

H. E. SLY, His Britannic Majesty's Consul.

(This Agreement came into operation upon a corresponding exchange of notes, dated December 9th, 1914, between the British and Russian Ministers at Peking, acting on the instructions of their respective Governments.)

CHAPTER XXIII.

CHINA'S WAR AND POST-WAR PROBLEMS.

THE SHANTUNG QUESTION.

(Reprinted by permission, from the "Chinese Social and Political Science Review.")

MEMORANDUM.

THE CLAIM OF CHINA FOR DIRECT RESTITUTION TO HERSELF OF THE LEASED TERRITORY OF KIAOCHAO, THE TSINGTAOTSINAN RAILWAY AND OTHER GERMAN RIGHTS IN RESPECT OF SHANTUNG PROVINCE.

A. Origin and extent of Germany's leasehold and other rights respecting Shantung.

1. The German Asiatic squadron, in search of a suitable naval base and maritime harbour in the Far East, had made laborious cruises along the Chinese coast and an official German Commission had recommended the Bay of Kiaochao as the most desirable spot, when the killing of two German missionaries in November 1897, in the interior of Shantung Province, in circumstances beyond the control of the local authorities, afforded the German Government the long sought for pretext for resorting to force in order to attain their object. Four German men-of-war, by order of the Kaiser, landed an expeditionary force on the coast of Kiaochao Bay and forthwith announced their occupation of the territory In the face of imminent danger from the presence of German troops on Chinese territry, the Chinese Government was constrained to conclude with Germany the Convention of March 6, 1898. (1)

2. It was under this Convention that China set aside a zone of 50 kilometers around the Bay of Kiaochao at high water for the passage of German troops therein at any time while reserving to herself all rights of sovereignty; and granted to Germany a lease for ninety-nine years of both sides of the entrance to the Bay of Kiaochao with a certain number of

islands.

3. Germany obtained under the same Convention the concession to construct two lines of railway in Shantung and to develop mining properties for a distance of 15 kilometers from each side of these railways. Both the railways and mining enterprises were to be undertaken by Sino-German Companies to be organized for the purpose, and Chinese and German merchants alike might subscribe to their share of stock and appoint directors for their management. Besides, the Chinese Government was made to engage that in all cases where foreign assistance, in personnel, capital, or material might be needed for any purpose whatever within the Province of Shantung, an offer should be made in the first instance to German manfacturers and merchants.

The Tsingtao-Tsinan Railway and branch, 434 kilometers in all, was one of the two lines authorised, financed and constructed by the Schantung Eisenbahn Gesellschaft, founded June 14, 1899, under a charter from the German Government. granted June, 1, 1899; and which had made an agreement with the Governor of Shantung, March 21, 1900, covering the detail regulations relative to the construction and working of this line. It was opened to traffic in June 1904.

The Concession to develop the mining properties as granted by the Convention of March 6, 1898, was taken up by the Schantung Bergbau

Gesellschaft, a company which was formed October 10, 1899, under a charter from the German Government dated June 1, 1899. The properties developed or in process of development by this company were the Fangtze and Hungshan Collieries and the iron mines near Kinglinchen.

By an agreement of February 5, 1913, the Schantung Bergbau Gesellschaft transferred all its rights and liabilities to the Schantung Eisenbahn Gesellschaft, which thereupon became the owner of the Mining

properties under consideration as well as the railway.

4. The right of protection of the Tsingtao-Tsinan Railway belonged to China. Article 16 of the Railway regulations (2) made by agreement

of March, 21, 1900, provided:

"If troops are needed, outside the 100 li (50 kilometers) zone, they shall be despatched by the Governor of the Province of Shantung. No foreign troops may be employed for this purpose."

Article 26 of the same agreement provided:

"Should the railway Company apply for soldiers to protect the preparatory work, the construction or the traffic of the railway, the Province of Shantung shall at once consider the circumstances and comply with such

application.

"If the Company, in course of prospecting or operating mines, or in course of building mining plants, should request the Governor of Shantung to despatch troops for protection outside the 100 li (50 kilometer) zone, he shall, on the receipt of such a petition and after considering the circumstances, forthwith comply with the request, and despatch an adequate body of troops for the purpose. As regards the amount of contribution which the Company shall pay to these guards, the matter shall be subsequently negotiated. But the Company shall not apply for foreign troops."

In 1900 German troops were sent to and remained in Kaomi and Kiaochao, which are inside the 50 kilometer zone, but outside of the leased territory. Pursuant to a convention (3) concluded November 28, 1905, between the Chinese Governor of Shantung Province and the German Governor of Tsingtao, Germany, however, withdrew the troops to Tsingtao and recognized China's right of policing that section of the railway which lay within the 50 kilometer zone as well as the remaining portion of the line westward and enforcing therein the Chinese police regulations in force in other parts of Shantung Province. A Chinese police station was forthwith established at Kiaochao and the policing work of the section within the

zone was duly taken over by China.

5. Besides, Germany possessed certain railway loan options in respect of Shantung Province. By an exchange of Notes of December 31, 1913, China granted Germany on option to finance and construct and supply material for two lines of railway, one from Kaomi to a point on the Tientsin-Pukow line, tentatively fixed at Hanchuan, and the other from Tsinan to a point on the Peking-Hankow line between Shunteh and Sinhsiang; while Germany, on her part, relinquished her options in respect of the Tehchow-Chenting line and the Yenchow-Kaifeng line, as well as the Concession granted in the Convention of March 6, 1898, to build a line through the Southern part of Shantung province; and also agreed to ratify the Mining Areas Delimitation Agreement of July 24, 1911 (4), concluded between the Governor of Shantung province and the Mining Company. Subsequently by an exchange of notes of June 10, 1914, Germany obtained a loan option on any westward extension of the Tsinan-Shunteh line, on the Chefoo-Weihsien line and the Tsining-Kaifeng line.

Under the Mining Areas Delimitation Agreement of July 24, 1911, mentioned above, Germany's mining rights in Shantung Province, which, according to the Convention of March 6, 1898 extended 15 kilometers or 10 miles on each side of the railways then to be built in the Province,

⁽²⁾ Appendix No. 2.

⁽³⁾ Appendix No. 3.

⁽⁴⁾ Appendix No. 4.

were greatly curtailed. The Shantung Mining Company relinquished under this agreement all its mining rights except the Tsechuan and Fangtze Collieries and Kinglinchen Iron mine. The areas of these three mining properties retained were surveyed and defined with an option for German subjects to supply capital, engineers, materials and machinery, if needed for mining operations within the areas relinquished.

B.—Origin And Extent of Japan's Military Occupation Of Shantung.

- Soon after the outbreak of the European War, China proclaimed her neutrality by a Presidential Mandate of August 6, 1914. Two weeks later the Japanese Minister informed the Chinese Government that Japan had delivered an ultimatum to Germany on August 15, advising the immediate withdrawal of German men-of-war and armed vessels of all kinds from Chinese and Japanese waters and the delivery at a date not later than September 15 of the entire leased territory of Kiaochao to the Japanese authorities, with a view to the eventual restoration of the same to China; and asking for an unconditional acceptance of the advice by noon on August 23, 1914. The purpose of this step, as stated in the preamble of the ultimatum was, "to see that causes of disturbance of peace in the Far East are removed and to take steps to protect the general interests of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance." Though not previously consulted, the Chinese Government intimated their desire to join in the contemplated course of action in regard to the leased territory of Kiaochao, and ceased to urge it only when they found it was not favourably entertained. Japan, failing to receive a reply to her ultimatum, declared war on Germany, August 23, 1914.
- 2. The first contingent of Japanese troops, 20,000 strong, despatched to attack Tsingtao, unexpectedly selected for the purpose of disembarkation, the port of Lungkow which is situated on the northern coast of Shantung Province, 150 miles north of Tsingtao. They landed on September 3. In proceeding across the entire breadth of the peninsula to their destination, Kiaochao, which their advance guards reached on September 14, they deemed it necessary to occupy cities and towns en route, to seize the Chinese postal and telegraph offices, and to subject the populace to suffering and hardships, including requisitions of labour and supplies. The British force which co-operated with the Japanese troops in the attack, was landed on the other hand at Laoshan bay, inside the German leased territory, on September 23; and owing to the fact that the distance which separated Laoshan Bay from Tsingtao was much shorter and the natural obstacles fewer than what the Japanese troops had to encounter in their preliminary advances, it arrived on the scene in time to participate in the first engagement with the Germans.
- 3. In order better to safeguard the neutrality of her territory, China, when confronted with the presence of Japanese troops in Lungkow, was constrained to declare, on September 3, (5), that the Chinese Government, following the precedent established in the Russo-Japanese War, would not accept responsibility for the passing of belligerent troops or any war operations at Lungkow, Laichow and the adjacent disticts of Kiaochao Bay, and reconfirmed the strict neutrality of the other parts of China. The Governments of the Powers were informed of this declaration by a note of the same date. At the same time an understanding was reached with the Japanese Government that the special military zone so declared extended from the sea to a point on the railway east of the Weihsien railway station, approximately 100 miles west of Tsingtao, and that the Japanese troops should observe the limits and not encroach westward.
- 4. Nevertheless on September 26, a contingent of 400 Japanese troops proceeded to Weihsien and occupied the railway station. On October 3, they compelled the withdrawal of Chinese troops from the vicinity of the railway; and three days later on October 6, they, notwithstanding the

⁽⁵⁾ Appendix No 5.

protests (6) of the Chinese Government, went to Tsinan and occupied all the three stations in the city, thereby possessing themselves of the entire line of the railway from Tsingtao to Tsinan. Japanese troops were distributed along the entire line and its employees were gradually replaced by Japanese subjects The mining properties along the Railway were seized in the same period and their exploitation resumed.

Meanwhile the military compaign to invest and capture Tsingtao proceeded until November 8 when the Germans surrendered the city of Tsingtao to the Allied expeditionary force of British and Japanese troops who entered on November 16. The port was opened to trade on January 1, 1915.

- Seeing that with the complete surrender of the Germans at Tsingtao, hostilities had terminated and the military measures of both belligerents had been abandoned, the Chinese Government requested the withdrawal of Japanese troops from the interior of Shantung to Tsingtao, the removal of the light railway from Lungkow to Chantien, and the taking down of the special telegraph wires attached to the Chinese telegraph poles. Unable to persuade the Japanese Government to accede to their request, but seeing that the exigencies which had compelled them to declare the special military zone had already ceased to exist, the Chinese Government revoked their previous declaration and duly notified the British and Japanese Ministers on January 7, 1915, of the act of revocation (7). To this communication the Japanese Minister replied in a note (8) of January 9, 1915, stating under instructions from his Government that the act of revocation was "improper, arbitrary, betraying in fact, want of confidence in international good faith and regardless of friendly relations," and that the Japanese Government would not permit the movements and actions of the Japanese troops in Shantung to be in any way affected by the action of the Chinese Government.
- 6. After the occupation of Tsingtao and the Bay of Kiaochao, Japan demanded the right to appoint about forty Japanese subjects to the staff of the Chinese Maritime Customs which China had established under the Sino-German agreement of April 17, 1899, as amended December 1, 1905. The Chinese Government did not feel justified in acceding to the proposal as they had reason to apprehend that its acceptance might disorganize the customs administration, and as when the Germans were in control, appointments to the staff of the Chinese Customs in Tsingtao had always been made by China. When negotiations were thus pending, General Kamio, under instructions, took possession of the Customs offices and seized the archives and other property of the Chinese Customs.
- 7. The Province of Shantung was in this situation when the Japanese Minister in Peking, to the dismay of China, presented to the President of China on January 18, 1915, the now celebrated twenty-one demands (9), divided into five groups. The first group dealt with the question of Shantung. Negotiations extended into May, when on the 7th of that month the Japanese Government sent an ultimatum (10) to China demanding a satisfactory reply within forty-eight hours. At the same time reports reached Peking of the increase of Japanese garrisons in Manchuria and Shantung. In the face of these circumstances the Chinese Government had no other course to foliow than to yield to the wishes of Japan (11). China was constrained to sign on May 25th, 1915, among other things, a treaty (12) in respect of Shantung Province, accompanied by three sets of notes. The Chinese Government felt compelled to give their consent, however unwillingly, only in order to maintain the peace of the Far East, to spare

⁽⁶⁾ See Appendices No. 6, 7, 8 and 9.

⁽⁷⁾ See Appendix No. 10

⁽⁸⁾ See Appendices Nos. 11 and 12,

⁽⁹⁾ Appendix No. 13.

⁽¹⁰⁾ Appendices Nos. 14 and 15.

⁽¹¹⁾ Appendix No. 16.

⁽¹²⁾ Appendix No. 17.

the Chinese people unnecessary suffering, and to prevent the interests of friendly Powers in China from being imperilled at a time when they were already engaged in an unprecedented struggle against the Central Powers for the vindication of right, liberty, and justice; and because she felt confident, moreover, that the final settlement of this question as of the other questions dealt with in the agreement made in consequence of the twenty-one demands, could be effected only at the Peace Conference.

8. Under an Imperial Ordinance, No. 175, of October 1, 1917 the Japanese Government established a Civil Administration at Tsingtao with branches at Fangtze, Chantien, and Tsinan, all of which three cities are situated along the Railway outside of the leased territory and of the 50 kilometer zone. Fangtze, the nearest of the three above-mentioned cities to Tsingtao, is separated from it approximately by a distance of 90 miles. The Fangtze branch of the Japanese Civil Administration has even asserted jurisdiction in lawsuits between Chinese and has levied taxes on them. The Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway and the mines were also placed under the control of a railways department of the Civil Administration.

9. Public opinion in China, especially in Shantung, became alarmed at the continued presence of the Japanese troops along the railway, extending as it does. into the heart of Shantung, and at the establishment of these Japanese bureaux of Civil Administration aiming, in the view of the Chinese people, at the permanent occupation of that Province—one to which their hearts are profoundly attached. They brought such pressure to bear upon the Chinese Government that the latter deemed it advisable to find some means of appeasing their minds until the war was terminated and until the Peace Conference had met to settle all questions affecting the future peace of the world. Negotiations were opened with the Japanese Government and a preliminary agreement (13) was concluded with them on September 24, 1918, making a loan for the construction of two railways to connect the Tsingtao-Tsinan Railway with the Tientsin-Pukow-Nanking-Shanghai line at Hsuchow and the Peking-Hankow line. In consideration thereof, the Japanese Government, in an exchange of notes (14), also dated September 24, 1918, agreed, among other things, to withdraw the Japanese troops along the Tsingtao-Tsinan Railway to Tsingtao, except a contingent of them to be stationed at Tsinan and to abolish the existing Japanese Civil Administration bureaux in Shantung. An advance of twenty million yen

C. Why China Claims Restitution.

was made, but the final agreement has not to date been signed.

1. The leased territory of Kiaochao, including the bay and islands therein is and has always been an integral part of Chinese territory. The nationality has never been in question. On the contrary, the sovereignty of China over the territory is reserved in the Lease Convention. Besides, the lease to Germany in 1898 originated in an act of aggression on her part, and was granted by China only under coercion in circumstances already described in Part A of this memorandum. The railway and mining rights which Germany possessed in Shantung Province before the war were part of the same grant. Restitution to China of these rights and the leased territory would, therefore, be a mere act of justice to her in consonance with the accepted principle of territorial integrity and of nationality, while return of the same to Germany, or their transfer to any third power, would be to deny justice to China.

2. The Province of Shantung, of which the leased territory of Kiaochao is a part, and in which the German-built Railway, now in Japanese occupation, stretches from Tsingtao to the interior over a distance of 254 miles, contains a population of 38 million inhabitants, who are proud and intensely patriotic. They are part and parcel of the homogeneous Chinese race.

⁽¹³⁾ Appendix No. 20. See also appendices Nos. 19, 22 and 23.

⁽¹⁴⁾ Appendix No. 21.

They speak and write the same Chinese language, and believe in the same Confucian religion as the Chinese people in the other Provinces of China. They meet every requirement of the principle of nationality: they are indeed the very embodiment of the principle itself. Nor is there any doubt of their earnest desire to free their own Province from the menace of Germany, or of any other Power.

3. Historically, Shantung is the birthplace of China's two greatest sages, Confucius and Mencius, and the cradle of Chinese civilizaion. It is, in fact, the Holy Land for the Chinese people. Every year thousands of Chinese scholars, pilgrims of Confucianism, travel to Chufou, in the heart of the province, to do homage to the revered memory of the illustrious sages. The eyes of the entire Chinese people are focussed on this Province which has always played and still plays a very important part in the

development of China.

4. The dense population in Shantung Province creates a keen economic competition. To earn a livelihood is a difficult thing for 38,347,000 inhabitants limited to the resources of agriculture in a Province of 35,976 square miles. The population is almost equal to that of France, with a territory, however, only one quarter as large. It is evident, therefore, that there is no room for the inflow of the surplus population of any foreign Power. The creation of a special sphere of influence or special interests therein could lead only to the unjustified exploitation of the Chinese inhabitants.

5. Besides, Shantung Province possesses all the elements for the economic domination of North China. Its large population provides a growing market for foreign merchandise, while its rich mineral resources and abundance of raw materials are conducive to the development of industries. More important than these, however, is the fact that the Bay of Kiaochao is destined to be at once the chief outlet for the products of North China and the principal port of entrance for foreign goods destined for the same regions. Kiaochao has indeed been the principal port of Shantung for many centuries. Thither the products of the Province were brought down in a canal built in the year 1200 and connected with Weihsien, the most important market of the interior. Though Kiaochao itself has ceased to be a maritime town after the torrents which emptied into the bay had gradually filled the northern port, yet Shantung now possesses the port of Tsingtao which occupies a point on the coast corresponding to the port of Kiaochao. Reinforced by new arteries of trade, including the Tsingtao-Kiaochao-Weihsien-Tsinan Railway, which is connected at the last-mentioned city with the Peking-Tientsin-Nanking-Shanghai system of railways, and being situated on the brink of the Kiaochao Bay which, unlike the Peiho of Tientsin, never freezes, but is well sheltered from the winter winds, the new emporium is in a position to tap the trade of the whole of North China. therefore, is the building up of a foreign sphere of influence more dangerous to international trade and industries; nowhere can the open door policy be upheld with greater advantage to the common interests of all foreign Powers, than in the Province of Shantung; and no country is in a better position to uphold it than China kerself.

6. Strategically, the Bay of Kiaochao commands one of the gateways of North China. By the existence of the Tsingtao-Tsinan Railway, which is connected at the latter mentioned terminal with the railway of Tientsin and Peking, it controls, too, one of the quickest approaches from the sea to the capital of the Chinese Republic, one other being the line of railway commencing from Port Arthur and Dalny to Mukden and thence to Peking. In the interest of her national defence and security, no less than on other grounds, the Chinese Government have wished to terminate the German occupation of Tsingtao and Kiaochao Bay, and now that thanks to the Anglo-Japanese Allied force, Germany has been expelled therefrom, China earnestly desires to retain these strategically vital points in her own hands.

7. Examined from various points of view, the question of the leased territory of Kiaochao with its appurtenant rights is susceptible of only one satisfactory solution. By restoring it to China, together with the

railway and other rights, the Peace Conference would be not only redressing a wrong which has been wantonly committed by Germany, but also serving the common interests of all nations in the Far East. The people of Shantung Province are a sensitive people, they resent any foreign penetration looking to political or economic domination of their Province, and they do not always hesitate to manifest their resentment. They resented bitterly the German occupation of the Kiaochao Bay and the German penetration into the Province of Shantung. They resent even the present temporary occupathe Province of Shanting. They resent even the present temporary occupa-tion of the leased territory and the railway by a friendly associate and partner in the War, as evidenced in the protests of Provincial Legislature, of the gentry and of the Chamber of Commerce. And their feeling is shared by the people in the other Provinces of China. The difficulty with which the Chinese Government have restrained them from manifesting their opposition in a more energetic way than making protests is indicative of their profound feelings on the question. It is felt that non-restitution might give cause to friction not only between China and any foreign power which was to hold the leased territory, the railway and other rights of Germans, but more particularly between the people of Shantung and the nationals of such a Power. It would be difficult to reconcile it with the declared purpose of the attack on Tsingtao, which was "to secure a firm and enduring peace in Eastern Asia"; nor would it be consonant with the objects of the alliance between Japan and Great Britain, one of which was stated to be "the preservation of the common interests of all Powers in China by insuring the independence and integrity of the Chinese Empire, and the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations in China".

D .- Why Restitution Should be Direct.

In dwelling upon the ground justifying complete restitution to China of the leased territory of Kiaochao, the Tsingtao-Tsinan Railway and other appurtenant rights, the Chinese Government is far from suggesting, still less frem apprehending, that Japan, in claiming from Germany the unconditional surrender of the leasehold and the railway rights, would not return the same to China after she had obtained them. On the contrary, China has every confidence in Japan's assurances to her. If emphasis has been laid on the point of complete restoration to China, it has been done only for the purpose of focusing attention on the fundamental justice of such a step.

1. But of this restoration there are two possible modes, direct restitution to China, and indirect restitution through Japan; and of the two, the Chinese Government prefers the first course, because, among other reasons, it is a simpler procedure and less likely to give rise to complications. It is preferable to take one step than two, if it leads to the same point of destination. Moreover, the fact that China, participating in the glorious victory of the Allies and Associates, received direct from Germany the restitution of Tsingtao and other rights of Shantung, will comport to her national dignity and serve to illustrate further the principle of right and justice for which the Allies and Associates have fought the common enemy.

2. In asking for direct restitution the Chinese Government is not unaware of the sacrifices which Japan has made in dislodging Germany from Tsingtao, nor of the losses she has sustained in life and treasure. For this act of neighbourly service so nobly performed by her brave army and navy, the Government and people of China feel sincerely grateful. They feel indebted also to Great Britain for having cooperated in this task at a time of great peril to herself in Europe. Nor are they forgetful of their indebtedness to the troops of the other Allied and Associated Powers who held in check an enemy who might otherwise have easily sent reinforcements to the Far East, thereby prolonging hostilities there. China appreciates those services all the more keenly because her own people in Shantung have suffered and been obliged to undergo sacrifices in connection with the military operations of the allied forces for the capture of Tsingtao. But grateful as China is, she does not feel justified in admitting that her territorial rights could be affected ipso facto by a war between other powers, she not having then

entered the War. Furthermore, the sacrifices of Japan could receive no greater or more substantial compensation than in the full attainment of her declared object in the War, namely, the elimination of the German menace to

the peace of the Far East.

3. Nor are the Chinese Government oblivious of the fact that Japan has been for four years a military occupant of the leased territory, the railway and other rights. But military occupation pending the termination of a war, it is submitted, does not of itself give title to the territory or property occupied. It is in any case only temporary and subject to confirmation or termination at the Peace Conference, where the general interests of all the Allied and Associated Powers in the War are to be considered. present case, Japan's military occupation of the leased territory and the railway has, from the day of China's Declaration of War on Germany and Austria-Hungary (15), been against the rights of China, an Associate and partner in the War, and, in the case of the railway, has been against her protest from the very beginning.

4. It is true that on May 25, 1915, China concluded with Japan a treaty

in relation to Shantung Province, the first article of which reads:

"The Chinese Government agrees to give full assent to all matters upon which the Japanese Government may hereafter agree with the German Government relating to the disposition of all rights, interests and concessions which Germany, by virtue of treaties or otherwise, possesses in relation to the Province of Shantung."

It is to be recalled, however, that this treaty, together with another in relation to Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia and a number of exchanges of notes, was the outcome of the 21 demands imposed on China by Japan on January 18, 1915, without the least provocation. China reluctantly agreed to it only after having received an ultimatum from Japan

calling for a satisfactory reply within forty-eight hours.

Apart from the circumstances under which the treaty was madecircumstances which were most painful to China-it was in the view of the Chinese Government at best merely a temporary arrangement subject to final revision by the Peace Conference, because it dealt primarily with a question which had arisen from the War and which, therefore, could not be satisfactorily settled except at the final Peace Conference. view applies to the agreement made more recently in respect of the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway and other railway concessions formerly granted to

Germany.

Moreover, careful examination of the article abovementioned will reveal the fact that it does not confer on Japan any claim to the leased territory, the railway or the other German rights in Shantung; it merely gives her an assurance of China's assent to all matters relating to the disposition of Germany's rights, interests and concessions which may eventually be agreed on between Japan and Germany. This assurance was clearly subject, however, to the implied condition that China remained neutral throughout the war, and therefore, would be unable to participate in the final Peace Conference. Any other interpretation of this article would have to attribute to Japan an intention which she could not have entertained consistently with her express declaration, as for instance, in her treaty of alliance with Great Britain, of her desire to insure, among other things, the independence of China. For to have denied China the right to declare war, to sit in the Peace Conference and defend her own rights and interests would have meant the denial to her of an essential right accruing from her political independence. China's entry into the War so vitally changed the situation contemplated in the treaty, that, on the principle of rebus sic stantibus, it ceased to be applicable.

Furthermore, since China had expressly stated in her Declaration of War that all treaties, agreements and conventions, heretofore concluded between China and Germany, were abrogated by the existence of the state of war between them, the Lease Convention of March 6, 1898, under which Germany had held the leased territory, the railway and other rights, was necessarily included in the act of abrogation; and all the leasehold rights of Germany might be therefore considered to have reverted in law to the territorial sovereign and original lessor state. In other words, Germany has lost her leasehold rights and now possesses no rights in relation to Shantung which she can surrender to another Power. If it be contended that the war had not conclusively abrogated the Lease Convention, then Germany, because of an express prohibition in the Convention, would be no mere competent to transfer the leased territory to a third power. As regards the railway, the right is expressly reserved to China in the Railway Agreement of March 21, 1900, to buy the line back, implying a prohibition against transfer to a third power.

In view of the foregoing considerations, the Chinese Government earnesty trust that the Peace Conference will find their claim for direct restitution
to China of the leased territory of Kiaochao, the Tsingtao-Tsinan Railway,
and other German rights in relation to Shantung Province, as one wellfounded in law and justice. Full recognition of this claim, they believe, will
cause the Government and people of China to feel deeply indebted to the
Powers, especially to Japan, for their sense of justice and their spirit of
altruism. It will serve at once to strengthen the political independence and
territorial integrity of China which, the Chinese Government believe Japan
and other friendly Powers are sincerely desirous of upholding, and to secure.

by a new guarantee, the permanent peace of the Far East.

APPENDICES.

No. 1

Convention between China and Germany respecting the lease of Kiaochao to Germany, March 6, 1898.

The incidents connected with the Mission in the Prefecture of Tsaochow-fu, in Shantung, being now closed, the Imperial Chinese Government consider it advisable to give a special proof of their grateful appreciation of the assistance rendered to them by Germany. The Imperial German and the Imperial Chinese Governments, therefore, inspired by the equal and mutual wish to strengthen the bonds of friendship which unite the two countries, and to develop the commercial relations between the subjects of the two States, have concluded the following separate Convention:

SECTION I.

Lease of Kiaochao.

Art. 1.—His Majesty the Emperor of China, guided by the intention to strengthen the friendly relations between China and Germany, and at the same time to increase the military readiness of the Chinese Empire, engages while reserving to himself all rights of sovereignty in a zone of 50 kilom. (100 Chinese li) surrounding the Bay of Kiaochao at high water, to permit the free passage of German troops within this zone at any time, and also m taking any measures, or issuing any ordinances therein, previously to consult and secure the agreement of the German Government, and especially to place no obstacle in the way of any regulation of the water-courses which may prove to be necessary. His Majesty the Emperor of China, at the same time, reserves to himself the right to station troops within this zone, in agreement with the German Government, and to take other military measures.

Art. 2.—With the intention of meeting the legitimate desire of His Majesty the German Emperor, that Germany like other Powers should hold a place on the Chinese coast for the repair and equipment of her ships, for

the storage of materials and provisions for the same, and for other arrangements connected therewith, His Majesty the Emperor of China leases to Germany, provisionally for ninety-nine years, both sides of the entrance to the Bay of Kiaochao. Germany engages to construct, at a suitable moment, on the territory thus leased fortifications for the protection of the buildings to be constructed there and of the entrance to the harbour.

Art. 3.—In order to avoid the possibility of conflicts, the Imperial Chinese Government will not exercise rights of administration in the leased territory during the term of the lease, but grants the exercise of the same to Germany, within the following limits;

1. On the northern side of the entrance to the Bay:

The Peninsula bounded to the north-east by a line drawn from the north-eastern corner of Potato Island to Loshan Harbour.

2. On the southern side of the entrance to the Bay:

The Peninsula bounded to the south-west by a line drawn from the south-westernmost point of the Bay lying to the southwest of Chiposan Island in the direction of Tolosan Island.

3. The Island of Chiposan and Potato Island.

4. The whole water area of the Bay up to the highest water-mark at present known.

5. All islands lying seaward from Kiaochao Bay, which may be of importance for its defence, such as Tolosan, Chalienchow, etc.

The High Contracting Parties reserve to themselves to delimit more accurately in accordance with local traditions, the boundaries of the territory leased to Germany and of the 50 kilom. zone round the Bay, by means of Commissioners to be appointed on both sides.

Chinese ships of war and merchant vessels shall enjoy the same privileges in the Bay of Kiaochao as the ships of other nations on friendly terms with Germany; and the entrance, departure and sojourn of Chinese ships in the Bay shall not be subject to any restrictions other than those which the Imperial German Government, in virtue of the rights of administration over the whole of the water area of the Bay transferred to Germany, may at any time find it necessary to impose with regard to the ships of other nations.

Art. 4.—Germany engages to construct the necessary navigation signs on

the islands and shallows at the entrance of the Bay.

No dues shall be demanded from Chinese ships of war and merchant vessels in the Bay of Kiaochao, except those which may be levied upon other vessels for the purpose of maintaining the necessary harbour arrangements and quays.

Art 5.—Should Germany at some future time express the wish to return Kiaochao Bay to China before the expiration of the lease, China engages to refund to Germany the expenditure she has incurred at Kiaochao and convey to Germany a more suitable place.

Germany engages at no time to sublet the territory leased from China

to another Power.

The Chinese population dwelling in the leased territory shall at all times enjoy the protection of the German Government provided that they behave in conformity with law and order; unless their land is required for other purposes, they may remain there.

If land belonging to Chinese owners is required for any other purpose,

the owner will receive compensation.

As regards the re-establishment of Chinese customs stations which formerly existed outside the leased territory but within the 50 kilom. zone, the Imperial German Government intends to come to an agreement with the Chinese Government for the definite regulations of the customs frontier, and the mode of collecting customs duties in a manner which will safeguard all the interests of China, and proposes to enter into further negotiations on the subject.

SECTION II.

Railways and Mines.

Art. 1.—The Chinese Government sanctions the construction by Germany of two lines of railway in Shantung. The first will run from Kiaochao to Tsinan and the Boundary of Shantung Province via Weihsien, Tsingchow, Poshan, Tzechwan and Tsowping. The second line will connect Kiacchao with I-chow, whence an extension will be constructed to Tsinan through Laiwu-Hsien. The construction of the line from Tsinan to the boundary of Shantung Province shall not be begun till after the completion of the construction of the line to Tsinan, so that a further arrangement may be made with a view to effecting a connection with China's own railway system What places the line from Tsinan to the provincial boundary shall take in en route shall be specified in the regulations to be made separately.

Art. 2.—In order to carry out the above-mentioned railway work a Sino-German Railway Company shall be formed with branches in one or more places, and in this Company both German and Chinese merchants shall be at liberty to raise the capital and appoint directors for the

management of the undertaking.

Art. 3.—Arrangements for the above purposes shall be determined in an additional agreement to be concluded by the High Contracting Parties as soon as possible. China and Germany will settle this matter by themselves, but the Chinese Government will accord favourable treatment to the said Chino-German Railway Company in constructing and operating the abovementioned lines and extend to them other privileges enjoyed by Sino-Foreign Companies established in other parts of China.

The above article is conceived only in the interest of commerce; is has no other design. Positively no land or territory in the Province of Shantung may be annexed in the construction of the above-mentioned

railways.

Art. 4.—In the vicinity of the railways to be built, within 30 li of them, as, for instance, in Weiksien and Poshan Hsien on the Northern line from Kiaochao to Tsinan and as in Ichow Fu and Laiwu Hsien on the Southern line from Kiaochao via Ichow to Tsinan, German merchauts are permitted to excavate coal, etc. The necessary works may be undertaken by Chinese and German merchants combining the capital. The mining regulations shall also be subsequently negotiated with care. The Chinese Government will, according to what has been stipulated for in the provision concerning the construction of railways, also accord favourable treatment to the German merchants and workmen, and extend to them other privileges enjoyed by Sino-Foreign Companies established in other parts of China.

This Article is also conceived only in the interests of commerce, and

has no other design.

SECTION III.

Affairs in the Whole Province of Shantung.

If within the Province of Shantung any matters are undertaken for which foreign assistance, whether in personnel, or in capital, or in material, is invited, China agrees that the German merchants concerned shall first be asked whether they wish to undertake the works and provide the materials.

In case the German merchants do not wish to undertake the said works and provide the materials, then as a matter of fairness China will be free to make such other arrangement as suits her convenience.

Ratifications.

The above agreement shall be ratified by the Sovereigns of both Contracting States, and the ratifications exchanged in such manner that, after the receipt in Berlin of the Treaty ratified by China, the copy ratified by Germany shall be handed to the Chinese Minister in Berlin.

The foregoing Treaty has been drawn up in four copies two in German and two in Chinese, and was signed by the Representatives of the two Contracting Parties on the 6th March, 1898, equal to the 14th day of the 2nd month in the 24th year Kuang-Hsu.

LI HUNG CHANG.

(Great seal of the Tsung-li Yamen) Imperial German Minister BARON VON HEYKING. (In Chinese) Imperial Chinese
Grand Secretary Minister
of the Tsung-li Yamen,
etc.

WENG TUNG HO.

(In Chinese) Grand Secretary, Member of the Council of State, Minister of the Tsung-li Yamen, etc., etc.

No. 2.

Agreement Between China and Germany respecting the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway Regulations, March 21, 1900.

His Excellency the Governor of the Province of Shantung Yuan Shih Kai, and His Excellency the Lieutenant General Yin Chang, upon petition of the Governor of Shantung, especially delegated by Imperial decree to these negotiations, on the one side, and the Managing Board of the Shantung Railway Company at Tsingtao, represented by Mr. H. Hildebrand, a Royal Inspector of Prussian Railways; on the other side, have, in order to prevent agitation and disturbances of any kind in Shantung during the period of building the railway and to maintain friendly relations between the population of the province and the Company, agreed upon the following Railway Regulations with regard to the line of railway between the boundaries of the German leased territory and Tsinanfu, subject to the approval of the Board of Directors of the Shantung Railway Company in Berlin and reduced to writing in Chinese and German texts of like tenour.

Art. 1.—In accordance with Art. 4, section 2, of the aforesaid Kiaochao Convention a German-Chinese Railway Company shall be formed, issuing shares to German and Chinese subjects. This company shall for the present be under German management. It shall half-yearly notify the Chiao Se Chuo at Tsinanfu of the number of shares purchased by Chinese. As soon as the amount of such shares has reached Taels 100,000, the Governor of the Province of Shantung shall delegate a Chinese official for

cooperation at the seat of the Company.

Art. 2.—Should in future branches of the Administration of the Company be established in Shantung, one Chinese official shall be delegated

to each one of them.

Art. 3.—Officials or respectable citizens shall be consulted upon the iccation of the railway, in order to take as far as possible into consideration the interests of the population. To avoid difficulties in negotiations, these shall be conducted on the Chinese side by Chinese officials delegated by the Governor of Shantung. The technical determinations of the location of line shall be left to the Company's engineers. A sketch plan of the line's location, done in a scale of 1: 25000 shall be submitted to the Governor of Shantung for information and only thereafter land may be purchased. The construction of the railway cannot be begun before the land has actually been purchased.

The purchase of land shall be done peacefully and quickly as hitherto, so that the construction of the railway be not delayed by purchasing land or by difficulties arising from disputes with individual owners. To avoid all such difficulties the above-mentioned Chinese official shall act as mediator when land is purchased and shall settle all disputes eventually arising. The land shall be purchased in an honest way according to the locally

customary ruling price.

The Company shall not be allowed to buy more land than necessary for the railway-enterprise, and future extension thereof.

Meanwhile the following minima may be purchased:

For stopping points a plot of land 630 m. long and 70 m wide. For country stations a plot of land 730 m long and 100 m wide. For small town stations a plot of land 850 m long and 130 m wide.

For stations of larger towns the plots of land have to be larger, corresponding to actual importance of the place in question. The land necessary for the supply of earth to construct embankments is not included in the foregoing areas. 1 m is equal to 2 feet 9.6 inches, 1 foot is equal to 0.338 m.

Art. 4.-Wherever water courses are met, sufficient flow has to be provided for by building bridges and culverts so that agriculture may suffer

ne damage.

Act. 5.—The road is to be located in such a way as not to damage or cut through city walls, fortifications, public edifices and important places.

Art. 6 - Houses, farmsteads and villages, temples, graves and above all high class graveyards belonging to the gentry which are fenced in and planted with trees shall be avoided by the railway as far as possible. So far as this is impossible the local authorities shall give notice to the owners two months beforehand and settle with them a compensation of an amount enabling them to erect graveyards, etc. of the same condition at another place without sustaining any loss of money.

Art. 7.—In surveying the land to be purchased the "kung" shall be used as unit. One kung is equal to 5 official feet, one foot is equal to 0 338 m. One Mu is counted to be 360 kung or equal to 9000 square feet.

As to the land tax to be paid by the Shantung Railway Company the same regulations shall be applied as in force for the most-favoured Railway Company in any other place of China.

Art 8.—Injuries done to crops during preparatory or construction work are to be made good by the Company according to prices to be settled

with the local authorities.

Art 9.—The salaries of the assistants placed by the local authorities at the disposition of the Railway at its wish shall be paid by the latter. These salaries shall not be included in the price of land purchased

The money for the land is to paid into the hands of the District-Magistrate, who is responsible for the proper payment to the different owners entitled to receive the money.

The District-Magistrate also has to hand over the title deeds to the

Railway Company.

Art. 10.—The Railway administration intending to rent Louses for offices and residences near the work places shall apply to the District-Magistrate who will make the necessary arrangements with the owners and will on its behalf conclude the contracts.

Art. 11.—The purchase of material necessary for the construction of the railway shall be transacted in a fair manner and the usual market-price shall be paid for same. If necessary the intervention of the District-

Magistrate shall be applied for.

Art. 12.—The exchange of different kinds of money shall always he

done at the rate ruling on the day.

Art. 13.—The Railway Company is not permitted to construct without special permission of the Governor of Shantung other railroads than those mentioned in the Kiaochao Convention, including the branch line to Poshanhsien.

Branch lines connecting coal and other mines and places where building or ballasting materials are to be taken, connecting with the main line, may be built without special authorization. It is however understood that previous notice of the construction of such lines has to be given to the Governor of Shantung.

Art. 14.—Foreigners, travelling or doing business in the interior of the Province of Shantung, in order to enjoy better protection, must be provided with passports duly sealed by the proper Chinese and German

Chinese local authorities cannot assume responsibility if such

a passport is not produced.

Art. 15.—German and Chinese employees of the Railway Company are to be provided with certificates attested by the seals of the Railway Administration and of the local Authorities, in order, when necessary, to prove their official capacity.

The engineers, when surveying, shall be accompanied by an official, delegated by the District-Magistrate. This official shall, if necessary by police-force, render assistance in protecting the property of the Railway

Company and the survey poles

Persons fraudulently pretending to be employees of the Railway Com-

pany shall be arrested and punished by the Local Authorities.

Art. 16.—If troops are needed, outside of the 100 li (50 kilometer) zone, they shall be despatched by the Governor of the Province of Shan-

No foreign troops may be employed for this purpose.

The Governor of the Province of Shantung binds himself to take effective measures during the period of surveying as well as when the railway is under construction or opened for traffic to prevent any damage being

done to it by the mob or by rebels.

Art. 17.—This railway, having for sole purpose the development of commerce, shall not, outside of the 100 li zone, be permitted to transport foreign troops and war materials employed by them. In case there show be war between China and a foreign power and the railway should at the time still be managed by the said Company, then the Company must continue to observe the provision aforementioned. In case certain sections are occupied by the enemy and the Company should lose its power of management, then the provincial authorities will not be responsible for the protection (of the railway).

Art. 18.—Freightage for foodstuffs and clothing to be distributed amongst the distressed during famines and floods, shall be reduced according to the rules adopted by the railways of Germany and when troops are despatched to suppress rebellions the same is to be applied to the fares

for soldiers and to the freightage for their war materials.

Art. 19.—At railway stations, where custom-houses are established, the Railway Administration shall make such arrangements as to assist the

Imperial Chinese Customs in collecting the legal dues.

The expenses for the necessary buildings, to be erected upon application of the Customs Administration are to be refunded by the latter to the Railway Administration according to agreements always to be made beforehand.

Art. 20.—The natives of towns and villages near the railway shall be as far as possible engaged as workmen and as contractors for the supply

of materials.

Art. 21. Chinese subjects employed outside the leased territory by the Railway Company in case of contravention of Chinese law are subject to the jurisdiction of the competent District-Magistrate.

The competent District Magistrate having officially notified the necessity of legal steps against such employee, the Railway Company shall not

do anything by which he may evade justice.

Complaints against foreigners are to be dealt with according to the proper laws. In such cases, the Railway Company on its part shall make an investigation and take disciplinary proceedings against the offender.

Art. 22.—The natives of districts, where the railway passes through, shall as far as possible be employed at the work and shall be paid for as customary there.

If fights should occur between railway-men and natives the local

official will have the right to arrest and punish the guilty.

The workmen of the railway are absolutely prohibited unwarrantably to enter houses of natives. In case of contravention they will be severely punished.

Art. 23.—The construction of the railway being completed, foremen and workmen necessary for maintenance and safekeeping of the line are as

far as practicable to be engaged from amongst the inhabitants of villages and towns near the line in conformity with suggestions made by the elders of these places. These elders will be responsible for the good behaviour of these engaged and will furnish them with certificates issued by the District-Magistrate.

Art. 24.—The railway being open to public traffic, its administration assumes the responsibility for any loss of life or goods caused by accidents and is liable to pay compensation to wounded or killed persons according to the local custom, and to cover any loss of goods according to detailed re-

gulations to be drawn up and published by the Company.

Likewise the Railway will be held responsible for damage to persons

and property by construction trains through its neglect.

Art. 25.-The safety of the line being endangered by floods, slips of embankments or breakages of bridges, etc., public traffic shall not be re-

opened before all these difficulties have been removed.

Art. 26.—Should the Railway Company apply for soldiers to protect the preparatory work, the construction or the traffic of the railway, the Governor of the Province of Shantung shall at once consider the circumstances and comply with such application. The amount to be contributed by the Company for the troops dispatched shall be the subject of a further understanding.

Art. 27.—In the German leased territory the rights of sovereignty are safeguarded by the Governor of Tsingtao. In the districts of the remaining part of the Province of Shantung through which the railway is running. the rights of sovereignty are safeguarded by the Governor of the Province

of Shantung.

Art. 28.—It shall be the subject of further agreements when and under what conditions the Chinese Government may in future take over the railway

The foregoing regulations after being approved shall be notified to the Authorities of the Shantung Province and to the officials of the railway. Thereupon they shall be duly observed.

Should it in future be deemed necessary to have alterations made of some of the above regulations or to have drawn up supplementary rules, this can only be done by mutual agreement between the then Governor of the Province of Shantung and the Shantung Railway Company.

This agreement is executed in two exemplars each of which contains a Chinese as well as a German version of like tenour. Each of the con-

tracting parties has received one exemplar.

Tsinantu, the 21st of March 1900, The Governor of the Province of Shantung. Seal and signature of GOVERNOR. YUAN SHIH-KAI.

H. I M's Special Delegate, Lieutenant General, Signed: YIN CHANG.

Die Betriebsdirection der Schantung-Eisenbahn-Gesellschaft Signed: H HILDEBRAND.

No. 3

Convention between China and Germany respecting the Withdrawal of German Troops from Kiaochao and Kaomi, November 28th, 1905.

(Translation).

The Emperor of China has appointed Yang Shih-hsiang, Civil and Military Governor of Shantung, and the German Emperor, Van Semmern, Civil and Military Governor of Kiaochao, who after communicating full powers and finding them in due form have agreed upon the following articles.

Whereas the German Emperor has, for the purpose of promoting friendly relations, agreed to withdraw the troops stationed at Kiaochao and Kaomi, the following articles are hereby concluded.

Art. 1.—The German troops at Kiaochao shall withdraw immediately

after this Convention has been signed.

Art. 2.—One fourth of the German troops stationed at Kacmi shall withdraw immediately after the signing of this Convention, and another fourth, within two months therefrom. The remaining troops shall withdraw within the next two months during which period barracks and stables shall be so speedily built in Tsingtao that the said troops may withdraw altogether within this time-limit. But in case the said works cannot be finished within the two months, a complete withdrawal shall nevertheless be effected—there shall be no further extension of time.

Art. 3.—From the date of the signing of this Convention, no matter whether the German troops at Kiaochao and Kaomi have completely withdrawn or not, the railways within the surrounding zone shall completely be under the supervision and protection of the Chinese local authorities and police officers. The police officers shall despatch so many policement as they deem fit but not more than two hundred and forty, to be evenly stationed at various sections; all matters relating thereto shall be conducted according to the police regulations prevailing beyond the surrounding zone. At some place near the city of Kaomi there shall be established a police office with a police force of not more than one hundred men who shall, by turn, attend to their duty in the protection of the railway and in the suppression of disturbances which may arise. But if China should station troops in the said place, all matters relating thereto shall be governed by the Kiaochao Lease Convention.

Art. 4.—All the works which Germany has constructed in Kiaochao and Kaomi such as barracks, stables, drill grounds, roads, waterworks, and the like, together with the foundations thereof, houses and the fixtures attached thereto cost, calculated at their original prices, \$496.388.48. From this amount are to be subtracted \$5,000 00 as rent paid for the German Government by the Uninese Government, \$21,200.10 captured annual repairs and considered as representing the annual diminution of the value of properties, and \$70,000.00 as extra reduction; the price will then be \$400,000.00 at which the said properties will be purchased by and reverted to China under a separate agreement. The price of German Government by the Chinese Government, \$21,288.48 expended for the buildings shall be paid off in four installments within two years from the day when the barracks at Kiaochao and Kaomi are handed over. After their purchase or reversion, all the buildings shall be reserved for educational and other public uses.

Art. 5.—In case Germany should, in accordance with the Treaties, require passage for her troops through Kiaochao and Kaomi, and stay

there for a few days, a few weeks' notice will be necessary, in order that a vacant place may be assigned for their temporary stay, free of charge.

Of this Convention there shall be made four copies in Chinese and four in German, identical in sense; and after they have been signed. two copies each of the Chinese and German texts shall be filed at the office of the Governor of Shantung, and the other two copies each of the said two languages, at the office of the Civil and Military Governor of Kiaochao, for reference, transmission and observance.

The second Day, eleventh Moon of the Reign of Kwang Hsu corresponding to the 28th of November, 1905.

Signed: YANG SHIH-HSIANG. VAN SEMMERN.

No. 4

Agreement between the Provincial Authorities of Shantung and the China-German Mining Company for delimiting Mining Areas in the Province of Shantung, July 24, 1911.

For the purpose of defining the mining rights of the Chino-German Company along the railways in Shantung Province and concluding a working arrangement the Provincial Authorities of Shantung and the Mining Company have mutually agreed upon the following Articles:

Art. 1.—I. The Shantung Mining Company reserves for its exclusive exploitation the Fangtze and Tzechwan mining areas and the mining district from Chinlingchen along the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway in a northerly direction for a distance of 30 li to Changtien.

2. The Company is to prepare maps showing the boundaries of the mining areas it designates for exclusive development. These maps are to form an important part of this Agreement. All mining properties within the specified areas are to be exclusively exploited by the Company and no Chinese undertakings are permitted therein.

3. With the exception of the delimited areas set aside herein for exclusive development by the Mining Company within 30 li (15 kilometres) on both sides of Kiaochao-Tsinan Railroad now in operation, the Tientsin-Pukow Railroad now under construction, and the Kiaochao Pukow railroad

recently surveyed are hereby cancelled.

4. Tzechwan Hsien and Poshan Hsien being within the 30-li zone of mining rights, the Company originally intended to exploit it by itself. Now as an act of special friendship the Company hereby relinquishes its claim to Poshan mines The Tzechwan mining area beginning on the south at 'Ta Kwei Shan passing Lungkow Chen in a north-westerly direction and reaching the eastern bounday of Tzechwan, is hereby likewise relinquished to the Chinese for their free exploitation. The remaining areas in this region shall, in accordance with Article 1, belong to the mining areas

of the Company.

5. The 30-li zone of the Fangtze mining area in Weihsien touches the boundaries of Changlo and Ankiu Hsiens and includes parts thereof. The Company surrenders voluntarily, as a further evidence of goodwill, its claim to the north western district of Ankiu Hsien. It retains, however, its title to Chinshanwa mining area in Changlo Hsien to the extent of

10-li from Fangtze mine in a straight line.

6. For the purpose of delimiting mining areas Provincial Authorities of Shantung and the Mining Company have jointly drawn up the following maps:

Tzechwan mining area and the mining area from Chinlingchen

to Changtien.

The southern section of the Tzechwan mining area.

Mining areas in Weihsien and Changlo Hsien.

General map showing all mining areas delimited by this Agreement

Art. 2.—1. Within the mining areas relinquished by the Mining Company in the three Hsiens of Chankiu, Tzechwan and Poshan along the Kiaochao Tsinan Railway Chinese are not permitted to undertake the development of the biggest mine therein before the year 1920, but they shall be at liberty to do so after that year.

2. In the mining areas reserved by the Company all Chinese mining shafts that are now in a working condition shall be stopped within one month from the date of a formal exchange of the texts of this Agreement

duly approved by the Chinese and German Governments.

3. The Chinese Government is still to accord protection to the works of the Company in accordance with the provisions of the Mining Agreement concluded in the 25th year of Kwang Hsu, corresponding to the year 1900 A. D.

4. Should the Chinese Government and merchants be short of capital for the exploitation of the mines in the districts relinquished to China by this Agreement, they shall approach German capitalists for loans. If foreign materials and machinery are needed they shall purchase them from Germany. If foreign engineers are to be employed they shall engage German engineers.

Art. 3.—To meet the expenditures hitherto incurred by the Company for prospecting mines, fixing boundaries and purchasing lands, the Chinese Government agrees to pay to the Company \$210,000 Mex., the said sum leing payable within one year from the date of this Agreement in two installments. After signing of this Agreement the Company shall immediately turn over to the Chiuese Government all maps and papers relating to the prospecting of these mines and all lands purchased by the Company.

Art. 4.—Chinlingchen iron mine is to be exploited according to the Mining Regulations, of the 26th year of Kwang Hsu (1900). If China desires to establish iron smelting works near the mine a joint stock company may be formed, with a capital of something like 500,000 taels. Regulations therefor are to be drawn up separately at the proper time.

This Agreement is executed in quadruplicate copies in the Chinese and German languages, found identical in sense, together with four sets of maps

of the mines, to be held by the contracting parties.

Third year of Hsuan Tung, 6th month, 29th day, corresponding to the 24th day of July 1911.

Delimitation Commissioners of the Imperial Chinese Government, namely.

Signed: SU, Commissioner for the Promotion of Industrial Affairs at Mukden.
YU, Expectant Taotai of Shantung.
Managing Director of the Chino-German
Mining Company.
German Consul General at Tsinanfu
Shantung.

No. 5

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the Diplomatic Representatives at Peking Respecting Declaration of War Zone.

Peking, September 3rd, 1914.

Your Excellency,

As all the belligerents engaged in the present European war maintain friendly relations with our country, our Government has decided to declare neutrality and maintain the same with all efforts. Reports from the local authorities in the Province of Shantung have repeatedly stated that German troops have been engaged in military preparations in and near Kiaochac Bay, and that the Japanese and British Allied troops have begun also military operations in Lungkow and in places near Kiaochao Bay and Laichow. It is very unfortunate that Germany, Japan and Great Britain. friends of our country, have committed such altogether unexpected acts within our territory, creating an extraordinary situation analogous to the Russo-Japanese acts of hostility in Liao-tung Peninsula in the year of 1904. The only way open to us is to follow that precedent, to declare that so far as concerning Lungkow, Laichow and places adjacent to Kiaochao Bay within the narrowest possible limits absolutely necessary for military cperations of the belligerent troops, our Government will not be wholly responsible as a neutral state; while in all other places within our territory, the Law of Neutrality which has already been promulgated shall remain in full force. However, within the districts as designated above, the administration as well as territorial jurisdiction, the safety of the inhabitants and the functionaries, public and private properties shall be fully respected by the belligerent states.

While the above is communicated to all other belligerent States, I request Your Excellency to have the goodness of transmitting the same to

your Government.

Signed: SUN PAO-CHI.

No. 6

Note from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the Japanese Minister at Peking protesting against violation of neutrality.

September 27, 1914.

Your Excellency,

A telegram received from the local authorities in the Province of Shantung states that over four hundred Japanese soldiers have arrived at Weihsien and taken possession of the railway station.

When the Japanese and British Allied Troops needed a military passage in order to attack Kiaochao, our country was obliged to prescribe a war zone, and also declared that Japan and Great Britain should at the same time observe strictly China's neutrality outside the zone. On the 7th of September, a despatch received from your Government stated that your Government understood, with some difficulty, what our Government meant in that declaration. This Ministry further declared that the railroad from Weihsien to Tsinan should be under Chinese protection, and through Your Excellency we requested your Government to issue an order prohibiting your troops from advancing to Weihsien, or to any place west of Weihsien. But now the troops of your country have forced their way into Weihsien and taken possession of the railway. Considering that the railroad belongs to a Sino-German Corporation, that all the railway stations have also been under Chinese protection, and in none of them have there ever been any German troops and that Weihsien is in the purely neutral territory; the acts committed by the troops of your country are manifestly contrary to the declaration and in violation of China's neutrality.

Therefore, we request Your Excellency to transmit this note to your Government to order by telegraph the withdrawal of the troops, and the restoration of the railway stations. Such acts should never be allowed to be repeated again, in order that international faith, as well as the law

of neutrality be observed.

We wish that you will favour us with a reply.

Signed: SUN PAO-CHI.

No. 7

First Note from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the Japanese Minister at Peking protesting against the Occupation of Kiaochao-Tsinan-Railway, September 30th. 1914.

September 30th, 1914

Your Excellency,

Regarding the occupation of Weihsien by Japanese troops and the violation of China's neutrality, a despatch was sent to your Government, together with a memorandum on the 27th instant. On the 28th, the next day, Your Excellency came to the Ministry and stated that the troops of your country would soon take possession of the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway, whereupon we immediately and emphatically replied that we could not accept the reasons you advanced therefor. As it is a matter of grave

importance, I hereby specially make a formal protest.

The Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway has been constructed and operated jointed by Chinese and German capitalists, and this is clearly provided in Section II of the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway regulations. It thus becomes clear that the railway is not only the private property of the German ' merchants, but also partly owned by the Chinese capitalists. To regard this line as the public property of the German Government is, therefore, a fundamental mistake. It is a settled principle that even the public property of a belligerent, while on a neutral territory, cannot be attacked, or taken possession of by the other belligerent, much more so in the present case when the property in question is jointly owned by Chinese and German capitalists. How can your Government have the least pretext for taking possession of it? It has been a long while since the troops of your country have begun to attack Tsingtao, and the German troops in Tsingtao have been isolated, rendered helpless, and entirely and long ago cut off from communication through the Kiaochao-Railway. Not only our Government will never allow the Germans to make use of the line, it is actually beyond their power to make use of it. Therefore, the contemplated action of your country is decidedly not a case of military necessity.

When the Japanese and British troops directed a joint attack upon Kiaochao Bay, our Government was obliged to prescribe a special zone. But outside of the zone we are determined to maintain strict neutrality,

which should be respected by all the belligerents. This has been declared by our Government, and accepted by your Government. As to the protection by our Government of the railway from Weiksien to Tsinanfu, the Ministry also made a special declaration, which was accepted by Your Excellency. Now greatly to our surprise, the troops of your country have, without any justification, occupied the station in Weihsien, and intimated their intention to advance westward, and Your Excellency has even informed the Ministry that they will occupy the whole railway. Our Government is obliged to regard both the contemplated and accomplished acts as contrary to our previous understanding, as a violation of China's neutrality, and as a breach of international law.

Therefore, we make this formal and solemn protest and request, through Your Excellency, your Government for the sake of maintaining international relations to order the troops outside the prescribed area to be

withdrawn as soon as possible.

We wish that Your Excellency will favour us with an immediate reply.

Signed: Sun Pao-chi.

No. 8

The Japanese Minister at Peking to the Minister of Foreign Affairs respecting the Protest against the Occupation of the Kiaochao-Tsinan-Railway October 2nd, 1914.

October 2nd, 1914.

Your Excellency,

I have the honour to say that I have duly received your despatches of September 27th and September 29th in which your honourable Ministry made protests regarding the occupation of the Weihsien railway station by the troops of our country. These communications along with the request for your approval, which I made, under instructions from my Government to your honourable Minister in person on September 28th, for the transfer of that part of the railway between Weihsien and Tsinan to the control and management of my country, were telegraphically sent to my Government. Instructions have now been received from my Government this day, and I have the honour to reproduce the same for your perusal, as follows:

In pursuance of the policy of the Imperial Government to definitely uphold the peace of the entire Far East, and for the purpose of weakening the fundamental influence of Germany in the said region, the Japanese-German War now declared has for its aim not only the attack on the men-of-war and forts of the enemy in the leased territory of the Kiaochao Bay, but also the elimination of the base of German activities in the Far East, which aim has been repeatedly communicated to the Government of

China, and, we hope, has been clearly understood.

Regarding the Shantung Railway, it was the outcome of the Treaty of lease of the Kiaochao Bay between Germany and China in the year 1898. It was in consequence of this Treaty that Germany secured the right of building this railway, the Company of which is entirely under the control of the German Government and its nature is public and in no way different from a purely German Company. It is of the same character as the leased territory. This fact is beyond dispute, in view of its origin, the special charter given by the German Government and the way in which

the Company draws its funds.

Moreover a railway from its very nature positively cannot be treated one part separately from the other. Although one part of this German cwned railway is situated west of Weihsien, it cannot be held as having changed its character on the ground that a part remains in neutral territory. Besides, the aim of the Imperial Government is not only to overthrow the base possessed by the enemy, but also to cause the control and administration of this indivisible railway to fall into our possession. In view of the War this does not seem to be beyond propriety. It is, therefore, not necessary to secure the approval of the Chinese Government as to

the execution of this principle. But in order to avoid misunderstanding, we have made friendly request for approval regardless of the urgency of the situation. It is surprisingly beyond the comprehension of the Imperial Government for the Chinese Government to be suspicious of Japan's every movement. We regret such a condition.

Regarding the points misunderstood by the Chinese Government, as

shown in the two documents, we point out as follows:

1° Whether the Shantung Railway is a German railway or a jointinterest can be determined substantially by the special permit given by Germany. As to the governmental nature of the said railway, there can

be no doubt, in view of what has been said above.

2° If the Shantung Railway cannot be keld as being the property of a neutral, how can it be said of our violating neutrality if it is transferred to our control? Now, China, in consequence of the delimitation of the war zone, suggests to change simultaneously the nature of the Shantung Railway. The Imperial Government cannot see the reason why China should do so. Furthermore, the question of delimiting the war zone and the question of the nature of the Shantung Railway, as well as its control administration, are clearly separate questions which cannot be amalgamated into one.

3° Although the Chinese Government holds that under the present condition the Shantung Railway cannot be utilized by the German troops in view of its severance with Tsinan, yet from the attacking troops' point of view, the Railway being immediately behind Tsingtao, and in view of the present situation, it is a serious danger to the military operations to leave a railway owned by the enemy perfectly free. We are, therefore, compelled to secure the railway by all means. Moreover, the Chinese Government has often failed to stop the assistance of the enemy on this railway, of which there are many examples.

In the documents the Chinese Government emphatically declared its readiness to protect the railway between Weihsien and Tsinan, which declaration is said to have been agreed to by our Government. The Im-

perial Government likes to be informed as to what this refers to.

Signed: HIOKI EKI.

No. 9

Second Note from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the Japanese Minister at Peking protesting against the Occupation of the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway, October 9th 1914.

Peking, October 9th, 1914.

Your Excellency,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your despatch dated the 2nd instant, of which I have taken notice. But our Government cannot concur in the explanation made by your Government of the occupation

of the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway

That the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway is private property is beyond any doubt. In article 2 of Sec. II of the Kiaochao Convention, there is the express provision that "in order to carry out the above-mentioned railway construction a Sino-German Company shall be formed;" and in Article I of the Regulations made in 1899 respecting the joint construction and maintenance of the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway, it is stated that the construction and maintenance of the Railway shall be undertaken by a Sino-German Company. All these stipulations show very clearly that the railway is a joint stock enterprise of Chinese and German merchants. In cur despatch to Your Excellency on September 29th, we mentioned the above two points, to which we call Your Excellency's attention, but in your reply we fail to see why no reply was made to these two points. If you wish to ascertain the real and definite nature of the railway-whether it is public or private property—those two points are essential to the solution

of the question; and yet they have apparently been disregarded. We really

fail to discover any reason for such a disregard:

2. The protection by our Government of the railway from Weihsien to Tsinan is at the same time a matter of our right and duty. The concurrence of your Government on this matter is, strictly speaking, quite unnecessary. It was simply out of extra caution that more than ence we made oral declarations to that effect before Your Excellency, and instructed by telegraph our Minister at Tokio, M. Lu Tsung-yu, to make the same declaration to your Government. Since your Government did not express any objection thereto, we have certainly the right to conclude that your Government have tacitly and justly recognized our rights and duty.

3. During the present unfortunate war, our Government has acted in accordance with international law and maintained strict neutrality, particularly we have paid special attention to Shantung affairs. Your Government in the above-mentioned reply alleged that our Government was unable to prevent acts contributing to strengthen the position of your enemy from being done on the railway. From such an allegation, we strongly dissent; and, as there is no evidence produced, we do not know to what your Government.

ernment referred.

4. Tsingtao has been isolated and rendered helpless; the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway has been guarded by our troops and police in the section of 400 li west of Weihsien, and by the troops of your country in the other section of 300 li east of Weihsien; and, in fact, Tsingtao is so surrounded by the besieging troops that no possible assistance can be expected from cutside. And yet your Government said that the situation would be extremely dangerous, unless that portion of 400 li west of Weihsien was occupied by the troops of your country. In fact, we fail to see where lies the danger.

5. Your country has announced that its declaration of war against Germany was for the purpose of preserving peace in the Far East. Therefore, only the disarmament of German War-vessels and the restoration of Kiaochao have been proclaimed. We have never heard of the so-called elimination of the base of German activities in the East. But the action sought to be justified in such vague terms has resulted in the violating of China's neutrality, and in the occupation of property within the territory of a friendly nation—property partly owned by neutral merchants. This is entirely inconsistent with the previous declaration of your Govenment..

Finding the situation extremely regrettable, we are obliged hereby again to make a strong protest in the hope that your Government will, in compliance with our request made in the note of September 29th, withdraw all the troops outside the prescribed area, in conformity with the declared

principle and observance of the law of neutrality.

Signed: SUN PAO-CHI.

No. 10

First Note from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the British and Japanese
Ministers at Peking, notifying the Cancellation of the War Zone,
January 7th, 1915.

Peking, January 7th, 1915.

Your Excellency,

On September 3rd, 1914, it was communicated to Your Excellency, that, as Great Britain, Japan and Germany were making military preparations in and near Kiaochao, Lungkow and Laichow, and as all the belligerents are friends to China, our Government was obliged to follow the precedent established during the Russo-Japanese War, of delimiting a minimum area absolutely necessary for military actions of the troops of both parties to the war, and that so far as the delimited area was concerned, we would not hold ourselves wholly responsible as a neutral State.

Now, as the hostilities have ceased, and all military preparations have been entirely withdrawn, it is clear that there will be no more occasion

to use Lungkow or the places near Kiaochao for military actions. It is, therefore, hereby declared that all the previous communications relating to the delimitation of the war zone shall be cancelled, and that the original status of the said area restored.

Wherefore I request, through you, Your Excellency, that your Government, in order to respect the neutrality of China, withdraw all the troops,

if there are still any, from the said area.

Signed: SUN PAO-CHI.

No. 11

Note from the Japanese Minister at Peking to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs refusing to recognize the Cancellation of the War Zone,

January 9th, 1915.

Peking, January 9th, 1915.

Your Excellency,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your note of January 7th stating: that as Great Britain, Japan and Germany were making military operations in Kiaochao, Lungkow and Laichow the Chinese Government acting upon the precedent set during the Russo-Japanese War has delimited a minimum area necessary for the movement of troops and for the use of the troops of the belligerent States and that now as the hostilities have ceased and the military measures will naturally be all withdrawn it is clear that there will be no more necessity of using the said area, and therefore all the previous communications relating to delimiting the exceptional area be cancelled, its original status be restored, and the Japanese troops be all withdrawn.

The contents of the above note were immediately reported to our Government, from which a telegraphic instruction has now been received

which states:

When your Government brought up the matter in question for diplomatic discussion, the Imperial Government declared that a reply would be given sooner or later, and also courteously gave the reason why the reply was delayed; but your Government has ignored all the diplomatic negotiations in the past and now of a sudden performs an act, improper, arbitrary, betraying, in fact, want of confidence in international good faith and regardless of friendly relations. We cannot acquiesce therein under any circumstance.

The Imperial Government deems it necessary to declare that even if your Government actually cancels the communications concerning the creation of a war zone, the Imperial Government would not permit the movement and actions of their troops within a necessary period to be affected or restricted by such act of cancellation.

These above are my instructions which I have the honour to com-

municate to Your Excellency's Government.

Signed: Hioki Eki

No. 12

Second Note from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the Japanese Minister at Peking respecting the Cancellation of the War Zone, January 16th. 1915.

Your Excellency,

In reply to your note of the 9th of January, I regret to say that

there exists much misunderstanding.

When Japan, Great Britain and Germany, friends of China, were making military preparations within Chinese territory, our Government, in view of the extraordinary situation, declared Laichow, Lungkow and places near Kiaochao, within the narrowest possible limits, and absolutely necessary for the operations of the troops of the belligerent States, to be

temporarily a special area within which we shall not be responsible as a neutral State. This step was taken with a view to maintaining international friendship on the one hand, and meeting the necessity of the international situation on the other. We made that special declaration because we considered it necessary, and not because we had any agreement to that effect with belligerent States. As our declaration was an independent act, so now we cancel it in an equally independent way-there being no necessity at all to secure the concurrence of any party. It is really difficult to see how you can consider our declaration to cancel the special area Two months have elapsed since the capture of arbitrary or inappropriate. Tsingtao; the basis of German military preparations has been destroyed, the troops of Great Britain have already been, and those of your country, are being gradually withdrawn This shows clearly that there is no more military action in the special area, and that the said area ought to be cancelled admits of no doubt. It is just because of our due regard for international confidence and friendship that our Government postponed a formal declaration to cancel what ought to have been cancelled already long ago. Furthermore, within the last two months, we have repeatedly reminded your Government of the desirability of an early withdrawal of your troops se as to effect a restoration of order. Notwithstanding all this, the matter still remains unsettled to-day. The molestation in these localities and the sufferings of the inhabitants, coupled with the fact that the port of Tsingtao has already been opened without any more hindrance, have led our Government to think that the time is opportune for cancellation, and to wait any longer would be simply unreasonable; and after careful deliberation, we finally decided to make a declaration to cancel the said prescribed area. So far as international confidence, and friendship is concerned, we have nothing to regret on our part. Moreover at the outbreak of the kostilities, your Government declared the preservation of peace in the Far East to be their object. Now, our declaration to cancel the prescribed zone has also been made out of our sincere belief in and respect for the principle which your Government has been cherishing. That such a declaration should be deemed as tending to impair international confidence and friendship, is really beyond our comprehension.

In short, we prescribed a special area simply because there existed a special situation created by the acts of the belligerent States. Now, as there is no longer any such special situation, the raison d'etre for the prescribed area ceases to exist. As efforts have already been made to effect an amicable settlement of affairs between your country and ours, it is our earnest hope that your Government will act upon the principle of preserving peace in the Far East, and of maintaining international confidence and friendship which is really an appropriate and well-meant act—so that there shall be no further misunderstanding and that a state of complete neutral-

ity in the said area should be restored.

We shall be much obliged, if you will be so good as to transmit this reply to your Government

Signed: SUN PAO-CHI.

No. 13.

Japan's Twenty-one Demands, January 18, 1915

Translation of Documents Handed to the President Yuan Shih-kai, by Mr. Hioki, the Japanese Minister on January 18th, 1915.

The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government being desirous of maintaining the general peace in Eastern Asia and further strengthening the friendly relations and good neighbourhood existing between the two nations agree to the following articles:

Art. 1.—The Chinese Government engages to give full assent to all matters upon which the Japanese Government may hereafter agree with the German Government relating to the disposition of all rights, interests and concessions which Germany, by virtue of treaties or otherwise, possesses in relation to the Province of Shantung.

Art. 2.—The Chinese Government engages that within the Province of Shantung and along its coast, no territory or island will be ceded or leased to a third Power under any pretext.

Art. 3.—The Chinese Government consents to Japan's building a railway from Chefoo or Lungkow to join the Kiaochao-Tsinanfu Railway.

Art. 4.—The Chinese Government engages, in the interest of trade and for the residence of foreigners, to open by itself, as soon as possible, certain important cities and towns in the Province of Shantung as Commercial Ports. What places shall be opened are to be jointly decided upon in a separate agreement.

H

The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government, since the Chinese Government has always acknowledged the special position enjoyed by Japan in South Manchuria, and Eastern Inner Mongolia, agree to the following articles:

Art. 1.—The two Contracting Parties mutually agree that the term of lease of Port Arthur and Dainy and the term of lease of the South Manchurian Railway and the Antung Mukden Railway shall be extended to

the period of 99 years.

Art. 2.—Japanese subjects in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia shall have the right to lease or own land required either for erecting suitable buildings for trade and manufacture or for farming.

erecting suitable buildings for trade and manufacture or for farming.

Art. 3.—Japanese subjects shall be free to reside and travel in South
Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia and to engage in business and in

manufacture of any kind whatsoever.

Art. 4.—The Chinese Government agrees to grant to Japanese subjects the right of opening the mines in South Manchuria and Eastern Mongolia, as regards what mines are to be opened, they shall be decided upon jointly.

Art. 5.—The Chinese Government agrees that in respect of the (two) cases mentioned hereinbelow the Japanese Government's consent shall be

first obtained before action is taken:

(a) Whenever permission is granted to the subject of a third Power to build a railway or to make a loan with a third Power for the purpose of building a railway in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.

(b) Whenever a loan is to be made with a third Power pledging the local taxes of South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia as security.

Art 6.—The Chinese Government agrees that if the Chinese Government employs political, financial or military advisers or instructors in South Manchuria or Eastern Mongolia, the Japanese Government shall first be consulted.

Art. 7.—The Chinese Government agrees that the control and management of the Kirin-Changchun-Railway shall be handed over to the Japanese Government for a term of 99 years dating from the signing of this

agreement.

TIT

The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government seeing that Japanese financiers and the Hanyehping Co., have close relations with each other at present and that the common interests of the two shall be advanced

agree to the following articles:

Art. 1.—The two contracting Parties mutually agree that when the opportune moment arrives the Hanyehping Company shall be made a joint concern of the two nations and they further agree that without the previous consent of Japan, China shall not by the act dispose of the rights and property of whatever nature of the said Company nor cause the said Company to dispose freely of the same.

Art. 2.—The Chinese Government agrees that all mines in the neighbourhood of those owned by the Hanyehping Company skall not be permitted, without the consent of the said company, to be worked by other persons outside the said company; and further agrees that if it is desired to carry out any undertaking which, it is apprehended, may directly or

indirectly affect the interests of the said Company, the consent of the said Company shall first be obtained.

IV

The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government with the object of effectively preserving the territorial integrity of China agree to the following special article:

The Chinese Government engages not to cede or lease to a third Power

any harbour or bay or island along the coast of China.

V

Art. 1.—The Chinese Central Government shall employ influential Japanese as advisers in political, financial and military affairs.

Art. 2.—Japanese hospitals, churches and schools in the interior of

China shall be granted the right of owning land.

Art. 3.—Inasmuch as the Japanese Government and the Chinese Government have had many cases of dispute between Japanese and Chinese police which caused no little misunderstanding, it is for that reason necessary that the police departments of important places (in China) shall be jointly administered by Japanese and Chinese or that the police department of these places shall employ numerous Japanese, so that they may at the same time help to plan for the improvement of the Chinese Police Service.

Art. 4.—China shall purchase from Japan a fixed amount of munitions of war (say 50% or more of what is needed by the Chinese Government) or there shall be established in China a Sino-Japanese jointly worked arsenal. Japanese technical experts are to be employed and Japanese ma-

terial to be purchased.

Art. 5.—China agrees to grant to Japan the right of constructing a railway connecting Wuchang with Kiukiang and Nanchang, another line between Nanchang and Hangchow, and another between Nanchang and Chaochow.

Art. 6.—If China needs foreign capital to work mines, build railways and construct harbour-works (including dockyards) in the Province of Fukien, Japan shall be first consulted.

Art. 7.—China agrees that Japanese subjects shall have the right of

missionary propaganda in China

No. 14.

Japan's Ultimatum to China.*

Ultimatum delivered by Japanese Minister to Minister of Foreign Affairs at 3 o'clock P. M., on May 7th, 1915.

The reason why the Imperial Government opened the present negotiations with the Chinese Government is, first, to endeavour to dispose of the complications arising out of the war between Japan and Germany, and secondly, to attempt to solve various questions which are detrimental to the intimate relations of China and Japan, with a view to solidifying the foundation of cordial friendship subsisting between the two countries to the end that the peace of the Far East may be effectually and permanently preserved. With this object in view, definite proposals were presented to the Chinese Government in January of this year, and up to to-day, as many as twenty-five conferences were held with the Chinese Government in perfect sincerity and frankness.

^{*}Following the presentation of the Japanese Ultimatum, on May 16th, 1915 The American Government served notice on both China and Japan that it intended to stand by the Open Door policy, stating:

[&]quot;It cannot recognize any agreement or understanding which has been entered into, or which may be entered into between the Governments of China and Japan impairing the treaty rights of the United States and its citizens in China, the political or territorial integrity of the Republic of China, or the international policy, commonly known as the Open Door policy."

In the course of the negotiations, the Imperial Government has consistently explained the aims and objects of the proposals in a conciliatory spirit, while on the other hand, the proposals of the Chinese Government whether important or unimportant, have been attended to without any reserve.

It may be stated with confidence that no effort has been spared to arrive at a satisfactory and amicable settlement of those questions.

This discussion of the entire corpus of the proposals was practically at an end at the twenty-fourth conference; that is, on the 17th of the last month. The Imperial Government, taking a broad view of the negotiations and in consideration of the points raised by the Chinese Government, modified the original proposals with considerable concessions and presented to the Chinese Government, on the 26th of the same month, the revised proposals for agreement, and at the same time it was offered that, on the acceptance of the revised proposals, the Imperial Government would, at a suitable opportunity, restore with fair and proper conditions to the Chinese Government, the Kiaochao territory, in the acquisition of which the Imperial Government had made a great sacrifice.

On the first of May, the Chinese Government delivered the reply to the revised proposals of the Japanese Government, which is contrary to the expectations of the Imperial Government. The Chinese Government not only did not give a careful consideration to the revised proposals, but even with regard to the offer of the Japanese Government, to restore Kiaochao to the Chinese Government, the latter did not manifest the least appreciation of Japan's goodwill and difficulties.

From the commercial and military points of view, Kiaochao is an important place, in the acquisition of which the Japanese Empire sacrificed much blood and money, and after the acquisition, the Empire incurs no obligation to restore it to China. But with the object of increasing the future friendly relations of the two countries, she went to the extent of proposing its restoration, yet to her great regret, the Chinese Government did not take into consideration the good intention of Japan, and manifest appreciation of her difficulties. Furthermore, the Chinese Government not only ignored the friendly feelings of the Imperial Government offering the restoration of Kiaochao Bay, but also in replying to the revised proposals they even demanded its unconditional restoration; and again China demanded that Japan should bear the responsibility of paying indemnity for all the unavoidable losses and damages resulting from Japan's military operations at Kiaochao; and still further in connection with the territory of Kiaochao, China advanced other demands and declared that she has the right of participation at the future peace conference to be held between Japan and Germany. Although China is fully aware that the unconditional indemnification for the unavoidable losses and damages can never be tolerated by Japan, yet she purposely advanced those demands and declared that this reply was final and decisive.

Since Japan could not tolerate such demands, the settlement of the other question, however compromising it may be, would not be to her interest. The consequence is that the present reply of the Chinese Government is, on the whole, vague and meaningless.

Furthermore, the reply of the Chinese Government to the other proposals in the revised list of the Imperial Government, such as South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, where Japan particularly has geographical, political, commercial, industrial, and strategic relations, as recognized by all the nations, and made more remarkable in consequence of the two wars in which Japan was engaged, the Chinese Government overlooks these facts, and does not respect Japan's position in that place. The Chinese Government even freely altered those articles which the Imperial Government, in a compromising spirit, have formulated in accordance with the statement of the Chinese Representatives, thereby making the statements of the Representatives an empty talk; or, on seeing them conceding with the one hand, and withholding with the other, it is very difficult to attribute faithfulness and sincerity to the Chinese authorities.

As regards the articles relating to the employment of advisers, the establishment of schools and hospitals, the supply of arms and ammunition, and the establishment of an arsenal, and railway concessions in South China, in the revised proposals, they are either proposed with the proviso that the consent of the Power concerned must first be obtained, or they are merely to be recorded in the minutes in accordance with the statement of the Chinese delegates and thus they are not in the least in conflict either with the Chinese sovereignty, or her treaties with the Foreign Powers. Yet the Chinese Government, in their reply to the proposals, alleging that these proposals are incompatible with their sovereign rights, and the Treaties with the Foreign Powers, defeat the expectations of the Imperial Government. In spite of such attitude of the Chinese Government, the Imperial Government, though regretting to see that there is no room for further negotiation, yet warmly attached to the preservation of the peace of the Far East, is still hoping for a satisfactory settlement in order to avoid the disturbance of the relations.

So in spite of the circumstances which admitted no patience, they have reconsidered the feelings of the Government of their neighbouring country, and with the exception of the article relating to Fukien, which is to be the subject of an exchange of notes, as has already been agreed upon by the representatives of both nations, will undertake to detach Group 5 from the present negotiations and discuss it separately in the future. Therefore, the Chinese Government should appreciate the friendly feelings of the Imperial Government by immediately accepting, without any alteration, all the articles of Groups I, II, III, and IV, and the exchange of notes in connection with Fukien Province in Group V, as contained in the re-

vised proposals presented on the 26th of April.

The Imperial Government hereby again offer their advice and hope that the Chinese Government, upon this advice, will give a satisfactory reply by 6 o'clock P. M., on the 9th day of May. It is hereby declared that if no satisfactory reply is received before or at the designated time, the Imperial Government will take the steps they may deem necessary.

No. 15

Japan's Explanatory Note, May, 7th, 1915.

Explanatory Note accompanying Memorandum delivered to the Minister of Foreign Affairs by the Japanese Minister on the Seventh Day of May, 1915.

1. With the exception of the question of Fukien to be arranged by an exchange of notes; the five articles postponed for later negotiations refer to (a) the employment of advisers (b) the establishment of schools and hospitals (c) the railway concessions in South China, (d) the supply of arms and ammunition and the establishment of arsenals (e) the propagation of Buddhism.

2. The acceptance by the Chinese Government of the article relating to Fukien may be either in the form as proposed by the Minister of Japan on the 26th of April or in that contained in the Reply of the Chinese Government of May 1st. Although the Ultimatum calls for the immediate acceptance by China of the modified proposals presented on April 26th, without alteration, yet it should be noted that it merely states the principle and does not apply to this article and articles 4 and 5 of this note.

3. If the Chinese Government accept all the articles as demanded in the Ultimatum the offer of the Japanese Government to restore Kiaochao

to China made on the 26th of April will still hold good.

4. In Article 2 of Group, II relating to the lease or purchase of land, the terms "lease and purchase" may be replaced by these terms "temporary lease" and "perpetual lease" or "lease on consultations" which means a long term lease with its unconditional renewal.

Article 4 of Group II relating to the approval of laws and ordinances and local taxes by the Japanese Consul may form the subject of a secret

agreement.

5. The phrase "to consult with the Japanese Government" in connection with questions of pledging the local taxes for raising loans and the loans for construction of railways, in Eastern Inner Mongolia, which is similar to the agreement in Manchuria relating to the matters of the same kind, may be replaced by the pkrase "to consult with the Japanese capitalists."

The article relating to the opening of trade marts in Eastern Inner Mongolia in respect to location and regulations, may, following the precedent

set in Shantung, be the subject of an exchange of notes.

6. From the phrase "those interested in the Company" in Group III of the revised list of demands, the words "those interested in" may be deleted.

7. The Japanese version of the Formal Agreement and its annexes shall be the official text or both the Chinese and Japanese shall be official texts.

No. 16

China's Reply to the Ultimatum

The Reply of the Chinese Government to the Ultimatum of the Japanese Government, Delivered to the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs on the 8th of May, 1915.

On the 7th of this month, at three o'clock p.m., the Chinese Government received an Ultimatum from the Japanese Government together with an Explanatory Note of seven Articles. The Ultimatum concluded with the hope that the Chinese Government up to 6 o'clock p.m. on the 9th of May, will give a satisfactory reply, and it is hereby declared that if no satisfactory reply is received before or at the designated time, the Japanese

Government will take the steps it may deem necessary.

The Chinese Government with a view to preserving the peace of the Far East, hereby accepts, with the exception of those five articles of Group V, postponed for later negotiation, all the articles of Groups I, II, III and IV and the exchange of Notes in connection with Fukien Province in Group V, as contained in the revised proposals presented on the 26th of April and in accordance with the Explanatory Note of seven articles accompanying the Ultimatum of the Japanese Government with the kope that thereby all outstanding questions are settled, so that the cordial relationship between the two countries may be further consolidated. The Japanese Minister is hereby requested to appoint a day to call at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to make the literary improvement of the text and sign the Agreement as soon as possible.

No. 17

Treaties respecting Shantung, South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia and Exchanges of Notes between China and Japan May 25th, 1915.

(Translated from the Chinese).

Treaty Respecting the Province of Shantung.

His Excellency the President of the Republic of China and His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, having resolved to conclude a Treaty with a view to the maintenance of general peace in the Far East and the further strengthening of the relations of friendship, and good neighbourhood now existing between the two nations, have for that purpose named as their Plenipotentiaries, that is to say:

His Excellency the President of the Republic of China, Lu Chenghsiang, Chung-ching, First Class Chia Ho Decoration, Minister of Foreign

Affairs.

And His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, Hioki Eki, Jushii, Second Class of the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure, Minister Plenipotentiary, and Envoy Extraordinary:

Who, after having communicated to each other their full powers and found them to be in good and due form, have agreed upon and con-

cluded the following articles:

Art. 1.—The Chinese Government agree to give full assent to all matters upon which the Japanese Government may hereafter agree with the German Government relating to the disposition of all rights, interests and concessions which Germany, by virtue of treaties or otherwise, possesses in relation to the Province of Shantung.

Art. 2.—The Chinese Government agrees that as regards the railway to be built by China herself from Chefoo or Lungkow to connect with the Kiaochao-Tsinanfu railway, if Germany abandons the privilege of financing the Chefoo-Weihsien line China will approach Japanese capitalists to

negotiate for a loan.

Art. 3.—The Chinese Government agrees in the interest of trade and for the residence of foreigners, to open by China herself, as soon as possible, certain suitable places in the Province of Shantung as Commercial Ports.

Art. 4.—The present treaty shall come into force on day of its signa-

ture.

The present treaty shall be ratified by His Excellency, the President of the Republic of China, and His Majesty, the Emperor of Japan and the ratification thereof shall be exchanged at Tokio as soon as possible.

In witness whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries of the High Contracting Parties have signed and sealed the present Treaty, two copies in the

Chinese language, and two in Japanese.

Done at Peking this twenty-fifth day of the fifth month of the fourth year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the same day of the same month of the fourth year of Taisho.

Exchange of Notes Respecting Shantung,

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

In the name of the Chinese Government I have the honour to make the following declaration to your Government: "Within the Province of Shantung or along its coast no territory or island will be leased or ceded to any foreign Power under any pretext."

I avail, etc., Signed: Lu CHENG-HSIANG,

His Excellency, Hioki Ekt, Japanese Minister.

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of this day's date in which you made the following declaration in the name of the Chinese Government: "Within the Province of Shantung or along its coast no territory or island will be leased or ceded to any foreign Power under any pretext."

In reply I beg to state that I have taken note of this declaration.

I avail, etc., Signed: Hioki Eki.

His Excellency, Lu CHENG-HSIANG, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Exchange of Notes Respecting the Opening of Ports in Shantung.

Peking, 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

I have the honour to state that the places which ought to be opened as Commercial Ports by China herself, as provided in Article 3 of the Treaty.

respecting the Province of Shantung signed this day, will be selected and the regulations therefor will be drawn up. by the Chinese Government itself, a decision concerning which will be made after consulting the Minister of Japan.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: LU CHENG-HSIANG,

His Excellency, Hioki Eki, Japanese Minister.

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of this day's date in which you stated "that the places which ought to be opened as Commercial Ports by China herself, as provided in Article 3 of the Treaty respecting the provinces of Shantung signed this day, will be selected and the regulations therefor, will be drawn up by the Chinese Government itself, a decision concerning which will be made after consulting the Minister of Japan."

In rep'y, I beg to state that I have taken note of the same.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: HIOKI EKI.

His Excellency, Lu Cheng-HSIANG, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Exchange of Notes Repecting the Restoration of the Leased Territory of Kiaochao Bay.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

In the name of my Government I have the honour to make the follow-

ing declaration to the Chinese Government.

When, after the termination of the present war, the leased territory of Kiaochao Bay is completely left to the free disposal of Japan, the Japanese Government will restore the said leased territory to China under the following conditions.

1. The whole of Kiaochao Bay to be opened as a Commercial Port.

2. A concession under the exclusive jurisdiction of Japan to be established at a place designated by the Japanese Government.

3. If the foreign Powers desire it, an international concession may be

established.

4. As regards the disposal to be made of the buildings and properties of Germany and the conditions and procedure relating thereto, the Japanese Government and the Chinese Government shall arrange the matter by mutual agreement before the restoration

I avail, etc.,

Signed: HIOKI EKI.

His Excellency, Lu Cheng-hsiang, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your Excellency's note of this date in which you made the following declaration in the name of your Government:

"When, after the termination of the present war, the leased territory of Kiaochao Bay is completely left to the free disposal of Japan, the Japan

anese Government will restore the said leased territory to China under the following cenditions:

1. The whole of Kiaochao Bay to be opened as a Commercial Port. 2. A concession under the exclusive jurisdiction of Japan to be es-

tablished at a place designated by the Japanese Government.

3. If the foreign Powers desire it, an international concession may be established.

4. As regards the disposal to be made of the buildings and properties of Germany and the conditions and procedure relating thereto, the Japanese Government and the Chinese Government shall arrange the matter by mutual agreement before the restoration."

In reply, I beg to state that I have taken note of this declaration.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: LU CHENG-HSIANG,

His Excellency, Hioki Eki, Japanese Minister.

Treaty Respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.

His Excellency the President of the Republic of China and his Majesty the Emperor of Japan, having resolved to conclude a Treaty with a view to developing their economic relations in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, have for that purpose named as their Plenipotentiaries, that is to say :

His Excellency the President of the Republic of China, Lu Cheng-Lsiang, Chung-ching, First Class Chia-ho Decoration, and Minister of Foreign Affairs; and His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, Hioki Eki Jushii, Second Class of the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure, Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary.

Who, after having communicated to each other their full powers, and found them to be in good and due form, have agreed upon and concluded

the following Articles .

Art. 1.—The Two High Contracting Parties agree that the term of lease of Port Arthur and Dalny and the terms of the South Manchurian Railway and the Antung-Mukden Railway, shall be extended to 99 years.

Art. 2.—Japanese subjects in South Manchuria may, by negotiation,

lease land necessary for erecting suitable buildings for trade and manu-

facture or for prosecuting agricultural enterprises.

Art. 3.—Japanese subjects shall be free to reside and travel in South Manchuria and to engage in business and manufacture of any kind whatso-

Art. 4.—In the event of Japanese and Chinese desiring jointly to undertake agricultural enterprises and industries incidental thereto, the Chin-

ese Government may give its permission.

Art. 5.—The Japanese subjects referred to in the preceding three articles, besides being required to register with the local Authorities passports which they must procure under the existing regulations, shall also

submit to the police law and ordinances and taxation of China.

Civil and criminal cases in which the defendants are Japanese shall be tried and adjudicated by the Japanese Consul; those in which the defendants are Chinese shall be tried and adjudicated by Chinese Authorities. In either case an officer may be deputed to the court to attend the proceed-But mixed civil cases between Chinese and Japanese relating to land shall be tried and adjudicated by delegates of both nations conjointly in accordance with Chinese law and local usage.

When, in future, the judicial system in the said region is completely reformed, all civil and criminal cases concerning Japanese subjects shall be

tried and adjudicated entirely by Chinese law courts.

Art. 5.—The Chinese Government agrees, in the interest of trade and for the residence of foreigners, to open by China herself, as soon as possible, certain suitable places in Eastern Inner Mongolia as Commercial Ports.

Art. 7.—The Chinese Government agrees speedily to make a fundamental revision of the Kirin-Changchun Railway Loan-Agreement, taking as a standard the provisions in railway agreements made heretofore between

China and foreign financiers.

When in future, more advantageous terms than those in existing rail-way loan agreements are granted to foreign financiers in connection with railway loans, the above agreement shall again be revised in accordance with Japan's wishes.

Art. 8.—Ah existing treaties between China and Japan relating to Manchuria shall, except where otherwise provided for by this Treaty,

remain in force.

Art. 9.—The present Treaty shall come into force on the date of its signature. The present Treaty shall be ratified by His Excellency the President of the Republic of China and His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at Tokio as soon as possible.

In witness whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries of the two High Contracting Parties have signed and sealed the present Treaty, two copies

in the Chinese language, and two in Japanese.

Done at Peking this twenty-fifth day of the fifth month of the fourth year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the same day of the same month of the fourth year of Taisho.

Exchange of Notes Respecting the Terms of Lease of Port Arthur and Dalny and the Terms of South Manchurian and Antung-Mukden Railways.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

I have the honour to state that, respecting the provisions contained in Article 1 of the Treaty relating to South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, signed this day, the term of lease of Port Arthur and Dalny shall expire in the 86th year of the Republic or 1997. The date for restoring the South Manchurian Railway to China shall fall due in the 91st year of the Republic or 2002. Article 21 in the Original South Manchurian Railway Agreement providing that it may be redeemed by China after 36 years from the day on which traffic is opened is hereby cancelled. The term of the Antung-Mukden Railway shall expire in the 96th year of the Republic or 2007.

I avail, etc., Signed: Lu Cheng-Hsiang,

His Excellency, Hioki Eki, Japanese Minister.

REPLY.

Peking, the 23th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of this day's date in which you stated that "respecting the provisions contained in Article 1 of the Treaty relating to South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, signed this day, the term of lease of Port Arthur and Dalny shall expire in the 86th year of the Republic or 1997. The date for restoring the South Manchurian Railway to China shall fall due in the 91st year of the Republic or 2002. Article 31 in the original South Manchurian Railway Agreement providing that it may be redeemed by China after 36 years from the day on which the traffic is opened, is hereby cancelled. The term of the Antung-Mukden Railway shall expire in the 96th year of the Republic or 2007."

In reply I beg to state that I have taken note of the same.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: HIOKI EKI.

His Excellency, Lu Cheng-hsiang, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Exchange of Notes Respecting the Opening of Ports in Eastern Inner Mongolia.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

I have the honour to state that the places which ought to be opened as Commercial Ports by China, herself, as provided in Article 6 of the Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day, will be selected, and the regulations therefor will be drawn up, by the Chinese Government itself, a decision concerning which will be made after consulting the Minister of Japan.

His Excellency, Hioki Eki, Japanese Minister. I avail, etc.,
Signed: Lu Cheng-HSIANG,

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency.

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of this day's date in which you stated that the places which ought to be opened as Commercial Ports by China herself, as provided in Article 6 of the Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day, will be selected, and the regulations therefor, will be drawn up, by the Chinese Government itself, a decision concerning which will be made after consulting the Minister of Japan.

In reply, I beg to state that I have taken note of the same.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: Hioki Eki.

His Excellency, Lu CHENG-HSIANG, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

South Manchuria.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

F

I have the honour to state that Japanese subjects shall, as soon as possible, investigate and select mines in the mining areas in South Manchuria specified hereinunder, except those being prospected for or worked, and the Chinese Government will then permit them to prospect or work the same; but before the Mining regulations are definitely settled, the practice at present in force shall be followed.

PROVINCES: FENGTIEN:

	TO THE CERT . I THE GITTER .	
LOCALITY	DISTRICT	MINERAL
Niu Hsin T'ai	Pen-hsi	Coal
Tien Shih Fu Kou	22	,,
Sha Sung Kang	Hai-lung	,,
T'ieh Ch'ang	Tung-hua Chin	"
Nuan Ti T'ang An Shan Chan region		Iron.
	KIRIN (Southern portion).	
LOCALITY	DISTRICT	MINERAL
Sha Sung Kang	Ho-lung	C. & I.
Kang Yao	Chi-lin (Kirin)	Coal
Chia P'i Kou	Hua-tien	Gold
	I avail, etc.,	
His Excellency, HIOKI		CHENG-HSIANG,
Japanese Minister.		

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of this day's date respecting the opening of mines in South Manchuria, stating: "Japanese subjects shall, as soon as possible, investigate and select mines in the mining areas in South Manchuria specified hereinunder, excepting those being prospected for or worked and the Chinese Government will then permit them to prospect or work the same, but before the Mining regulations are definitely settled, the practice at present in force shall be followed.

	PROVINCES : FENGTIE	IN:
LOCALITY	DISTRICT	MINERAL
-	-	January Contraction of the Contr
Niu Hsin T'ai	Pen-hsi	Coal
Tien Shih Fu Kou	,,	,,
Sha Sung Kang	Hai-lung	,,
T'ieh Ch'ang	Tung-hua	,,
Nuan Ti T'ang	Chin	2.2
An Shan Chan region	From Liaoyang	Iron
	to Pen-hsi	
•	KIRIN (Southern portion	1).
Sha Sung Kang	Ho-lung	C. & I.
Kang Yao	Chilin (Kirin)	Coal
Chia P'i Kou	Hua-tien	Gold
		Signed: HIOKI EKI.

His Excellency, Lu Cheng-hsiang, Minister of Foreign Affairs. of the Republic of China.

Exchange of Notes Respecting Railways and Taxes in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

In the name of my Government, I have the honour to make the fol-

lowing declaration to your Government:

China will hereafter provide funds for building necessary railways in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia; if foreign capital is required preference shall be given to Japanese capitalists and further, the Chinese Government, when making a loan in future on the security of the taxes in the above-mentioned places (excluding the salt and customs revenue which has already been pledged by the Chinese Central Government) will first consult with Japanese capitalists.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: LU CHENG-HSIANG,

His Excellency, Hioki Eki, Japanese Minister.

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

I have the henour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of this day's date respecting railways and taxes in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia in which you stated:

"China will hereafter provide funds for building necessary railways in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia; if foreign capital is re-

quired preference shall be given to Japanese capitalists and further, the Chinese Government, when making a loan in future on the security of taxes in the above-mentioned places (excluding the sait and customs revenue which has already been pledged by the Chinese Central Government) will first consult with Japanese capitalists."

In reply I beg to state that I have taken note of the same.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: Hioki Ekt.

His Excellency, Lu CHENG-HSIANG, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Exchange of Notes Respecting the Employment of Advisers in South Manchuria.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

In the name of the Chinese Government, I have the honour to make

the following declaration to your Government:

"Hereafter, if foreign advisers or instructors on political, financial, military or police matters are to be employed in South Manchuria, preference will be given to Japanese."

I avail, etc.,

Signed: LU CHENG-HSIANG.

His Excellency, HIOKI EKI, Japanese Minister.

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of this day's date in which you made the following declaration in the name of your Government:

"Hereafter if foreign advisers or instructors in political, financial, military or police matters are to be employed in South Manchuria, preference will be given to Japanese."

In reply, I beg to state that I have taken note of the same.

I avail, etc., Signed: HIOKI EKI.

His Excellency. LU CHENG-HSIANG. Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Exchange of Notes Respecting the Explanation of "Lease by Negotiation" in South Manchuria.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

I have the honour to state that the term "lease by negotiation" contained in Article 2 of the Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day shall be understood to imply a long-term lease of not more than thirty years and also the possibility of its unconditional renewal.

I avail, etc., Signed: Нюкі Ект.

His Excellency, LU CHENG-HSIANG, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's

note of this day's date in which you state:

"The term "lease by negotiation" contained in Article 2 of the Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day shall be understood to imply a long-term lease of not more than thirty years and also the possibility of its unconditional renewal."

I avail, etc.,

His Excellency, Hioki Eki, Japanese Minister. Signed: LU CHENG-HSIANG,

Exchange of Notes Respecting the Arrangement for Police Laws and Ordinances and Taxation in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

I have the honour to state that the Chinese Authorities will notify the Japanese Consul of the police laws and ordinances and the taxation to which Japanese subjects shall submit according to Article 5 of the Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day so as to come to an understanding with him before their enforcement.

I avail, etc.,

His Excellency, Hioki Eki, Japanese Minister Signed: LU CHENG-HSIANG,

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's

note of this day's date in which you state:

"The Chinese Authorities will notify the Japanese Consul of the Police laws and ordinances and the taxation to which Japanese subjects shall submit according to Article 5 of the Treaty respecting South Mancharia and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day so as to come to an understanding with him before their enforcement."

In reply, I beg to state that I have taken note of the same.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: HIOKI EKI.

His Excellency, Lu Cheng-hsiang, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

NOTE.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

I have the konour to state that, inasmuch as preparations have to be made regarding Articles 2, 3, 4 and 5 of the Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day, the Chinese Government proposes that the operation of the said Articles be postponed for a period of three months beginning from the date of the signing of the said Treaty.

I hope your Government will agree to this proposal.

Signed: LU CHENG-HSIANG,

His Excellency, Hioki Eki, Japanese Minister.

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of this day's date in which you stated that "inasmuch as preparations have to be made regarding Articles 2, 3, 4 and 5 of the Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day, the Chinese Government proposes that the operation of the said Articles be postponed for a period of three months beginning from the date of the signing of the said Treaty."

In reply, I beg to state that I have taken note of the same.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: Hioki Eki.

His Excellency, Lu Cheng-hsiang, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Exchange of Notes respecting the matter of Hanyehping.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre.

I have the honour to state that if in future the Hanyehping Company and the Japanese capitalists agree upon co-operation, the Chinese Government, in view of the intimate relations subsisting between the Japanese capitalists and the said Company, will forthwith give its permission. The Chinese Government further agrees not to confiscate the said Company, nor, without the consent of the Japanese capitalists to convert it into a state enterprise, nor cause it to borrow and use foreign capital other than Japanese.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: LU CHENG-HSIANG,

His Excellency, HIOKI EKI, Japanese Minister.

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's

note of this day's date in which you state:

"If in future the Hanyehping Company and the Japanese capitalists agree upon co-operation, the Chinese Government, in view of the intimate relations subsisting between the Japanese capitalists and the said Company, will forthwith give its permission. The Chinese Government further agrees not to confiscate the said Company, nor, without the consent of the Japanese capitalists to convert it into a state enterprise, nor cause it to borrow and use foreign capital other than Japanese."

In reply, I beg to state that I have taken note of the same.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: HIOKI EKI.

His Excellency, I.U CHENG-HSIANG, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Exchange of Notes Respecting the Fukien Question.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

A report has reached me to the effect that the Chinese Government has the intention of permitting foreign nations to establish, on the coast of Fukien Province, dock-yards, coaling stations for military use, naval bases, or to set up other military establishments; and also of borrowing foreign capital for the purpose of setting up the above-mentioned establishments.

I have the honour to request that Your Excellency will be good enough to give me a reply stating whether or not the Chinese Government really entertains such an intention.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: HIOKI EKI.

His Excellency, Lu Cheng-hsiang. Minister of Foreign Affairs.

REPLY.

Peking, the 25th day of the 5th month of the 4th year of the Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's

note of this day's date which I have noted.

In reply I beg to inform you that the Chinese Government hereby declares that it has given no permission to foreign nations to construct on the coast of Fukien Province, dock-yards, coaling stations for military use, naval bases, or to set up other military establishments; nor does it entertain an intention of borrowing foreign capital for the purpose of setting up the above-mentioned establishments.

I avail, etc.,

Signed: LU CHENG-HSIANG.

His Excellency, Hiori Eki, Japanese Minister.

No. 18

China's declaration of war on Germany and Austria-Hungary, August 14, 1917.

On the 9th day of the 2nd month of this year (February 9, 1917) the Government of the Republic addressed a protest to the German Government against the policy of submarine warfare inaugurated by Germany, which was considered by this Government as contrary to International Law, and imperilling neutral lives and property, and declared therein that in case the protest should be ineffectual this Government would be constrained, much to its regret, to sever diplomatic relations with Germany.

Contrary to our expectations, however, no modification was made in Germany's submarine policy after the lodging of our protest. On the contrary, the number of neutral vessels and belligerent merchantmen destroyed in an arbitrary and illegal manner was daily increasing and the lives of our citizens lost were numerous. Under such circumstances, although we might yet remain indifferent and endure suffering, with the meagre hope of preserving a temporary peace, in so doing, we would never be able to satisfy our people who are devoted to righteousness and sensible to disgrace, nor could we justify ourselves before our sister States which have acted without hesitation in obedience to the dictates of a sense of duty. Both here and in the friendly States, the cause of indignation was the same, and among the people of this country there could be found no difference of opinion. This Government, therefore, being compelled to consider its protest as being ineffectual, notified the German Government on the 14th day of the 3rd month last of the severance of diplomatic relations

and at the same time the events taking place from the beginning up to that time were announced for the general information of the international

public.

What we have desired is peace; what we have respected is International Law; what we have to protect are the lives and property of our own people. As we originally had no other grave causes of enmity against Germany, if the German Government had manifested repentance for the deplorable consequences resulting from its method of warfare, it might have been expected to modify that policy in view of the common indignation of the whole world. That was what we have eagerly desired, and it was the reason why we have felt reluctant to treat Germany as a common enemy. Nevertheless, during the five months following the severance of diplomatic relations, the submarine attacks have continued exactly as before. It is not Germany alone, but Austria-Hungary as well, which has adopted and pursued this policy without abatement. Not only has International Law been thereby violated, but also our part of bringing about a better state is now shattered.

Therefore, it is hereby declared, that a state of war exists between China on the one hand and Germany and Austria-Hungary on the other commencing from ten o'clock of this, the 14th day of the 8th month of

the 6th year of the Republic of China

In consequence thereof, agreements, and conventions, heretofore concluded between China and Germany, and between China and Austria-Hungary, as well as such parts of the international protocols and international agreements as concern only the relations between China and Germany and between China and Austria-Hungary are, in conformity with the Law of Nations and international practice, hereby abrogated. This Government, however, will respect the Hague Conventions and its international agree-

ments respecting the humane conduct of war.

The chief object in our declaration of war is to put an end to the calamities of war and to hasten the restoration of peace. All our citizens will appreciate this to be our aim. Seeing, however, that our people have not yet at the present time recovered from sufferings on account of the recent political disturbances and that calamity again befalls us in the breaking out of the present war, I, the President of this Republic, cannot help having profound sympathy for our people when I take into consideration their further suffering. I would never have resorted to this step which involves fighting for the very existence of our nation, were I not driven to this unavoidable decision.

I cannot bear to think that through us the dignity of International Law should be impaired, or our position in the family of nations should be undermined or the restoration of the peace and happiness of the world should be retarded. Let the people of this entire nation do their utmost in this hour of trial and hardship in order to safeguard and develop the national existence of the Chung Hua Republic, so that we may establish ourselves amidst the family of nations and share with all mankind the prosperity and blessings drawn from our common association. Let this proclamation be published in order that it may be generally known.

SEAL OF THE PRESIDENT.

Peking, the 14th day of the 8th month, the 6th year of the Chung Hua Republic (August 14th 1917.)

Countersigned by:

Tuan Chi-Jui,
Premier and Minister of War.

WANG TA-HSIEH,
Minister of Foreign Affairs.

TANG HUA-LUNG, Minister of Interior. LIANG CHI-CHAO, Minister of Finance.

LIU KUANG-HSIUNG, Minister of Navy.

LING CHANG-MING, Minister of Justice, FAN YUAN-LIEN, Minister of Education.

CHANG KUO-KAN,
Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.

TSAO JU-LIN,
Minister of Communications.

No. 19.

Exchange of Notes between the Chinese Minister at Tokio and the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs respecting the Construction of Tsinan-Shunteh and Kaomi-Hsuchow Railways, September 24th, 1918.

Note from Mr. Tsung Hsiang-Chang to the Japanese Minister for Foreign Affairs.

Tokio, September 24, 1918.

Monsieur le Ministre,

The Chinese Government have decided to obtain loans from Japanese capitalists for the purpose of constructing as soon as possible the railways connecting points as below set forth. Having received an authorization from my Government, I have the honour to communicate the same to your Government.

1° Between Tsinan and Shunteh:

2° Between Kaomi and Hsu-chow.

However, in case the above-mentioned two lines are deemed to be disadvantageous from the point of view of railway enterprise, other suitable lines will be decided upon by consultation.

Should there be no objection to the above propositions it is requested that your Government will proceed forthwith to take the necessary steps to cause Japanese capitalists to agree to enter into negotiations for loans on the same.

A reply to the above communication will be appreciated.

Signed: TSUNG HSIANG-CHANG.

His Excellency, BARON SHIMPEI GOTO, etc.

Baron Goto to the Chinese Minister at Tokio.

Tokio, September 24, 1918.

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of this day's date in which you state that your Government have decided to obtain loans from Japanese capitalists for the purpose of constructing as soon as possible the railways connecting points as below set forth.

(Quotes Items 1-2 as given in the note of the Chinese Minister).

The Imperial Government acknowledge with pleasure the communication of the Chinese Government, and beg to state in reply that they will proceed forthwith to take the necessary steps to cause Japanese capitalists to agree to enter into negotiations for loans on the same.

Signed: SHIMPEI GOTO.

His Excellency, Mr. Tsung Hsiang-chang, etc.

No. 20

Preliminary Contract between China and Japan respecting the Tsinan-Shunteh and Kaomi-Hsuchow Railways, Sept. 24th 1918.

The full text of the preliminary contract for the Tsinan-Shunteh and Kaomi-Hsuchow railways construction loan is as follows:

For the construction of two railways—one from Tsinan in the Province of Shantung to Shunteh in the Province of Chihli, the other from Kaomi

in the Province of Shantung to Hsuchow in the Province of Kiangsu (hereafter called the Two Railways)-the Government of the Republic of China (hereafter called the Government) of the 1st part, and the Japanese Industrial Bank representing the three banks, the Japanese Industrial Bank, the Taiwan Bank, and the Chosen Bank (hereafter called the Banks) of the second part, hereby make the following preliminary contract as a basis for the conclusion of a formal loan contract.

Art. 1.—The Government agrees that to meet all the expenses necessary for the construction of the railway from Tsinan, in the Province of Shantung, to Shunteh, in the Province of Chihli, and that from Kaomi, in the Province of Shantung, to Hsuchow, in the Province of Kiangsu, Banks shall issue Chinese Government Tsinan-Shunteh Railway and Kaomi-Hsuchow Railway Gold Bonds (hereafter called bonds of the two Railways). But to assure the success of the Tsinan-Shunteh and Kaomi-Hsuchow lines, if as a railway enterprise the location of the lines should be found to be not advantageous, the Government may arrange with the Banks to change the location of the lines.

Art. 2.—The Government will soon determine the amount required for the construction and all other necessary expenses, and secure concur-

rence of the Banks therefor.

Art. 3 .- The bonds of the two railways shall expire at the end of 47 years dating from the day of issue. Repayment shall begin from the eleventh year and be made in accordance with a plan of amortization.

Art. 4.—As soon as the formal contract shall have been made, the construction work shall begin so that the railroads may be completed in

a short time.

Art. 5.—The Government pledges the following as security for the repayment of the principal and interest on the bonds of the two railways: all properties now belonging or that will in the future belong to the Tsinan-Shunteh and Kaomi-Hsuchow Railways.

Without the consent of the Banks, the Government shall not pledge away to any other party as security or guarantee any part of the property or its income which at present belongs, or will, in future, belong to the Tsi-

nan-Shunteh and Kaomi-Hsuchow railways.

Art. 6.—The price of issue of the railways bonds, the interest thereon, and the actual amount to be received by the Government shall be agreed upon according to the circumstances at the time of issue always, however. with a view to the best interests of the Government.

Art. 7.—Conditions which have not been provided for in the preceding articles shall be decided between the Government and the Banks in com-

mon accord.

Art. 8.—A formal contract for the Tsinan-Shunteh and Kaomi-Hsuchow Railway loan shall be based on this preliminary contract, and be made within four months from the date of this contract.

Art. 9.—On the conclusion of this preliminary contract, the Banks will advance to the Government 20,000,000 yen in the full amount without

any discount whatsoever.

Art. 10.—The rate of interest on the said advance shall be eight per cent per annum, that is to say, every one hundred yen shall bear a yearly interest of eight yen.

Art. 11.—The said advance shall be paid against the delivery of national treasury notes issued by the Government, according to their actual

value.

Art. 12.—The national treasury notes referred to in the preceding article shall be renewed every six months, and upon each renewal, the interest thereon for the six months shall be paid to the Banks.

Art. 13.—After a formal contract for the Tsinan-Shunteh and Kaomi-Hsuchow railway loan has been made, the Government shall appropriate the proceeds realized from the sale of the above-said bonds in payment, by priority, and without delay, of the advance.

Art. 14.—The payment of the said advance and of the interest thereon, its repayment, and all other transactions connected therewith, shall be

made at Tokio, Japan. This preliminary contract is made in two Japanese copies, and two Chinese copies. The Government and Banks shall each keep one copy of each language. In case of doubt in the interpretation, the Japanese text shall prevail.

The 24th day, 9th month, 7th year of the Republic of China.

Signed: TSUNG HSIANG-CHANG. Chinese Minister.

A. Ono,

Vice-President of Japanese Industrial Bank.

No. 21.

Exchange of Notes between the Chinese Minister at Tokio and the Japanese Minister for Foreign Affairs respecting Adjustment of Questions conerning Shantung, September 24th, 1918.

Note from Baron Goto to the Chinese Minister at Tokio.

Tokio, September 24, 1918.

Monsieur le Ministre,

The Japanese Government, mindful of the amiable relations between cur two countries and out of a spirit of friendly co-operation, propose to adjust all the questions relating to Shantung in accordance with the following Articles:

1. Japanese troops along the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway, except a contingent of them to be stationed at Tsinanfu, shall be withdrawn to Tsing-

2. The Chinese Government may organize a police force to undertake

the policing of the Kiaochao-Tsinan-Railway.

3. The Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway is to provide a reasonable amount to defray the expense for the maintenance of the above-mentioned police force.

4. Japanese are to be employed at the headquarters of the abovementioned police force at the principal railway stations and at the police training school.

5. Chinese citizens shall be employed by the Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway

Administration as part of its staff.

6. The Kiaochao-Tsinan Railway, after its ownership is definitely determined, is to be made a Chino-Japanese joint enterprise.

7. The civil administration established by Japan and existing now is

to be abolished.

The Japanese Government desire to be advised of the attitude of your Government regarding the above-mentioned proposals.

Signed: SHIMPEI GOTO.

His Excellency, Mr. Tsung Hstang-chang, etc.

Mr. Tsung-Hsiang Chang, to the Japanese Minister for Foreign Affairs.

Tokio, September 24, 1918.

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's

note stating:

The Japanese Government, mindful of the amiable relations between cur two countries and out of a spirit of friendly co-operation, propose to adjust all the questions relating to Shantung in accordance with the following Articles.

> (Quotes Items 1-7 as contained in the note of the Japanese Minister for Foreign Affairs).

In reply, I have the honour to state that the Chinese Government are pleased to agree to the above-mentioned Articles proposed by the Japanese

Signed: TSUNG HSIANG-CHANG.

His Excellency, BARON SHIMPEI GOTO, etc.

No. 22.

Exchange of Notes between the Chinese Minister at Tokio and the Japanese Minister for Foreign Affairs for building Four Railroads in Manchuria and Mongolia. September 24th, 1918.

Note from Mr. Tsung Hsiang-Chang to the Japanese Minister for Foreign Affairs.

Tokio, September 24, 1918.

Monsieur le Ministre,

The Chinese Government have decided to obtain loans from Japanese capitalists for the purpose of building as soon as possible the railways connecting the points as below set forth. Having received an authorization from my Government, I have the honour to communicate the same to your Government.

10 Between Kai-yuan, Hailung and Kirin:

2º Between Changchun and Taonan: 3° Between Taonan and Dalny (?).

4° From a point between Taonan and Jehol to some sea port (this

line to be determined in future after an investigation).

Should there be no objection to the above propositions it is requested that your Government will proceed forthwith to take the necessary steps to cause Japanese capitalists to agree to enter into negotiations for loans

A reply to the above communication will be appreciated.

Signed: TSUNG HSIANG-CHANG.

His Excellency, BARON SHIMPEI GOTO, etc.

Baron Goto to the Chinese Minister at Tokio.

Tokio, September 24, 1918.

Monsieur le Ministre.

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note in which you state that your Government have decided to obtain loans from Japanese capitalists for the purpose of constructing as soon as possible the railways connecting points as below set forth.

(Quotes Items 1-4 as contained in the note of the Chinese Minister.) The Imperial Government acknowledge with pleasure the communication of the Chinese Government, and beg to state in reply that they will premptly take the necessary steps to cause Japanese capitalists to agree to enter into negotiations for loans on the same.

Signed: SHIMPEI GOTO.

His Excellency, MR. TSUNG HSIANG-CHANG, etc.

No. 23.

Preliminary Contract for Loans to build Four Railroads in Manchuria and Mongolia, September 28, 1918.

The Chinese Government (hereafter called the Government), for the purpose of building four railroads:
1. from Jehol to Taonan.

2. from Changehun to Taonan,

3. from Kirin via Hailung to Kai-yuan,

4. from a point between Jehol and Taonan to some point on the sea coast (the said four roads to be hereafter mentioned as the 4 roads in Manchuria and Mongolia) and as a preparatory measure for a formal contract, hereby concludes with the syndicate represented by the Japanese Industrial Bank and composed of:

1. The Japanese Industrial Bank.

2. The Taiwan Bank,

3. The Chosen Bank. (hereafter mentioned as the Banks) the following Preliminary Contract. Art. 1.—The Government authorizes the afore-mentioned Japanese Banking Syndicate to issue:

1. Chinese Government Jehol Taonan R. R. Gold Bonds.

2. Chinese Government Changchun-Taonan R. R. Gold Bonds.

3. Chinese Government Kirin-Kai-yuan R. R. Gold Bonds.

4. Chinese Government (name to be determined) R. R. Gold Bonds, (hereafter to be designated as Manchuria-Mongolia 4 Railway Bonds) to cover the constructing expenses of the above-mentioned four R. R.

The Government and the Banks shall conjointly determine the point on the Jehol-Taonan R. R. to be connected to some sea port and the route to be taken by the R. R. connecting said point with said sea port.

Art. 2.—The Government shall determine as soon as possible the constructing and other expenses needed by the Four R. R. and shall obtain the agreement of the Banks in respect thereof.

Art. 3.—The Gold Bonds of the Four R. R. shall expire at the end

of forty years, counting from the date of issue of said bonds.

Beginning with the eleventh year from the date of issue, the repayment of the said bonds shall commence in accordance with a system of amortization.

Art. 4.—When the Formal Contract for the loan to build the Four R. R. is concluded, the Chinese Government shall conjointly with the Banks decide on an engineering programme of construction and construction shall begin with a view to the speedy completion of the said R. R.

Art. 5.—As guarantee for the capital and interest of the Gold Bonds, the Government shall pledge to the Banks the present and future property

and income of the Four R. R.

Unless with the consent of the Banks the Government shall not pledge the above-mentioned property and income as guarantee or security to any

other party.

Art. 6.—The price of issue, the rate of interest and the actual amount to be received by the Government in respect of the Gold Bonds shall be determined in accordance with the conditions at the time of issue of said bonds. always, however, to the best interests of the Government.

Art. 7.—The Government and the Banks shall conjointly decide on

matters not covered by the above articles.

Art. 3.—The present Preliminary Contract shall form the basis for a Formal Contract which shall be concluded within four months from the conclusion of the present Preliminary Contract.

Art. 9.—The Banks, after the conclusion of the Preliminary Contract, shall advance to the Government Yen 20,000,000 to be paid in full and

without discount.

Art. 10.—The interest of the above-mentioned advance shall be eight per cent per annum, to wit, for every one hundred yen there shall be eight yen as annual interest.

Art. 11.—The above mentioned advance shall be paid against the delivery of the National Treasury Notes issued by the Government at their

actual value.

Art. 12.—The said National Treasury Notes shall be renewed every ·

six months, each time with the payment of six months' interest.

Art. 13.—When the Formal Contract for loans to build the Four R. R. is concluded, the advance shall have priority of repayment from the proceeds of the Gold Bonds.

Art. 14.—The payment of both the interest and the advance and other

transactions connected therewith shall take place in Tokio.

Copies of this Preliminary Contract shall be prepared in both the Chinese and Japanese languages, two copies in each language. The Government and the Banks shall each be furnished with two copies one in each language.

In case of disagreement in the interpretation of the Preliminary Con-

tract the Japanese language shall prevail.

Done this Twenty-eighth Day of Ninth Month of the Seventh Year of the Republic of China.

This Twenty-eighth Day of Ninth Month of the Seventh Year of the Reign of Taisho of the Imperial Government of Japan.

TSUNG HSIANG-CHANG,
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary

of the Republic of China to Japan.

A ONO.

Vice-president of the Japanese Industrial Bank.

CHINA AND THE PEACE TREATIES.

The proposals submitted to the Peace Conference at Versailles by China in regard to the direct retrocession of Shantung, and other matters are contained in the documents reproduced from the Chinese Social and Political Science Review. (see pp. 621 sqq.). It is necessary however, to supplement them by several other documents relating to the Peace Negotiations. The proposals submitted by China for inclusion in the Treaty of Peace with Germany (and with slight changes, for the Peace Treaty with Austria) were set forth in the following Memorandum:

PRELIMINARIES OF PEACE.*

I .- Memorandum.

In formulating the provisions herewith presented for insertion in the Preliminaries of Peace with Germany and with Austria-Hungary, the Chinese Government are animated mainly by a desire to have restored to China the territory, rights and property which were originally obtained from her either by intimidation or by actual force, and to remove certain restrictions on her freedom of political and economic development.

An engagement to ratify the International Opium Convention of January, 23, 1912, concluded at the Hague, is asked of Germany, and that to sign and ratify it, of Austria-Hungary, because their refusal to sign or/and ratify it, it will be recalled, was largely responsible for the delay in its execution. Their fulfilment of this obligation will mean the removal of one of the obstacles to the accomplishment of the admirable purpose underlying this important international instrument, a purpose not only consonant with the highest interests of China but conducive to the common welfare of the world.

The Chinese Government hope and trust that the representatives of all the Associated Governments at the Preliminary Peace Conference will give such endorsement and support to the accompanying provisions as will insure their full acceptance respectively by Germany and Austria-Hungary.

II.--Provisions for insertion in the Preliminaries of Peace with Germany. ARTICLES.

I.—Termination of Treaties between China and Germany by War and the Opening of Tsingtao to foreign trade and residence.

II.—New Treaty of Commerce and General Relations to be based upon the principles of Equality and Reciprocity, with Germany relinquishing, that of Most-favoured Nation Treatment.

III.—Withdrawal of Germany from Protocol of September 7, 1901.

IV.—Cession of German Public Property in Chinese Territory.

V.-Compensation for losses of Chinese Government and Nationals.

VI.—Reservation of Right of Claiming War Indemnity.

VII.—Reimbursement of Expenses for Internment and Maintenance of Prisoners of War.

^{*} Millard's Review, July 17, 1920.

VIII.—Restitution of Astronomical Instruments and other Works of Art.

IX.—Engagement to ratify International Opium Convention of January 23, 1912.

I

The state of war between China and Germany having terminated all treaties, conventions, protocols, agreements, contracts and other arrangements between them, consequently all rights, privileges, concessions, immunities and tolerances granted therein, or based thereupon, or accruing therefrom, including notably the leasehold rights of Kiaochao Bay, the Railway and Mining concessions and other rights and options in relation to the Province of Shantung have reverted to China and/or ceased to exist.

The Chinese Government, being desirous of promoting international trade and the principle of equal opportunity for the commerce and industry of all nations in Shantung Province as in other parts of the Republic. intend, as soon as they have regained possession of the leased territory of Kiaochao, to open Tsingtao therein and other suitable places in Shantung Province to foreign trade and residence.

H

Germany engages to adopt the principles of equality and reciprocity as the basis of a new treaty of commerce and general relations to be concluded with China and to relinquish therein on her part the principle of the so-called most-favoured nation treatment; and the said new treaty, when concluded, shall guide all intercourse between the two countries in future.

From the signing of the Preliminaries of Peace until the conclusion and operation of such a treaty, the tariffs, dues and regulations which are or may be applied to the ships and merchandise of non-treaty powers shall be applicable to German ships and the merchandise of German origin or manufacture, it being mutually understood that China may, in accord with the common policy of the Associated Powers, prohibit or restrict resumption of trade relations between China and Germany within the abovementationed period.

III

Germany, considering herself to have withdrawn, on August 14, 1917, from the Protocol of September 7, 1901, including all Annexes as well as all Notes and Documents supplementary thereto, relinquishes to China all the rights, privileges and claims accruing therefrom or acquired thereunder, and waives to China, furthermore, her portion of the indemnity due under the said Protocol for the period between March 14, 1917 and August 14, 1917.

IV

Germany cedes to China all the buildings, wharves, barracks, forts, arms and munitions of war, vessels of all kinds, marine cables, wireless installations and other public property belonging to the German Government which are found in the German concessions in Tientsin and Hankow and in other parts of Chinese territory including that portion of Kiaochao formerly leased to Germany.

It is understood, however, that buildings and establishments used as diplomatic or consular offices or residences are not included in the above act of cession.

Subject to the following paragraph of this Article and reserving the right to revoke this decision in accord with the common policy of the Associated Powers, China consents to restore all private property of German

subjects seized or sequestrated by her on or after the declaration of the existence of a state of war between China and Germany, except where the Chinese Government deems such restoration impossible or incompatible with China's public interests, in either of which cases, she may exercise the right of free disposal and make compensation to the lawful owners.

Germany, however, agrees to China's waithholding all such private property or the proceeds from its sale, pending the satisfaction of the claims of the Chinese Government and nationals referred to in Articles V and VI below; and, after the said claims are satisfied, then in trust for the Powers associated with China in the War, for meeting the claims they or their subjects or citizens may prefer against Germany.

v

Germany agrees to compensate the Chinese Government and nationals for losses they have sustained in consequence of the war.

VI

China reserves her right of preferring a claim against Germany for indemnity of war expenses in accord with the decision of the Preliminary Peace Conference.

VII

Germany engages to pay all the expenses for the internment and maintenance of the prisoners of war and civilians, incurred by the Chinese Government, less the expenses of like nature incurred by the German Government.

VIII

Germany engages to restore to China, within 12 calendar months from the date of signature of the Preliminaries of Peace, all the astronomical instruments and other works of art which her troops removed in 1900-1901 from China without the latter's consent; and defray all expenses which may be incurred in effecting such restoration including the expenses for dismounting, packing, transporting, insurance and installation in Peking

TX

Germany engages to ratify and put in operation, within six months from the date of signature of the Preliminaries of Peace, the International Opium Convention concluded at the Hague, January 23, 1912.

(Similar articles, with slight changes, relating to peace with Austria.)

DOCUMENTS RELATIVE TO THE NEGOTIATIONS BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE ALLIED POWERS.

Japan's contentions in regard to Shantung were fortified by the disclosure at Versailles of the following documents, the existence of which was, it is claimed, unknown to the Governments of China or the United States up to that time.

The British Embassy to the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs.* (February 16th, 1917).

Monsieur le Ministre:

With reference to the subject of our conversation of the 27th ultimo when Your Excellency informed me of the desire of the Imperial Government to receive an assurance that, on the occasion of a Peace Conference, His Britannic Majesty's Government will support the claims of Japan

^{*} These documents are reproduced from Millard's Review, July 17, 1920.

in regard to the disposal of Germany's rights in Shantung and possession in the Islands North of the Equator, I have the honour, under instructions received from His Britannic Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, to communicate to Your Excellency the following mes-

sage from His Britannic Majesty's Government.

His Majesty's Government accedes with pleasure to the request of the Japanese Government for an assurance that they will support Japan's claims in regard to the disposal of Germany's rights in Shantung and possessions in Islands North of Equator on the occasion of the Peace Conference, it being understood that the Japanese Government will in the eventual peace settlement, treat in the same spirit Great Britain's claims to German Islands South of the Equator.

I avail myself of this opportunity, Monsieur le Ministre, to renew to

Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) Conyngham Greene,

H. B. M. Ambassador.

His Excellency

Viscount Ichiro Motono,

H. I. J. M. Minister for Foreign Affairs, etc., etc., etc.

The Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the British Embassy. (February 21st, 1917).

Translation.

Monsieur l'Ambassadeur:

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's Note of the 16th instant, giving assurance that His Britannic Majesty's Government will support the claims to be advanced by the Imperial Government in regard to the disposal of Germany's rights in Shantung and possessions in Islands North of the Equator on the occasion of a Peace Conference.

The Japanese Government are deeply appreciative of the friendly spirit in which your Government have given the assurance, and are happy to note it as a fresh proof of the close ties that unite the two allied Powers. I take pleasure in stating that the Japanese Government, on their part, are fully prepared to support in the same spirit the claims which may be put forward at the Peace Conference by His Britannic Majesty's Government in regard to German possessions in Islands South of the Equator.

I avail myself of this opportunity. Monsieur l'Ambassadeur, to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) ICHIRO MOTONO, ETC., ETC., ETC.

His Excellency

Sir Conyngham Greene, etc., etc., etc.

The Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the Russian and French
Embassies.

(February 19th, 1917).

Translation.

The Imperial Government has not yet formally entered into conversations with the Entente Powers concerning the conditions of peace it proposes to present to Germany, being guided by the thought that such questions ought to be decided in concert between Japan and the said Powers at the moment when the peace negotiations start. Nevertheless, in view of recent developments in the general situation, and in view of the particular arrangements concerning peace conditions, such as arrangements relative to the disposition of the Bosphorous, Constantinople and the Dardanelles, having already been entered into by the Powers interested, the Imperial Government believes that the moment has come for it also to express its desiderata relative to certain conditions of peace essential to Japan and to submit them for the consideration of the Government of Russia (of the French Republic.)

The Government of Russia (of the Republic) is fully aware of all the efforts the Imperial Government has made in a general manner to accomplish its task in the present war, and particularly with a view of guaranteeing for the future the peace of Oriental Asia and of the security of the Japanese Empire, for both of which it is absolutely necessary to deprive Germany of its bases of political, military and economic activity in the

Far East.

Under these conditions the Imperial Government intends to demand from the German Government at the time of peace negotiations the surrender of the territorial rights and special interests Germany possessed before the war in Shantung and in the Islands belonging to her, situated to the North of the Equator in the Pacific Ocean.

The Imperial Government ventures to hope that the Government of Russia (of the French Republic), in view of the legitimacy of these claims, will give the assurance that, whenever the case arises, the Imperial Govern-

ment may count upon its full support on this question.

It goes without saying that reparations for damages caused to the lives and property of the Japanese people by the unjustifiable attacks of the enemy, as well as other conditions of peace of a character common to all the Entente Powers, are entirely outside the consideration of the present question.

The French Embassy to The Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

(March 1st, 1917).

Translation.

The Government of the Republic is disposed to give the Japanese Government its assistance in regulating, at the time of the peace negotiations, questions essential to Japan concerning Shantung and the German Islands in the Pacific situated in the North of the Equator. It also agrees to support the demands of the Imperial Government for the surrender of the rights Germany possessed before the war in this Chinese province and the Islands.

M. Briand requests, on the other hand, that the Japanese Government give its support to obtain from China the rupture of its diplomatic relations with Germany, and that she push this act to a desirable extent. The consequences of this, according to him, would be:—

1. The handing over of passports to the German diplomatic and consular agents.

2. The obligation of all German nationals to leave Chinese territory.

3. The internment of German ships having sought refuge in Chinese ports and the ultimate requisition of these ships in order to place them at the disposition of the Allies following the example of Italy and Portugal. From the advices which reached the French Government, there are fifteen German ships in Chinese ports totalling about 40,000 tons.

4. The sequestration of German commercial houses established in

China.

5. The forfeiture of the rights of Germany in the concessions she possessed in certain ports.

The Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs to The French Embassy.

(March 6th, 1917).

Translation.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs has the honour to acknowledge the receipt of the Note of the French Embassy, under the date of March 1st, 1917, informing that the French Government is disposed to give the Imperial Government its assistance in regulating, at the time of the peace negotiations, questions essential to Japan concerning Shantung and the German Islands in the Pacific, situated to the North of the Equator, and that it agrees to support the demands of the Imperial government for the surrender of the rights Germany possessed before the war in Shantung and in the aforesaid Islands.

The Imperial Government takes note of this communication with profound gratitude for the friendly sentiment which inspired the French Government in giving its full assent to the desiderata of the Imperial Government.

The aforesaid Note equally set forth the desire of His Excellency, M. Briand, of ensuring the support of the Imperial Government with a view to obtaining from China the rupture of her diplomatic relations with Germany, to its full, desirable extent. Concerning this question, the Imperial Government, as the French Government was constantly kept informed did not fail to make all efforts from the beginning, consequently, the Imperial Government has hereby only to confirm its intention of giving its entire support to the desire expressed by M. Briand, in accord with a view to bringing about the consequences enumerated in the abovernmentioned Note.

The Russian Embassy to The Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

(February 20th/March 5th, 1917).

Translation.

In reply to the Note of the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs, under the date of February 19th last, the Russian Embassy is charged with giving the Japanese Government the assurance that it can entirely count on the support of the Imperial Government of Russia with regard to its desiderata concerning the eventual surrender to Japan of the rights belonging to Germany in Shantung and of the German Islands, occupied by the Japanese forces, in the Pacific Ocean to the North of the Equator.

The Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs to The Russian Embassy.

(March 8th, 1917)

Translation.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs has the honour to acknowledge the receipt of the Note of the Russian Embassy, under the date of March 5th 1917, in reply to the Note of the Ministry under the date of February 19th of the same year.

In the said Note, the Russian Embassy was good enough to declare that it was charged with giving the Japanese Government the assurance that it could entirely count upon the support of the Russian Government with regard to its desiderata concerning the eventual surrender to Japan of the rights belonging to Germany in Shantung and of the German Islands in the Pacific, situated to the North of the Equator.

The Japanese Government takes note of this communication with profound gratitude for the sentiment which inspired the Russian Government in giving its full assent to the desiderata of the Japanese Government

The Japanese Embassy to the Italian Government.

(March 23rd, 1917).

Translation.

The Imperial Japanese Government intends to demand from the German Government, at the negotiations to peace, the surrender of the territorial rights and special interests which Germany possessed, before the war, in Shantung and in the German Islands in the Pacific, situated north of the Equator.

In view of the present phase of events, the Imperial Government believed itself bound to ensure forthwith the entire support of the English, French and Russian governments, in case the foregoing claims should be

presented to Germany at the peace negotiations.

In bringing to the knowledge of the Royal Government of Italy as a very confidential information that an arrangement has recently been entered into between the Imperial Government of one part and the British, French and Russian Governments of the other part, relating to the foregoing, the Imperial Government has the firmest conviction that the Royal Government of Italy, being inspired by the sentiments of friendship which animate the two countries, and considering the necessity of mutual assistance for the triumph of the common cause in the present war, will be good enough to welcome with satisfaction the conclusion of the above-mentioned arrangement.

Italy's Reply to the Note of the Japanese Embassy. (March 23rd, 1917).

Upon reading the foregoing Memorandum, the Italian Minister for Foreign Affairs said to the Japanese Ambassador that the Italian Government had no objection regarding the matter.

CHINA DECLINES TO SIGN PEACE TREATY WITHOUT RESERVATIONS.

The following documents* reveal the attitude of the Chinese Delegation both on the date when the decision of the Great Powers regarding the Shantung question was announced, and on the day when the Versailles Treaty was signed by the Peace Delegates:

Delegation Chinoise au Congres de la Paix. (May 26th, 1919).

Mr. President:

The Council of Prime Ministers having announced on April 30th their conclusion in respect of the question of the disposal of German rights in the Chinese Province of Shantung, I, in behalf of the Chinese Delegation, addressed to the Council a formal protest against it on May 4th. Subsequently at the Plenary Session of the Preliminary Peace Conference on May 6th when a summary of the Conditions of Peace with Germany was read, I made a reservation on the clauses relating to the disposal of German rights in Kiaochao-Shantung, which appeared to be based exclusively upon the Council's conclusion.

In the evening of May 7th, after the German Plenipotentiaries had been handed the full text of the "Conditions of Peace," the Chinese Delegation received a copy of the text from the Conference. Examination of Articles 156, 157, and 158, which deal with the Kiaochao-Shantung question, makes China's disappointment all the more poignant. Not only no pro-

^{*} Reproduced from Millard's Review, July 17, 1920.

vision is made therein for safeguarding the rights of China as the territorial sovereign over the entire Province of Shantung and insuring the welfare of the millions of Chinese people who have inhabited it from time immemorial, but the said three Articles are also couched in such language as unmistakably to convey the painful impression to the Chinese people, who yield to none in their love for their fatherland, that the transfer of all the rights, title and privileges provided therein while nominally asked of Germany, is in reality to be made only at the expense of a loyal partner in the war on the side of the Allied and Associated Powers.

The announcement of the Council's conclusion on the Kiaochao-Shantung question has caused a nation-wide disappointment in China and evoked voices of protest from the Chinese people everywhere. The Chinese Delegation have received messages from the Parliament, the Provincial Legislatures, the Chambers of Commerce, Educational and Agricultural Associations, and other important organizations both in China and abroad, urging the Chinese Delegates not to sign the Treaty of Peace with Ger-

many.

In view of this unmistakable indication of the views of the Chinese people, the Chinese Government have little choice as to the course open to them to take vis- \acute{a} -vis the Treaty of Peace with Germany; but sincerely desirous to avoid, if possible, any step capable of being construed as marring the unity of purpose of the Allied and Associated Powers in restoring peace to the world as in prosecuting the war against Germany, they have decided to sign the treaty of Peace with Germany under the reservation already made at the Plenary Session held on May 6th, in respect of the clauses relating to the transfer of German rights in Shantung. In coming to this decision, the Chinese Government desire to assure you, however, that their objection is not to the renunciation by Germany of her rights, title, and privileges in Shantung, but solely to such renunciation being made in favour of Japan, to the prejudice of China's sovereign rights.

Pursuant to instructions from my Government, I have the honour, therefore to inform you that the Chinese Plenipotentiaries will sign for the Republic of China the Treaty of Peace with Germany under the reservation made and recorded in the Minutes of the proceedings of the Plenary Session of the Preliminary Peace Conference on May 6, 1919.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you, Sir, the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) LU CHENG-HSIANG,

Son Excellence Monsieur Clemenceau. President of Peace Conference.

PEACE CONFERENCE SECRETARIAT GENERAL

QUAI D'ORSAY. Paris, June 28, 1919, 11.45 a.m.

The Secretariat General of the Peace Conference has the honour to deliver herewith to His Excellency the Chinese Minister the two notes which he was good enough to deliver this morning. In returning them, it is intended to permit the Chinese Delegates to sign the treaty in the session of this afternoon, if it thinks it ought to do so without any reservation, as was indicated to the Chinese Delegation upon instructions from the Supreme Council.

His Excellency
The Chinese Minister
Paris

Delegation Chinoise.

Pursuant to instructions from its Government, the Chinese Delegation notified you by letter of May 26, 1919, that the Chinese Plenipotentiaries would sign for the Republic of China the Treaty of Peace with Germany under the reservation made by the Chinese Delegation and recorded in the Protocol of the Plenary Session of the Preliminary Peace Conference on May 6, 1919, relating to Articles 156, 157 and 158 in the said Treaty relating

to the Chinese Province of Shantung.

The Supreme Council of the Conference having ruled to admit no reservation of any kind, either in or outside the text of the Treaty, and having declined to accept before the signing of the Treaty every compromise compatible with their sense of right and justice, even a declaration to the effect that the signature of the Chinese Plenipotentiaries was not to be understood as precluding China from demanding at a suitable moment the reconsideration of the Shantung question, the undersigned, Plenipotentiaries of the Republic of China, beg to inform you that they do not feel warranted to sign the Treaty at Versailles to-day. They are communicating the latest decision of the Supreme Council to their Government and meanwhile beg hereby to reserve, in the name and on behalf of their Government, the right of the Republic of China to take a final decision vis-à_vis the Treaty of Peace with Germany.

(Signed) Lu Cheng-HSIANG, Chengting Thomas Wang.

2.30 p.m. June 28, 1918.

To His Excellency Georges Clemenceau, President of the Peace Conference, Versailles.

Reservation.

In proceeding to sign the Treaty of Peace with Germany to-day, the undersigned, Plenipotentiaries of the Republic of China, considering as unjust articles 156, 157 and 158 therein which purport to transfer the German rights in the Chinese Province of Shantung to Japan instead of restoring them to China, the rightful severeign over the territory and a loyal co-partner in the war on the side of the Allied and Associated Powers, hereby declare, in the name and on behalf of their Government, that their signing of the Treaty is not to be understood as precluding China from demanding at a suitable time the reconsideration of the Shantung question, to the end that the injustice to China may be rectified in the interest of permanent peace in the Far East.

(Signed) Lu Cheng-hsiang, Chengting Thomas Wang.

Paris, June 28, 1919.

To His Excellency Georges Clemenceau,

President of the Peace Conference.

EXTRACTS FROM THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES.

The Clauses relating specifically to China in the Treaty of Versailles (which China neither signed nor ratified), were the following.

SECTION II. CHINA. ARTICLE 128.

Germany renounces in favour of China all benefits and privileges resulting from the provisions of the final Protocol signed at Peking on Septem-

ber 7, 1901, and from all annexes, notes and documents supplementary thereto. She likewise renounces in favour of China any claim to indemnities accruing thereunder subsequent to March 14, 1917.

ARTICLE. 129.

From the coming into force of the present Treaty the High Contracting Parties shall apply, in so far as concerns them respectively:

(1) The Arrangement of August 29, 1902, regarding the new Chinese

customs tariff;

(2) The Arrangement of September 27, 1905, regarding the Whang-Poo,

and the provisional supplementary Arrangement of April 4, 1912.

China, however, will no longer be bound to grant to Germany the advantages or privileges which she allowed Germany under these Arrangements.

ARTICLE 130.

Subject to the provisions of Section VIII of this Part, Germany cedes to China all the buildings, wharves and pontoons, barracks, forts, arms and munitions of war, vessels of all kinds, wireless telegraphy installations and other public property belonging to the German Government, which are situated or may be in the German Concessions at Tientsin and Hankow or elsewhere in Chinese territory.

It is understood, however, that premises used as diplomatic or consular residences or offices are not included in the above cession, and, furthermore, that no steps shall be taken by the Chinese Government to dispose of the German public and private property situated within the so-called Legation Quarter at Peking without the consent of the Diplomatic Representatives of the Powers which, on the coming into force of the present Treaty, remain Parties to the Final Protocol of September 7, 1901.

ARTICLE 131.

Germany undertakes to restore to China within twelve months from the coming into force of the present Treaty all the astronomical instruments which her troops in 1900-1901 carried away from China, and to defray all expenses which may be incurred in effecting such restoration, including the expenses of dismounting, packing, transporting, insurance and installation in Peking.

ARTICLE 132.

Germany agrees to the abrogation of the leases from the Chinese Government under which the German Concessions at Hankow and Tientsin are now held.

China, restored to the full exercise of her sovereign rights in the above areas, declares her intention of opening them to international residence and trade. She further declares that the abrogation of the leases under which these concessions are now held shall not affect the property rights of nationals of Allied and Associated Powers who are holders of lots in these concessions.

ARTICLE 133.

Germany waives all claims against the Chinese Government or against any Allied or Associated Government arising out of the internment of German nationals in China and their repatriation. She equally renounces all claims arising out of the capture and condemnation of German ships in China, or the liquidation, sequestration or control of German properties, rights and interests in that country since August 14, 1917. This provision, however, shall not affect the rights of the parties interested in the proceeds of any such liquidation, which shall be governed by the provisions of Part X (Economic Clauses) of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE 134.

Germany renounces in favour of the Government of His Britannic Majesty the German State property in the British Concession at Shameen at Canton. She renounces in favour of the French and Chinese Governments conjointly the property of the German school situated in the French Concession at Shanghai.

SECTION VIII.
SHANTUNG.
ARTICLE 156.

Germany renounces, in favour of Japan, all her rights, title and privileges—particularly those concerning the territory of Kiaochao, railways, mines and submarine cables—which she acquired in virtue of the Treaty concluded by her with China on March 6, 1898, and of all other arrangements relative to the Province of Shantung.

All German rights in the Tsingtao-Tsinanfu Railway, including its branch lines, together with its subsidiary property of all kinds, stations, shops, fixed and rolling stock, mines, plant and material for the exploitation of the mines, are and remain acquired by Japan, together with all rights

and privileges attaching thereto.

The German State submarine cables from Tsingtao to Shanghai and from Tsingtao to Chefoo, with all the rights, privileges and properties attaching thereto, are similarly acquired by Japan, free and clear of all charge and incumbrances.

ARTICLE 157.

The movable and immovable property owned by the German State in the territory of Kiaochao, as well as all the rights which Germany might claim in consequence of the works or improvements made or of the expenses incurred by her, directly or indirectly, in connection with this territory, are and remain acquired by Japan, free and clear of all charges and incumbrances.

ARTICLE 158.

Germany shall hand over to Japan within three months from the coming into force of the present Treaty the archives, registers, plans, title-deeds and documents of every kind, wherever they may be, relating to the administration, whether civil, military, financial, judicial or other, of the territory of Kiaochao.

Within the same period Germany shall give particulars to Japan of all treaties, arrangements or agreements relating to the rights, title or privileges referred to in the two preceding articles.

EXTRACTS FROM THE TREATY OF ST. GERMAINS.

The clauses relating specifically to China in the Treaty of St. Germains, were the following.

SECTION IV. CHINA. ARTICLE 113.

Austria renounces, so far as she is concerned, in favour of China all benefits and privileges resulting from the provisions of the final protocol signed at Peking on Sept. 7, 1901, and from all annexes, notes and documents supplementary thereto. She likewise renounces in favour of China any claim to indemnities accruing thereunder subsequently to Aug. 14, 1917.

ARTICLE 114.

From the coming into force of the present treaty the high contracting parties shall apply, in so far as concerns them respectively:

(1) The arrangement of August 29, 1902, regarding the new Chinese

customs tariff;

(2) The arrangement of September 27, 1905, regarding Whang-Poo, and

the provisional supplementary arrangement of April 4, 1912.

China, however, will not be bound to grant to Austria the advantages or privileges which she allowed to the former Austro-Hungarian monarchy under these arrangements.

ARTICLE 115.

Austria, so far as she is concerned, cedes to China all her rights over the buildings, wharves and pontoons, barracks, forts, arms and munitions of war, vessels of all kinds, wireless telegraphy installations and other public property which belonged to the former Austro-Hungarian monarchy, and which are situated or may be in the Austro-Hungarian concession at Tientsin or elsewhere in Chinese territory.

It is understood, however, that premises used as diplomatic or consular residences or offices, as well as the effects and furniture contained therein, are not included in the above cession, and, furthermore, that no steps shall be taken by the Chinese Government to dispose of the public and private property belonging to the former Austro-Hungarian monarchy situated within the so-called legation quarter at Peking without the consent of the diplomatic representatives of the Powers which, on the coming into force of the present treaty, remain parties to the final protocol of Sept. 7, 1991.

ARTICLE 116.

Austria agrees so fas as she is concerned to the abrogation of the leases from the Chinese Government under which the Austro-Hungarian Concession at Tientsin is now held.

China, restored to the full exercise of her sovereign rights in the above area, declares her intention of opening it to international residence and trade. She further declares that the abrogation of the leases under which the said concession is now held shall not affect the property rights of nationals of allied and associated powers who are holders of lots in this Concession.

ARTICLE 117.

Austria waives all claims against the Chinese Government or against any Allied or Associated Government arising out of the internment of Austrian nationals in China and their repatriation. She equally renounces, so far as she is concerned, all claims arising out of capture and condemnation of Austro-Hungarian ships in China, or the liquidation, sequestration or control of Austrian properties, rights and interests in that country since August 14, 1917. This provision, however, shall not affect the rights of the parties interested in the proceeds of any such liquidation, which shall be governed by the provisions of Part X. (Economic Clauses) of the present Treaty.

The Chinese Delegation signed, and the Chinese Government duly ratified, the Treaty with Austria, and China thus became a member of the League of Nations.

THE OFFICIAL STATUS OF THE SHANTUNG QUESTION.

STATEMENT ISSUED BY THE JAPANESE MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, TOKIO, JUNE 15, 1920.

When the Treaty of Peace with Germany became effective in January, 1920, and the German rights and interests in Shantung passed into the possession of Japan by virtue of the provisions of that treaty, the Japanese

government, with the intention, in pursuance of their repeated declarations and pledges, of effecting the restoration of Kiaochao to China, and to make the necessary incidental arrangements, instructed the Japanese Minister

in Peking to inform the Chinese government:

(1) that the Japanese government desired to open negotiations with the Chinese government with regard to the restoration of Kiaochao to China and the settlement of the various details arising in connection with the matter, in order to arrive in this manner at a speedy solution of the entire question, and that they hoped the Chinese government would make the

necessary preparations for that purpose;

(2) that as regards the Japanese troops stationed along the Shantung Railway, not only was it the intention of the Japanese government to withdraw them, as a matter of course, upon an agreement being arrived at between the two governments as to the restoration of Kiaochao, but they were also prepared to effect the withdrawal as speedily as possible even before any such agreement was entered into;—that, in the absence of any torce, however, to assume the duty of protecting the railway after evacuation, they were constrained to keep those troops stationed there for the time being in order to insure the security of communications and to safeguard the interests of Japan, and of China who is equally interested in the railway as a co-partner in the joint enterprise:—that they accordingly hoped that the Chinese government, appreciating the intentions of the Japanese government in this matter, would, with despatch, organize a police force to take the place of the Japanese troops in guarding the railway, in order that these Japanese troops might be withdrawn even before an agreement was reached on the main question of Shantung.

The foregoing was officially published on January 24 of this year, and the Japanese government made preparations to begin negotiations at any time, but three months passed without their receiving any reply from the

Chinese government.

It is a source of the deepest regret to the Japanese government that, at a time when all the nations of the world are putting forward their best efforts for the establishment of an enduring peace, questions such as this should remain unsettled between Japan and China. The Japanese government have been informed that the Japanese charge d'affaires in Berlin has received from the German government the various documents specified in Art. 158 of the Peace Treaty. Consequently the Japanese government, being all the more desirous of arriving at a speedy settlement of the matter for the mutual benefit of the two nations, again on April 26 instructed the Japanese minister in Peking to request the Chinese government to take forthwith the necessary steps, of which the adoption was urged in their previous communication.

It was not until May 22 that the Chinese government sent a reply in

the following sense:-

"The Chinese government have noted that it is the intention of the Japanese government, now that the Treaty of Peace has come into force, to restore Kiaochao to China and to prepare for the withdrawal of the troops from along the Kiaochao-Tsinanfu Railway. China, however, has not signed the Treaty of Peace with Germany, and is not therefore in a position to negotiate directly with Japan on the question of Tsingtao on the basis of that Treaty. Furthermore, as the Japanese minister at Peking is very well aware, the whole people of China have assumed a strongly antagonistic attitude in regard to the question in hand. For these two reasons, and because of the importance they attach to amity between Japan and China, the Chinese government naturally felt it inconvenient to make a reply at the time. On the other hand, the Japanese military establishments within and without the leased territory of Kiaochao have been rendered unnecessary, and as it is the hearty desire of the people and government of China to have the conditions along the Shantung Railway restored to the pre-war footing, the Chinese government proposes to form at an early date a proper organization to take the place of the Japanese troops in guarding the whole line. However, this proposition has nothing

to do with the settlement of the question of Kiaochao and the Chinese government trust that the Japanese government will not delay the withdrawal of the troops on account of that question."

Upon receipt of this reply, the Japanese government addressed the following note to the Chinese government, urging reconsideration of the

position taken by them :-

"In their memorandum, the Chinese government state that, attaching as they do great importance to amity between Japan and China, they do not find themselves in a position promptly to meet the request of the Japanese government for opening direct negotiations on the Shantung question for the reason that they have not signed the treaty with Germany and because of the strong attitude of antagonism on the part of the whole Chinese people on this question.

"In view of the existence of a formal agreement between the two governments as to the fundamental principle governing the settlement of the question under discussion, and in view, further, of the fact that the repeated declarations of the Japanese government leave no room for doubt as to the singleness of purpose with which Japan seeks a fair and just settlement of the question at the earliest possible date, the Japanese government fail to see the force of the argument advanced in the Chinese mem-

orandum.

"It is a positive fact that all the rights and interests which Germany formerly possessed in Shantung by virtue of a treaty with China have been transferred to Japan in accordance with the Treaty of Peace. The Chinese government having, in the above-mentioned formal agreement with Japan, pledged themselves beforehand to acknowledge and consent to this transfer, these rights and interests have of right come into the possession of Japan, irrespective of whether or not the Chinese government have signed the Peace Treaty with Germany.

"Immediately upon the coming into force of the Treaty of Peace, therefore, the Japanese government, in accordance with their repeated declaration and with agreements entered into, proposed to the Chinese government to open negotiations with a view to restore to China such of the rights and interests in Shantung as were to be restored, and to confirm in this connection such matters as required confirmation. The Japanese government were confident at the time that the Chinese government would respond readily to the proposal, and that they would not hesitate to open the path for the Japanese government to demonstrate in a concrete way their attitude of fairness and justice towards China. Contrary to these expectations, however, the Chinese government, after a delay of several months, have returned a reply that they do not find it advisable to open negotiations, giving as their reason the abstention of China from signing the Treaty of Peace and the antagonism of the Chinese people.

"This attitude on the part of the Chinese government prevents the Japanese government from realizing their sincere desire to carry out, with the utmost good faith, their treaty obligations, and to fulfill their expressed pledges. It need hardly be pointed out with whom rests the responsibility for delaying the settlement of the questions arising with regard to Shantung. The Japanese government, however, holding in high regard, as they have always done, amity and good neighbourhood with China, hereby repeat the declaration that they are ready to negotiate on this question at any time the Chinese government may deem convenient. The Japanese government do not believe it to be the desire of the Chinese government to be held responsible for the delay in the eyes of the world, and it is in this belief that they sincerely urge the Chinese government to reconsider the matter.

"As to the railway guard in Shantung, it is the intention of the Japanese government, as stated in their note of January 19, 1920, to withdraw the Japanese troops, even before the conclusion of negotiations regarding Shantung, as soon as a Chinese police force is organized to guard the railway. "The Japanese government, feeling confident that the Shantung rail-

way police guard will be organized in accordance with the promise of the

Chinese government and the understanding reached between Japan and the Powers at the Paris Conference, are prepared to withdraw the troops as soon as such police organization shall have been completed by the Chinese government and the Chinese and Japanese officials concerned shall have settled the procedure of transferring the duty of guarding the railway.

"Reference has been made in the Chinese memorandum to the military establishments in and around the Leased Territory of Kiaochao. It is with the desire to settle definitely, inter alia, the disposition of these establishments that the Japanese government seek to commence negotiations with China. It need hardly be pointed out that the question of this nature, constituting as it does only one item out of many questions calling for discussion and settlement, would naturally find its solution when the Chinese government proceed to negotiate, and a settlement of the Shantung question as a whole is reached."

While it is a source of the deepest regret to the Japanese government that the existing understandings concerning the subject under review cannot at once be carried out, they remain none the less unchanged in their sincere desire to effect a fair and amicable settlement of this question with the least possible delay, and are prepared to make further efforts towards the realization of that fixed policy.

QUESTIONS FOR READJUSTMENT SUBMITTED BY CHINA TO THE PEACE CONFERENCE.

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INTRODUCTORY.

Since the beginning of the present century, and especially since the Revolution of 1911 which resulted in establishing a Republican Régime in place of the old imperial autocracy, China has made remarkable progress in the political as well as in the administrative and economic fields.

Her free development has, however, been greatly retarded by a number of hindrances of international nature. Of these hindrances, some are the legacies of the past due to circumstances which do not exist now, while others arise from recent abuses which are not justifiable in equity nor in law. Their maintenance would perpetuate the causes of difficulties, frictions and discords. As the Peace Conference seeks to base the structure of a new world upon the principles of justice, equality and respect for the sovereignty of nations, as embodied in President Wilson's Fourteen Points and accepted by all the Allied and Associated Powers, its work would remain incomplete if it should allow the germs of future conflicts to subsist in the Far East.

The Chinese Delegation have, therefore, the honour to submit the present memorandum dealing with questions which require readjustment so that all hindrances to China's free development be removed in conformity with the principles of territorial integrity, political independence and economic autonomy which appertain to every sovereign State.

RENUNCIATION OF THE SPHERES OF INFLUENCE OR INTEREST.

The Chinese Government, in their desire to expedite China's economic development, has sought to extend to all nations alike the opportunities for trade and investment which China offers by reason of her large population and rich resources. In this effort they have encountered obstacles in the so-called spheres of influence or interest claimed by certain Powers having interests in China The idea underlying the claims seems to be that within the sphere of influence or interest the Power claiming it should be entitled to enjoy reserved territorial advantages or preferential or exclusive rights and privileges of trade and investment.

It was Germany who first claimed a sphere of influence or interest over the Province of Shantung, and later other Powers, apparently out of a desire to maintain the balance of power in the Far East, advanced similar

claims in regard to other parts of the territory of China.

The claims of foreign Powers for spheres of influence or interest in China are either based upon agreements between themselves to which China is not a party, such as the Agreement of September 2, 1898, relating to railway construction, concluded between British and German banking groups and sanctioned by their respective Governments, and the Anglo-Russian Convention of April 28, 1899, concerning their respective railway interests in China; or based upon treaties or agreements made with China under circumstances precluding the free exercise of her will, such as the so-called non-alienation agreements made during the period known as that of the battle for Concessions, the Convention with Germany for the lease of Kiaochao of March 6, 1898, and the Treaties and Notes of May 25, 1915, made with Japan in consequence of the latter's twenty-one demands on China.

The policy of claiming spheres of influence or interest in China appears unjustifiable for several reasons. In the first place, it hampers rather than helps China's economic development. It appears to be conceived to serve the interests of none but those of the Power in whose favour the claim is advanced. It looks upon a particular province or provinces of China as a preserve for exclusive exploitation by its own citizens or subjects without regard to the economic needs of the Chinese people. It restricts the natural flow of surplus capital, denies the freedom of selection in the purchase of materials and in the employment of technical experts, and seeks to check the operation of the principle of supply and demand. There have been several instances of one nation or another who was unable itself to supply the necessary capital or the proper men for a particular enterprise in a region it claims for its sphere of influence or interest and yet refused to allow the enterprise either to be financed or carried out by other nations who could supply both the money and the men.

In the second place, it prejudices the common interests of other nations, vitiating the principle of equal opportunity for the commerce and industry of all nations. Instead of sharing the advantages and opportunities with other Powers on a footing of equality, that Power which claims a sphere of influence or interest over a given region and enjoys exclusive or preferential rights and privileges therein whether for building railroads, opening mines or financing other industrial enterprises, usually gains an economic ascendency and gradually gathers in its hands all the elements

for economic domination over that region.

But a graver objection to the claims for spheres of influence or interest lies in the fact that the claim of one nation always leads to similar claims by other nations ever other parts of China's territory. Insistence on the claims for spheres of influence or interest in China can only lead, in the ultimate result, not to a unified and co-ordinated process of economic development of the whole of China, but rather to the building-up within her domain of a number of rival economic areas, threatening her territorial integrity and political independence as well as giving rise to international jealousy and friction and thereby jeopardizing the peace of the Far East. The true interests of the world as well as the national welfare of China appear to call for the renunciation by the Powers concerned of their claims for spheres of influence or interest in China, spheres which constitute veritable "economic barriers" to the application of the generally accepted principle of equal opportunity for the commerce and industry of all nations, and which tend to foster "economic antagonisms" most susceptible to transformation into elements of serious international discord.

In view of the foregoing considerations, the Chinese Government hope that the interested Powers will, out of their sincere regard for the sovereign rights of China and the common interests of all nations having trade relations with ker, make a declaration, each for itself, to the effect that they have not any sphere of influence or interest in the Republic of China, nor intend to claim any; and that they are prepared to undertake a revision of such treaties, agreements, notes or contracts previously concluded with

ner as have conferred or may be constructed to have conferred, on them, respectively, reserved territorial advantages or preferential rights or privileges to create spheres of influence or interest impairing the sovereign rights of China.

WITHDRAWAL OF FOREIGN TROOPS AND POLICE.

The presence of foreign troops and police in Chinese territory other than those in the leased territories and in the foreign settlements and concessions, which have been dealt with in the memorandum on these two subjects, has been a matter of increasing concern to the Chinese Government. To present the situation clearly, it is desirable to discuss the question under two separate headings.

I. FOREIGN TROOPS IN CHINA.

A. ORIGIN OF THEIR PRESENCE.

They are of two classes: (1) those who remain in China under the

sanction of treaty and (2) those whose presence is unwarranted.
(1) In their note of December 22. 1900, communicating to the Chinese Government the peace terms consequent on the Boxer Uprising, the foreign Powers demanded, among other things, "the right of each Power to maintain a permanent guard in the quarter for the defence of its Legation." This right was granted in China's reply of January 16, 1901, and confirmed in the final Protocol of September 7, 1901. In the same instrument there was granted to the Pewers, signatories thereof, "the right of occupying certain points to be determined by agreement between them for keeping the communication free between the Capital and the sea." For this purpose a number of points along the Peking-Mukden Railway were specified for occupation by foreign troops. All the foreign Powers, signatories of the Protocol of 1901, except Spain, have stationed troops at one or more of these points, these Powers being Austria-Hungary, Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Italy, Japan, Russia and the United States The total number of these foreign troops fluctuated before While the troops of some of the Powers were the war around 9,000. withdrawn after the outbreak of the War in 1914, and while the German and Austrian troops were interned by China on the rupture of diplomatic relations with the Central Powers, those of the other Powers still remain.

(2) Foreign troops are present also in several other places in China, and these, unlike the Legation guards and the troops stationed along the Peking-Mukden Railway, remain on Chinese soil, not by sanction of treaty, but against the repeated protests of the Chinese Government.

(a) In Manchuria there are stationed Japanese and Russian troops. While the Chinese Eastern Railway Agreement of 1896 between China and the Russo-Chinese Bank provided in Article V that the Chinese Government "will take measures for the protection of the line and the men employed thereon," the Russian Government, in its subsequent charter to the Chinese Eastern Railway Company, stated that "the preservation of law and order on the lands assigned to the Railway and its appurtenances shall be confided to police agents appointed by the Company," and that "the Company shall for this purpose draw up and establish police regulations." Under these provisions, railway guards were maintained by the Company. In the course of constructing the line, however, Russia despatched troops to Manchuria, on the pretext of protecting the railway. The outbreak of Boxers in Northern China gave her occasion to increase her military forces in Manchuria. Her troops occupied Newchwang, Mukden and all the important points along the Chinese Eastern Railways. Although by her agreement of April 8, 1902, with China, Russia undertook to effect a complete withdrawal of all her troops within a stipulated period, she refused to carry out her undertaking fully. Instead she merely moved her troops into the territory occupied by the Railway Company and in addition occupied ports at the mouth of the Liao River and the towns of Fenghwangcheng and Antung. Then followed the fruitless Russo-Japanese negotiations, followed in turn by the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War, which

was fought on the soil of Manchuria.

By the Treaty of Portsmouth concluding the war, Russia transferred to Japan the railway from Port Arthur to Changchun. Although in Article III of the Treaty Japan and Russia mutually engaged to evacuate Manchuria completely and simultaneously except the leased territory of Liaotung Peninsula, the contracting parties, in an additional article reserved "to themselves the right to maintain guards to protect their respective railway lines in Manchuria," the number of such guards not to "exceed fifteen per kilometer, and within that maximum number the commanders of the Japanese and Russian Armies" to fix, by common accord, "the number of such guards to be employed as small as possible while having in view the actual requirements." Thus the Japanese troops and guards came to be stationed along the now called South Manchurian Railway.

While China by the Agreement of December 22, 1905 with Japan, agreed to the transfer from Russia to Japan of the leasehold rights, railway privileges and mining concessions which Russia had enjoyed before the Russo-Japanese War, the provisions of the said additional article relating to the stationing of railway guards, were not assented to by China.

On the contrary, in Article II of the Agreement China expressed an earnest desire "to have the Japanese and Russian troops and railway guards in Manchuria withdrawn as soon as possible," and the Japanese Government, "in the event of Russia agreeing to the withdrawal of her railway guards, or in case other proper measures are agreed to between China and Russia, consent to take similar steps accordingly." These railway guards have not been withdrawn. While the Chinese troops have, since the outbreak of political disturbance in Russia, taken the place of the Russian guards in the protection of the Chinese Eastern Railway and the line from Harbin to Changchun, the Japanese railway guards along the South Manchurian Railway and the railway from Mukden to Antung still remain.

(b) Since 1909 the Japanese Government have stationed some troops at their Consulates in such places as Liutowkow in the Province of Fengtien and Yenki in the Province of Kirin, and beginning with 1911 the Russians, following the Japanese precedent, also put military guards at

their Consulates at such places as Kirin and Yenki.

(c) On the outbreak of the Revolution in China in the autumn of 1911, Japan despatched a battalion of about 600 men to Hankow, 800 miles up the Yangtze River, on the ground of protecting Japanese residents in that city. These have been stationed quite outside of the treaty port limits and have at times numbered as many as 1500. Notwithstanding the repeated requests of the Chinese Government for their withdrawal, these troops still remain. They are equipped with a company of machine guns and now are quartered in barracks specially built since, capable of holding

2500 men and provided with a wireless station.

(d) There are also Japanese troops at Liaoyuan, on the border of Inner Mongolia. These were first sent there in 1914. In August of that year a party of Chinese police were engaged in a fight against the bandits in Changtu, far away in the interior of Manchuria. A company of Japanese troops came to pass by the place, and mistaking the Chinese police to be firing against them, opened fire, killing three policemen and a Chinese passer-by besides wounding ten others. Two Japanese were also wounded, but it could not be ascertained whether the wounds were inflicted by the police or by the bandits. On being apprised of this incident, the Japanese Consul despatched troops to Liaoyuan. Although the incident was considered closed by China granting redress which included the punshment of the policemen, reprimand of the police officers and an indemnity of \$12,000, the Japanese troops have not yet been withdrawn.

(e) After the outbreak of the war in Europe in 1914, Japan declared

(e) After the outbreak of the war in Europe in 1914, Japan declared war on Germany and proceeded to attack Tsingtao. For this purpose she landed troops at Lungkow, 150 miles north of their destination. These Japanese forces, on the pretext of military necessity, seized the entire

railway from Tsingtao to Tsinan in the heart of the Province, occupied all the important stations on the line, and compelled Chinese troops to withdraw from its vicinity. Although the military operations entirely ceased in November, 1914, and Tsingtao was reopened to trade on January 1, 1915, the Japanese troops have remained in the Province against the protest of the Chinese Government. About 2,200 Japanese troops are protest of the Chinese Government. stationed along the railway.

At Kashgar in the Province of Sinkiang, formerly known as Chinese Turkestan, Great Britain in the year 1896 established a postal agency with several messengers for carrying despatches between this place and India. Five years later the Russians also established a postal agency in the same place protected by over ten mounted guards. Since 1900 the number of Russian troops was raised to 150. In 1918 Great Britain despatched 30 Indian soldiers to this city stating that they were intended for the protection of the British Consulate there.

В. REASONS FOR WITHDRAWAL.

With reference to the foreign troops stationed in China by sanction of the Protocol of 1901, the Chinese Government believe that the necessity for their presence has ceased to exist. That Protocol was a sequel to the Boxer outbreak, and the provisions for the stationing of troops were inspired by the conditions which had then lately prevailed in Northern Those conditions have disappeared. The respect of the Chinese for foreign lives and property in recent years has been striking and beyond

criticism, even in time of internal disturbance.

(b) The presence of the Legation guards and foreign troops between the Capital and the sea also does violence to the sense of pride of the Chinese people, in that they are a standing derogation of China's sovereignty. In the same light must be viewed the existence of the special quarters occupied by the foreign Legations, which "shall be considered as one specially reserved for their use and placed under their exclusive control, in which the Chinese shall not have the right to reside and which may be made defensible." Such an area finds no parallel in other capitals of the world.

The stationing of these international garrisons gives rise to in-(c) cidents distribing the peace and order of the localities in which they are stationed. Not infrequently troops of one Power quarrel with those of another. Such incidents, while not always grave in nature, have often given

cause for anxiety on the part of the Chinese authorities.

2. While the foregoing observations apply equally to the foreign troops who are present in Chinese territory without legal justification, there are

additional reasons for urging the withdrawal of these troops.

(a) The presence of foreign troops in Chinese territory jeopardizes the amicable relations among foreign Powers themselves. It will be recalled, as an illustration, that the presence and the continuing massing of Russian troops on the Mongolian frontier and in Manchuria in 1900 rapidly estranged Japan from Russia, and it was the latter's refusal to withdraw her troops from Manchuria which brought on the Russo-Japanese War.

(b) It also disturbs the friendly relations between China and the Power stationing troops in her territory. That such is the case can be seen from a number of unfortunate incidents which have occurred between the Japanese troops in China and the Chinese people, but of which perhaps

only a few need be cited here.

The case in 1913 of Colonel Nesimori of the Japanese troops stationed at Hankow who attempted to force his way into the headquarters of the second division of the Chinese Army stationed in the same city and who, when asked by the sentinel to leave, seriously wounded the latter by stabbing him with the sword, caused no little feeling among Chinese mili tary circles.

A more serious case took place in September, 1913, in Changli in the Province of Chihli, wherein a contingent of forty Japanese troops under one officer attacked the Chinese police station, in order to arrest the policeman who had tried to stop certain Japanese soldiers from stealing pears from a Chinese peddler. The officer stabbed the Chinese police captain and his forty men fired three volleys killing four Chinese policemen. The case aroused so much feeling among the Chinese people that the Chinese Government felt obliged to take precautionary measures to prevent the people from taking the law into their own hands.

In September, 1913, in Changchun in the Province of Kirin, a contingent of more than 100 Japanese soldiers proceeded to the headquarters of the third and fourth police districts to search for and arrest the Chinese policemen on the ground that the Chinese police had interfered with a

Japanese subject attacking a Chinese peddler.

In August, 1916, a fracas took place between Chinese and Japanese troops in Chengchiatun, in Eastern Inner Mongolia, in which four Chinese and twelve Japanese soldiers were killed and others wounded. This incident was taken by Japan as the occasion for presenting to the Chinese Government a series of demands, some of which were highly prejudicial to China's sovereign rights, and jeopardized for five months the amicable

relations between China and Japan.

Again, the stationing of Japanese troops in the interior of Shantung Province has given rise to frequent conflicts with the Chinese people thereof and caused no little ill-feeling on their part. In fact it was their unlawful presence in the Province which led to the protest of the Chinese Government, and this was, in turn, seized upon by the Japanese Government as the occasion for presenting the now celebrated Twenty-one Demands in January, 1915, to the detriment of the friendly feelings of the two countries.

In view of the foregoing reasons, the Chinese Government earnestly request (1) that all foreign troops now present on Chinese territory without legal justification be immediately withdrawn; and (2) that Articles VII and IX of the Protocol of September 7, 1901, be declared cancelled, and that the Legation guards and foreign troops stationed by virtue of these provisions be completely withdrawn within a period of one year from the date when a declaration to this effect is made by the Peace Conference.

II. FOREIGN POLICE.

Since 1905 the Japanese Government have established and gradually extended police agencies in Manchuria, notwithstanding the repeated protests of the Chinese authorities. The number of such agencies, as reported in 1917 by the local authorities of Fengtien and Kirin Provinces, has reached twenty-seven.

It will be recalled that while foreign police have been established in certain foreign Settlements and Concessions in China under the sanction of treaty or of "land regulations" approved by the Chinese Government, no such privilege has been granted to any foreign Power in other parts of Chinese territory. The establishment of Japanese police agencies in

Manchuria has no justification.

The Japanese Government have sought on several occasions to obtain from the Chinese Government the privilege of stationing Japanese police officers in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, especially in connection with the Chengchiatun affair in August, 1916. In order to settle this case, they demanded, among other things, that China should "agree to the stationing of Japanese officers in places in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia where their presence was considered necessary for the protection of Japanese subjects"; and that sie should also "agree to the engagement by the officials of South Manchuria of Japanese police officers." This demand was later explained by the Japanese Government on the ground that they considered it necessary to station Japanese police efficers in these regions for the control and protection of their own subjects; that a number of Japanese police officers had already been stationed in the interior of South Manchuria and had been recognized by the local officials of the localities concerned, since intercourse had been conducted

between them; and that such a privilege was "but a corollary of the right

of extraterritoriality."

In reply to this, the Chinese Government stated that as there were already treaty provisions concerning the protection and control of Japanese subjects, there was no necessity to station Japanese police officers; that the question of police could not be associated with extraterritoriality and they could not recognize it as a corollary thereof: that since the conclusion of extraterritoriality treaties, no such claim had ever been heard; and that in regard to the Japanese police stations already established, they and the local authorities had repeatedly lodged their protests, and wished again to protest and ask for their removal.

The Chinese Government now continue to hold the above view as regards the Japanese police agencies in Manchuria and desire again to arge their immediate withdrawal, along with the foreign troops and military

guards now stationed in China without legal justification.

WITHDRAWAL OF FOREIGN POST OFFICES AND AGENCIES FOR WIRELESS AND TELEGRAPHIC COMMUNICATIONS.

Foreign Post Offices began to open branches and agencies in the principal Treaty Ports of China in the early sixties of last century. The opening of these offices was not based on any treaty provision or concession. Their existence and gradual increase since has merely been tolerated by the

Cl.inese Government.

About the same time a regular service for the carriage of mails was established on Western lines in connection with the Customs, operating chiefly between the numerous Ports on the coast of China and those far up the Yangtze River. The service continued to work and improve its machinery year by year till at last in 1896 it was established by an Imperial Decree as a separate Government Department with a full staff of Commissioners and subordinates devoting their whole time to the work and entirely distinct from the Customs staff.

This connection of the Postal Service with the Customs continued till 1911 when it was entirely detached and placed under the direct control

of the Ministry of Communications.

Though China had been formally invited to join the Universal Postal Union as early as 1878 she hesitated to do so until she could feel that her organization was complete for the work and it was not till 1914 that the final step was taken. Since September of that year the Chinese Postal Department has functioned successfully as a member of the Universal Postal Union, having been placed in the first class and contributing as much towards the general expenses as any other member.

When the Postal Department was transferred from the Customs to the Ministry of Communications in 1911, it had already spread its nets widely ever the whole of China well into the regions of Mongolia as far as Kashgar and the frontiers of Russia. In that year the number of offices and agencies that had been established amounted to 6201, and in 1917 the number had

increased to 9103.

The mail lines over which the service was carried on (including a small percentage in which railway, steamer, and river boat facilities were availed of) amounted at the end of 1917 to over 520.000 li (equal to, say, 173,000 miles) the aggregate distance having increased some 34,000 li since 1914.

The work done has advanced with equal strides. In 1917 the articles or pieces of mail matter dealt with amounted to a gross total of 965,748,371 pieces, as compared with 692,182,200 in 1914 and 421,000,000 odd in 1911.

In addition a parcel post has been established which is freely availed of. In 1917, 11,465,061 parcels were handled, the declared value of which was \$136,137,200 and the weight 39,797,271 kilos, say approximately 40,000 tons.

A Registration section has also been established with a system of insuring letters and parcels. Parcels are also now received on which money

has to be collected at the place of delivery, that is, parcels with "trade

charges" attached or "cash-on-delivery" parcels.

A Money Order Section which is largely availed of has also been in working order for some years. Orders to the number of 1,030,000, and of the aggregate value of \$21,523,000 were issued in 1917. Especially to be noted is the use made of this money order service by the British and French Governments as the channel for the payment of monthly allotments to families of tens of thousands of the labourers who have gone abroad to serve in Labour Corps in France and Flanders. The amount issued to the British Emigration Bureau of Weihaiwei alone totalled over \$1,000,000 for the last nine months of 1917. In the handling of trese money orders which were sent to over 25,000 families mostly residing in remote places in Chihli and Shantung, it is a significant fact that not one order was lost in transmission

In the beginning the service was unavoidably run at a loss, but within the last few years the Posta! Service has become more than self-supporting as the following approximate figures for 1917 show:-

Revenue: -\$ 8,546,000. Expenses: -\$ 7,124,000. giving a surplus of

\$1,422,000 available for improvements and developments.

It is to be noted also that there was very little interruption of the Postal Service in China during the Revolution, even in the remotest parts

of the country.

To carry on an establishment so extensive as described necessarily requires a large staff. At the end of December 1917 the Foreign Staff, which had been much reduced owing to the war, amounted to over a hundred-Commissioners, Deputy Commissioners, Assistants and Postal officers—of various friendly nationalities. On the same date the total Chinese staff of all ranks amounted to 25,867. It may be added that it is not the intention of the Chinese Government to dispense with the services of foreigners in their Postal Department as long as their assistance is considered necessary or desirable.

From the foregoing outline of the growth of the Chinese Postal Service, from its modest beginnings over fifty years ago. it will be seen how the institution has gradually developed to its present dimensions, becoming complete in all its branches, and discharging its functions with thorough efficiency, and having already for over five years taken its place as a fully equipped member of the Universal Postal Union.

Having thus proved itself fully competent to carry on satisfactorily all the functions of a post office, the Chinese Government are of opinion that the time has now come when their own postal service should become the sole establishment of the kind carring on postal work within the limits of the Chinese territory, as is the rule in every other independent country. They, therefore, giving the said offices ample time to wind up their affairs, submit to the Conference that all foreign post offices be withdrawn from China on or before January 1921.

Furthermore, in connection with the withdrawal of foreign post offices, the Chinese Government must demand that no foreign wireless or telegraphic installations of any kind shall be set up on Chinese territory and that all such installations as may have already been set up on Chinese territory shall be handed over forthwith to the Chinese Government upon due compensation

being given.

ABOLITION OF THE CONSULAR JURISDICTION.

It is hardly necessary to dwell on the incompatibility of consular jurisdiction with the exercise of the right of territorial sovereignty. Suffice it to say that the consular jurisdiction in China is not and was not based upon any principle of International Law, but was merely created by the Among the treaty stipulations which brought consular jurisdiction into existence, we may mention Art. XIII of the Sino-British Treaty of 1843 which was abrogated by and substantially incorporated into the Sino-British Treaty of Tientsin in Art. XV, XVI and XVII Art. XXI and XXV of the Sino-American Treaty of 1844; and Art. XXV, XXVII and XXVIII of the Sing-French Treaty of the same year. The reasons assigned to justify the introduction of the system into China were the then fundamental difference between the Chinese and the foreign laws and the

imperfection of the Chinese judicial chinery.

That this system is admittedly a makeshift to be eventually abandoned. is clearly shown by the Art. XII of the Sino-British Treaty of 1902 which provides: "China having expressed a strong desire to reform her judicial system and bring it into accord with that of western nations, Great Britain agrees to give every assistance to such reforms, and she will also be pre-pared to relinquish her extraterritorial rights when she is satisfied that the state of Chinese laws, the arrangements for their administration, and other considerations warrant her in so doing." Similar provisions are found in Art. XV of the Sino-American Commercial Treaty of 1903, and in Art. XI of the Sino-Japanese Commercial Treaty of the same year.

The several friendly powers having thus given their formal and explicit promise, the primary question to be answered is, therefore, whether the state of Chinese laws and the arrangements for their administration have attained a point to satisfy these and other treaty Powers and warrant them in relinquishing their extraterritorial rights. While we do not claim that the Chinese laws and their administration have now reached such a state as has been attained by the most advanced nations, we do feel confident to assert that China has made very considerable progress in the administration of justice and in all matters pertaining thereto since the signing of the above-mentioned Commercial Treaties. Let us enumerate a few instances:

1. China has adopted a National Constitution prescribing, among others, the separation of government powers, assuring to the people their inviolable fundamental rights of life and property and guaranteeing the complete independence and ample protection of judicial officers and their entire freedom from interference on the part of the executive or legislative

powers.

2. She has prepared five Codes, namely, the Criminal, Civil and Commercial Codes, and the two Codes of Procedure in civil and criminal cases, Some of them are provisionally in force, as the Provisional Criminal Code and some chapters of the Codes of Procedure; others are duly promulgated, as the Law for the Organisation of the Judiciary, the Provisional Re gulations of the High Courts and their Subordinate Courts, the Ordinance for Commercial Associations, the Regulations for the Court of Arbitration in Commercial Matters, and so on. These different codes and laws have been carefully adopted from those of the most advanced nations and made adaptable to the situation in China.

Three grades of new courts have been established, namely: District Courts, High Courts of Appeal, and the Taliyuan or the Supreme Court in Peking. Side by side there has been established also the system of pro-

curatorates with three corresponding grades.

4. Among the improvements in legal procedings, we may mention the complete separation between civil and criminal cases, the publicity of all trials and judgments rendered; and in criminal cases weight is laid on circumstantial evidence and personal testimony, the employment of corporal punishment to coerce confessions having long been abolished. The system of legal counsel is also in vogue, but no one is allowed to practise the profession unless he has passed regular examinations or met certain cquivalent requirements.

5. The judicial officers of all the courts, high and low, have received regular logal training, and a large number of them have studied in university

ties abroad.

6. The prison and police systems have been reformed and improved

and the success of these reforms is evident to all.

In view of the satisfactory results China has already obtained and the progress she has been making from day to day in the domain of legislative and judicial reforms, the reasons for the introduction of consular

jurisdiction into China have ceased to exist, and the day when the conditions provided in the Treaties of 1902-1903 will be fulfilled is not far distant. Furthermore, the maintenance of this system will appear to be still less justifiable, if we look at the serious defects in its working:—

Firstly, we find defects due to the diversity of laws to be applied. The prevailing rule by which the consular jurisdiction is determined is that of defendant's nationality: claims against Englishmen must be made in English Courts, against Frenchmen in French Courts, against Americans in American Courts, and so forth. What constitutes an offence or cause of action in one consular court may not be treated as such in another. It is for this reason that different decisions are given, while the facts are exactly the same, and this inequality of treatment hurts the sentiment of equity

and justice.

The second defect is the lack of effective control over witnesses or plaintiffs of another nationality. Where the testimony of a foreign witness of a rationality different from that of the defendant is required, the court is dependent upon his voluntary action, and if, after he has voluntarily appeared, he should decline to answer questions, he could not be fined or committed for contempt of court, nor could he be punished by that court if he should commit perjury. So also a foreign plaintiff cannot be punished by that Court for perjury or contempt of court. From the same want of control over a foreign plaintiff arises another grave flaw in the system of consular jurisdiction. If the defendant has no defence against the plaintiff but has a counter-claim, the court cannot entertain the counter-claim, however obvious the validity of that counter-claim may be.

The third defect is the difficulty of obtaining evidence where a foreigner commits a crime in the interior. By the treaties, if a foreigner, while travelling in the interior, commits any offence against the law, "Le shall be handed over to the nearest Consul for punishment, but he must not be subjected to any ill-usage in excess of necessary restraints." "This, rendered into plain language," said the American Minister Mr. Reed "means that the foreigner who commits a rape or murder a thousand miles from the sea-board is to be gently restrained, and remitted to a Consul for trial, necessarily at a remote point, where testimony could hardly be ob-

tained or ruled on."

The fourth defect lies in the conflict of consular and judicial functions. The first duty of a Consul is to look after the interests of his nationals. It is, therefore, scarcely consistent to add to that duty the task of administering justice. When a complaint is brought against his nationals, the duty of protection of a class and the administration of impartial justice between that class and others cannot but clast. Such a practice is obviously contrary to the modern principle of the separation of administrative

and judicial functions.

Not to mention many other grounds, the inherent defects in the working of the artificial system are in themselves sufficient grounds for its abolition. It has, therefore, manifested a marked tendency to disappear every where sooner or later. It was totally abolished in Japan in 1899 by the treaties concluded successively with the several Powers as a consequence of the codification of the Civil, Commercial and Criminal Laws and the promulgation of the Law of Judicial Organization. In Siam, the reorganization of local courts brought Great Britain, France and other Powers to consent to a partial surrender of the right of jurisdiction to the territorial authorities and to a future extension of their competence after the accomplishment of certain determined reforms.

China, therefore, asks that the system will also disappear in China at the expiration of a definite period and upon the fulfilment of the fol-

lowing conditions :-

1. The promulgation of a Criminal, a Civil, and a Commercial Code,

a Code of Civil Procedure and a Code of Criminal Procedure.

2. The establishment of new courts in all the districts which once formed the chief districts of the old prefectural divisions, that is to say, in fact in all the localities where foreigners reside.

China undertakes that by the end of 1924 the above mentioned conditions shall be fulfilled. On the other hand, she requests the Treaty Powers to give their promise that upon the fulfilment of the conditions they will at once relinquish their consular jurisdiction and the jurisdiction of their special courts (if they have any) in China.

Before, however, the actual abolition of consular jurisdiction, China

asks furthermore the Powers to give immediately their consent to:

a. That every mixed case, civil or criminal, where the defendant or accused is a Chinese be tried and adjudicated by Chinese Courts without the presence or interference of any consular officer or representative in the procedure of judgment.

b. That the warrants issued or judgments delivered by Chinese courts may be executed within the concessions or within the precincts of any building belonging to a foreigner, without preliminary examination by any

consular or foreign judicial officer.

In conclusion, it may be added that not China alone will be benefited

by the abolition of consular jurisdiction.

From the technical point of view, the Treaty Powers themselves, too, will see in the system of a single jurisdiction the disappearance of the inconveniences which reveal themselves in controversies among the foreigners of different nationalities—inconveniences of the same nature as those which present themselves in cases between the Chinese and foreigners.

Furthermore, the whole Chinese people will appreciate the goodwill of the Powers who give a satisfaction to their ardent desire to see the disappearance of all inequalities in judicial matters, which exist on the Chinese soil between their nationals and foreigners. As a result of the more general application of the laws of the country by the national courts, the administration will become more efficient, and the people tnemselves will urge the Government to open the whole country to the trade and residence of foreigners.

The abolition of consular jurisdiction will from that time bring about, as a consequence, a development of international commerce which will be

beneficial both to China and the foreign Powers.*

RELINQUISHMENT OF THE LEASED TERRITORIES.

The existence of leased territories in China, which jeopardizes the territorial integrity of China, is due, in the original instance, to the aggressions of Germany whose forcible occupation of part of Shantung Province constrained the Chinese Government to grant a lease for ninety-nine years of the Bay of Kiaochao in Shantung Province, the finest harbour on the coast of China.

In November, 1897, two German missionaries were murdered in the interior of Shantung. A German squadron at once occupied Kiacchao and demanded reparation. The murderers were executed, certain Chinese officials were punished for lax conduct, an indemnity was paid, and two expiatory chapels erected. Measured by even an exacting standard, the satisfaction

accorded to Germany appeared ample and definitive.

But the incident was not allowed to end with China's grant of full redress. No sooner had the case been settled than the German Minister in Peking, Baron von Heyking, approached the Chinese Government with the proposal that Kiaochao Bay should be leased to Germany. To give moral support to his proposal, a German squadron under the command of the Emperor's brother Prince Henry of Prussia was dispatched to Chinese waters, the Prince being enjoined by the Emperor at a farewell banquet to be prepared to "strike with his mailed fist." In view of the international situation with which she was confronted, China was constrained to accept the proposal and on March 6, 1898, signed a convention setting aside

^{*}In connection with this Memorandum the reader is advised to study the Chapter on the Russian Problem in China.

a zone of 50 kilometers (33 miles) around the Bay of Kiaochao at high water for the passage of German troops therein at any time, and agreeing to a lease for ninety-nine years of both sides of the entrance to the Bay of Kiaochao including a certain number of islands with the right to construct fortifications. In the same convention, Germany obtained the right to build certain railways traversing the Province and to prospect for and work mines within ten miles along the railways, as well as a preference for German subjects, German materials and German capital in case foreign assistance was needed in the Province, which is larger than England and Wales,

Germany having obtained a fortified outpost on the coast of China, Russia, invoking the doctrine of balance of power, presented to the Chin ese Government on the day the Lease Convention of Kiaochao was concluded a demand to which a time limit was given for a favourable reply that Port Arthur and Talienwan and the adjacent waters should be leased to her in order that the Russian fleet might have a "secure base," and that she should be given, among other things, the right to build a railway to be guarded by Russian soldiers traversing the Manchurian Provinces from Port Arthur and Talienwan to join the trans-Manchurian Russian railway at Harbin, the concession to construct which had been granted to Russia two years earlier.

Yielding again to the pressure Russia was able to bring, the Chinese Government consented on March 27, 1898, to lease Port Arthur and Talienwan to Russia for a period of twenty-five years, and at the same time

granted her other demands.

It may be stated that by the Treaty of Portsmouth of September 5, 1905, which terminated the war between Japanese and Russia, the latter agreed to transfer to Japan the lease of the two ports and adjacent territories and waters together with the rights and privileges belonging to the lease "with the consent of the Government of China". This consent

was accorded by China on December 22, 1905.

Following the lease of Kiaochao Bay to Germany and that of Port Arthur and Talienwan to Russia, France obtained from China on April 22, 1898, the lease of Kwangchouwan on the coast of Kwangtung Province for ninety-nine years and Great Britain the lease, also for ninety-nine years, of an extension of Kowloon and the adjoining territory and waters close to Hongkong on June 9, 1898, and the lease "for so long a period as Port Arthur should remain in the occupation of Russia" of the port of Weihaiwei on the coast of Shantung on July 1, 1898. Both Great Britain and France based their claims for the leases on the ground of the necessity of preserv-

ing the balance of power in the Far East.

While the measures and extent of control by the lessee Powers over the leased territories vary in the different cases, the leases themselves are all limited, as is seen above, to a fixed term of years. Expressly or impliedly they are not transferrable to a third Power without the consent of China. Though the exercise of administrative rights over the territories leased is relinguished by China to the lessee Power, during the period of the lease, the sovereignty of China over them is reserved in all cases. Moreover, in most of the lease conventions, it is provided that Chinese vessels of war should enjoy the equal right with the lessee Powers of using the leased ports as naval bases, (through in the Lease Convention of Kwangchouwan, this right was conditioned on China remaining in the state of neutrality).

From the foregoing account it appears clear that the leased territories remain part of Chinese territory, though encumbered with certain restrictions in regard to the exercise of administrative rights therein by the territorial sovereign. They are creatures of compact different from cessions

in fact and in law.

^{*}The proposal that Weihaiwei be leased to Great Britain originated with "a Chinere Minister occupying an influential position." Morse. International Relations of the Chinese Empire, Vol. 3, p. 117.

These territorial leases do not, therefore, appear to have adequate reason for continuance. Not only were they granted by China under pressure, real or potential, but they were demanded by the Powers in main avowedly to create balance of power, not between China and another country, but as between rival foreign aspirants to power and advantage at a time when the territorial integrity of China under the misrule of the Manchu Dynasty appeared to be in imminent grave danger. Twenty years have elapsed since then, and conditions have entirely altered. With the elimination of the German menace in particular, an important disturbing factor to the peace of the Far East has been removed, while the approaching formation of a League of Nations to prevent wars of aggression seems to provide an added reason for dispensing with the necessity of maintaining a balance of power in the Far East, which was the principal ground of their original claims and therefore a new ground for the interested Powers to relinquish their control over the territories leased to them.

The Chinese Government feel, moreover, that the existence of these leased territories has greatly prejudiced China's interests. Situated, as they all are, at strategic points of the Chinese territory, these foreign leaseholds have not only hampered her work of national defence and, constituting in China a virtual imperium in imperio, have been a menace to the integrity of her territory, but because of the shifting conflict of interests of the different lessee Powers, they have involved China more than once in complications and controversies of their own, especially in the cases of actual

hostilities between them.

Furthermore, some of these territories are utilized, with a view to economic domination over the vast adjoining regions, as points d'appui for developing spheres of interest, to the detriment of the principle of equal opportunity for the commerce and industries of all nations in China.

As the prolongation of the foreign control over the leased territories constitutes a continued lordship, whose injurious effects tend from day to day to increase, the Chinese Government feel in duty bound to ask for restitution of these territories, with the assurance that, in making this proposal, they are conscious of, and are prepared to undertake, such obligations as the relinquishment of control may equitably entail on them as regards the protection of the rights of property-owners therein and the administration of the territories thus restored to the complete control of China.

RESTORATION OF FOREIGN CONCESSIONS AND SETTLEMENTS.

The right of foreigners to reside and trade in China was definitely provided, for the first time, in the Sino-British Treaty of August 29, 1842, the second article of which allowed British subjects "to reside for the purpose of carrying on their mercantile pursuits, without molestation or restraint at the Citics and Towns of Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai." To facilitate the enjoyment of this right, the Supplementary Treaty of October 8, 1843, provided in Article 7, that "the ground and houses...shall be set apart by the local officers in communication with the Consul." Accordingly, land was set apart in the five ports for the use of British subjects, arrangements having been made by the local authorities in communication with the British Consuls.

The citizens or subjects of several other Powers acquired, by treaty with China, rights similar to those conferred on British subjects, and in

some cases similar arrangements were made.

Since 1842 many new ports have been added to the list of localities already opened to foreign trade and residence; and in a number of these new places, too, special quarters have been designed for the use of foreign citizens or subjects for purposes of residence and trade.

These special areas in the open ports are generally known as "Concessions" or "Settlements." As these Concessions were granted individually to various treaty Powers, a number of them may be found in one and the

same port, for example, at Tientsin or Hankow. In Shanghai, the British and American Concessions were amalgamated in 1854 into one Concession which is now called the International Settlement. The French Concession

there still exists as a separate entity.

These Concessions, which remain Chinese territory and in which foreign property-holders are under obligation to pay a land tax to the Chinese Government as the Chinese do, are governed either by the Consul of the State in whose favour the Concession has been granted or by a Municipal Council elected by foreign taxpayers residing therein. The Council or the Consul, as the case may be, administers the interests of the Concession, issues ordinances and regulations binding on all residents for the maintenance of public order, levies taxes for municipal purposes, erects public buildings, makes roads, and maintains a police force.

Although Chinese citizens constitute the bulk of the population in most of the Concessions and contribute by far the largest share of the revenue of these municipalities, they are not represented in the Municipal Councils, with the exception of the Kulangsu International Settlement, the Municipal Council of which always has a Chinese member appointed by the Clinese local authority,† In the Shanghai International Settlement, Chinese residents who compose over 95% of its population, are allowed to have only an Advisory Committee of three delegates elected annually by the various

Chinese commercial bodies.

These Concessions and Settlements are busy commercial centres in China which have played an important part in the development of her foreign trade and which have contributed, in no small measure, to the prosperity of the Chinese people. But they have at the same time brought into existence certain practices and claims on the part of the foreign authorities of the Concessions for power and jurisdiction which have at once impaired the sovereignty of China and hampered her work of administration.

For one thing, China has been denied her right of plenary jurisdiction over her own citizens residing within the Concessions. For example, Chinese residents therein cannot be arrested by Chinese authorities except with the approval of the Consul of the State in whose favour the Concession has been granted, or, if in the International Settlement at Shanghai, of the Scnior Consul; and if the particular Chinese is in some way connected with a foreign firm or family, then the consent of the Consul of the State to which such firm or family belongs must also be obtained. If in the International Settlement at Shanghai a Chinese commits a crime on another Chinese or is sued by another Chinese, he, even though the case involves no foreigner or foreign interests, must be tried before a Mixed Court, wherein a foreign assessor not only watches the proceedings but virtually tries and decides the case. If Chinese fugitives from justice take shelter within the Concession, they cannot be reached by the Chinese authorities, except when the warrants are approved by the foreign authorities of the Concession

Besides, Chinese troops are denied the right of passage through these Concessions, though they are part of Chinese territory. Thus China's right of eminent domain is not given due recognition by the foreign authorities

cf the Concessions.

This assertion of exclusive authority and power has made each concession virtually "un petit état dans l'état," to the impairment of China's rights as a territorial sovereign. Such a development was hardly within the contemplation or intention of those who helped organize them. In his mstructions to Sir Frederick Bruce, British Minister at Peking, April 8, 1863, Earl Russell, British Secretary for Foreign Affairs, stated:

"The lands situated within the limits of the British Settlement are without doubt Chinese territory, and it cannot reasonably be held that the mere fact of a residence within those limits exempts Chinese subjects from

fulfilling their natural obligations."

[†] This is incorrect; Chinese are eligible for election to several of the Municipal Councils of Foreign Concessions, e.g. the British and Italian Concessions at Tientsin.

Later in the same year, the foreign representatives at Peking met in conference and agreed upon certain principles upon which the reorganization of the foreign Settlement in Shangkai should be, and was until recently, based. These are:

"1. That whatever territorial authority is established shall be derived

directly from the Imperial Government through our Ministers.
"2. That such shall not extend beyond simple municipal matters, roads, police and taxes for municipal objects.

That the Chinese not actually in foreign employ, shall be wholly

ander the control of Chinese officers, as much as in the Chinese City,

That each Consul shall have the government and control of his own people, as now: the municipal authority simply arresting offenders against the public peace, handing them over, and prosecuting them before their respective authorities, Chinese and others as the case may be.
"5. That there shall be a Chinese element in the municipal system,

to whom reference shall be made and assent obtained to any measure affect-

ing the Chinese residents.'

The existence of the foreign Concessions has also given rise to the everrecurring problem of extensions. As the population of a Concession grows in size and more room is needed for expansion, demands are made upon the Chinese Government to grant extensions of territory. In view of the claim and actual appropriation of broad powers of sovereignty by the foreign Consuls or Municipal Councils on the one hand, and of the opposition of the Chinese residents in the territory asked for on the other hand, it is not unnatural that the Chinese Government should often manifest hesitation to comply with these applications. Such delay or refusal, however, is seldom sympathetically viewed and, more often than not, it is considered as just cause for making acrimonious representations.

Bosides tending thus to mar the friendly relations between China and the Power making the application, the question of Settlement extensions often gives rise to controversies among the foreign Powers. For the application of one Power for extension not infrequently leads another to make a similar application, and where the interests of two applicants conflict, as has occurred in more than one instance, the friendly feelings between these

Powers are not a little affected.

It is, moreover, to be noted that while in the more recent Concessions the evercise of these powers of municipal government is provided for in treaties, it was not so authorized in the case of the earlier grants of land for foreign trade and residence. There it was originally based on certain regulations known as the Land Regulations agreed upon by the Chinese

authorities and the foreign Consuls.

In both cases, however, the necessity for the maintenance of such independent municipalities seems to have ceased to exist. When the country was first opened to foreign intercourse, the people were unaccustomed to associate with foreign nationals, and it was therefore deemed expedient to assign separate districts for the use of the foreign merchants; and as these districts were undeveloped sections of the Chinese cities, it was desirable to organize some system of local government for the maintenance of public order and morals within the foreign communities. By such arrangement the Chinese authorities were able to prevent friction between Chinese and foreign subjects, while the Consuls found themselves in a better position to exercise over their nationals the protection and control provided by the treaties.

That whatever necessity there was for separate residence has entirely ceased to prevail, appears clear from the fact that in such treaty ports as Nanking and Changsha, where no foreign Concessions exist, Chinese and foreigners live together in peace and friendship. This is true even of the existing Concessions themselves, wherein large numbers of Chinese and foreigners reside together without friction

Besides, China has in recent years made great progress in municipal government and believes herself prepared to assume the responsibilities for effective administration which will necessarily be implied in the desired restoration of the foreign Concessions and Settlements. Not only the administration of such large cities as Peking has been modernized and conducted to the satisfaction of Chinese and foreign residents alike, but also in the German and Austro-Hungarian Concessions at Tientsin and Hankow of which the Chinese Government assumed charge on their Declaration of War on these Powers in 1917, no serious criticism has been heard of the Chinese administration.*

Nor does the maintenance of these arrangements appear now as an essentia! arrangement for the enjoyment of the right to trade. In the last two decades, China has steadily been pursuing a policy of encouraging foreign trade and commerce. She has not only consented by treaty to add a number of places to the list of treaty ports, but she has opened on her cwn initiative many places in the interior to foreign trade. In the places voluntarily opened by China such as Tsinan, for example, foreigners who are required to observe the Chinese municipal and police regulations on the same footing as Chinese, have found no discouragement in that require-They are steadily moving into these places, which, though only recently opened to foreign trade, are rapidly becoming prosperous business centres.

In view of the foregoing considerations the Chinese Government entertain a most earnest desire that all the foreign Concessions and Settlements be returned to China and request the Governments of those Powers which now hold one or more Concessions in China, to agree to such restoration. China is ready to enter into negotiations for the purpose, and make such arrangements as may be necessary for effecting the restoration and for securing and safeguarding the right of leasing land in the treaty ports generally.

Realizing that there are considerable foreign vested interests in the Concessions and Settlements and desiring to avoid giving them any cause for concern, the Chinese Government are also prepared to consent that such arrangement, when agreed to by the interested Powers, shall take effect at the end of five years from the date of such agreement.

Pending the final restoration the Chinese Government are desirous

however, to introduce certain modifications in the existing regulations of the foreign Concessions, mainly for the purpose of securing a more just treatment for Chinese residents therein and for preparing the way for the final restoration to China These modifications which would in no way affect any of the privileges enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of treaty

Powers, are:

1 That Chinese citizens shall have the right to own land in all the

Concessions and Settlements under the same conditions as foreigners;
2 That Chinese citizens residing in the Concessions shall have the right to vote in the election of members of the municipal councils and to be elected thereto:

3. That warrants issued and judgments delivered by competent Chinese Courts outside the Concessions shall be executed in the Concessions, without being subject to any revision whatsoever by the foreign authorities.

4. That in no foreign Concession shall a foreign assessor be allowed to take part in the trial or decision of cases wherein Chinese citizens alone are concerned.

TARIFF AUTONOMY.

The existing tariff arrangement dates back to the Treaty of Nanking signed in 1842 with the representatives of Great Britain. The duties to be collected upon imported goods were fixed in the Supplementary Treaty of 1843, and consisted of specific levies calculated mostly on the basis of 5% ad valorem of the values then current, but in some cases the duty was

^{*} This is not the opinion of the British Chambers of Commerce regarding the administration of the Ex-German and Ex-Russian Concessions at Tientsin and Hankow. Very serious criticisms have been voiced by these Chambers.

as high as 10%. This tariff was subsequently adopted by the other Powers when they entered into treaty relations with China. In the several treaties which China concluded in 1858 with Great Britain, France and other countries a revision took place when the rate of 5% ad valorem was for the first time universally applied. These treaties contained provisions for periodical revision which were adopted in all the commercial treaties subsequently concluded with other Powers, but for one reason or another there have been only two revisions since 1858, namely, in 1902 and 1918. In both cases, however, only the values of goods were revised, the uniform 5% ad valorem rate remaining unchanged.

This tariff is not only unfair but also unscientific in so far as articles of prime necessity are charged duties at the same rate as articles of luxury with results seriously detrimental to Chinese finance and trade. The reasons

are briefly as follows :--

1. No Reciprocity. By these treaties and by the most-favoured-nation clause China has given to all the Powers a conventional tariff. By the latter clause any one Power is entitled to claim whatever rights or privileges are granted to another Power, but in return China receives no reciprocal treatment. Thus every treaty Power enjoys the benefit of China's 5% tariff, but her goods, entering the ports of those countries are not entitled to the corresponding benefit. This non-reciprocity is contrary to interrational usage according to which tariff concessions are always on a mutual and compensatory basis.

2. No Differentiation. Since the abandonment of the principle of differentiation in 1858, all goods, from luxuries to necessaries including raw materials, are taxed at exactly the same rate. How far this is at variance with the common practice in other countries can be easily seen from the

following tables :--

Import duty on luxuries collected by different countries in 1913*

	Товассо.	Spirits.	
England United States France Japan China	£ s d 8-6 per lb. 18-9 per lb. & 25% 1-7-2½ per lb. 355 % 5 %	£ s d 15 - 2 per gallon 10 - 10 per gallon 2 - 6½ per gallon 10 - 2 per gallon 4½ per gallon	

The figures shown in the above table speak for themselves.

Owing to the extremely low rate, and consequently an insufficient revenue, many articles which ought to be free of duty are also taxed for revenue purposes. This can be shown by a comparison of the percentage of value of criticles imported free of duty into China with that of other countries in 1913*

China	6.5 %
Japan	49.5 %
France	
United States	54.5 %
England	90.7 %

How far this uniform tariff is unfitted to the present conditions can be illustrated by the following comparison.

Number of articles enumerated in the revised tariffs.

In the year 1858...138 articles.

— 1902...332 — 280 — 280 — 545 — 545

^{*}The figures of this year are quoted because it was just before the war, during which conditions became abnormal.

Thus it will be seen during the last sixty years although the number of articles enumerated increased more than four times, and the volume of trade eighteen times, the principle of a uniform 5% tariff has remained absolutely unchanged. In 1858 China consented to such a uniform rate because foreign trade was then comparatively unimportant, but since then foreign trade has grown considerably. She now finds not only the distribution of the burden exceedingly unfair, but her national economy is seriously affected by the lack of encouragement of the import of raw materials and machinery and by the abnormal increase in the import of luxuries.

3. Insufficiency of Revenue. The treaty tariff of 5% ad valorem is obvicusly much lower than that which exists in other countries, but even that rate is only nominal, for the periodical revision provided for by the treaties has never been carried out in due time, and when it has been effected, the basis of valuation adopted is always lower than the actual value at the time: for example, in 1902 the average prices of 1897-1899 were taken, and in 1918, those of 1912-1916. Thus owing to the steady increase in the value of commodities imported, the actual duties paid at any given time are always lower than current prices would demand. Moreover, the import duty forms a very small percentage of the annual state revenue. Take for instance, in 1914, the total ordinary revenue was 230 million taels while the import duty only yielded 18 million taels, thus forming less than 7%. The Chinese Government are, therefore, forced to raise money by some other means, and many taxes, admittedly lad, have to be retained, for example, the inland taxation, known as likin and similar taxes, which are universally condemned both by Chinese and foreigners, but as they give the Government a revenue of forty million taels, they have to be telerated.

The evils of likin taxation have long been recognised by the Powers themselves. Thus in the commercial treatics with Great Britain, the United States and Japan in 1902-1903, it was agreed, inter alia, to increase the tariff from 5% to 12½%, if China would abolish likin, but this could only be effected it all the treaty Fowers "have signified their acceptance of these engagements". The last condition has made the treaty stipulation practically a dead letter as unanimity among so many Powers has been almost impossible of attainment. It is clear therefore that in the matter of tariff China does not enjoy the same right as is granted practically to all nations.

4. No Real Revision It is to be observed that the 5% tariff was fixed in 1858, and there has never been any real revision of it since, as the so-called revisions in 1902 and in 1918 were merely re-estimates of prices which were the bases on which the specific duties were calculated and levied. Thus for more than half a century China's tariff has undergone no modification in the rate of levy.

To conform to the aim and object of the League of Nations it is urgently desired that the right of China to revise the existing tariff conventions should be recognised and agreed to by the friendly Powers. The Chinese Government regard the Peace Conference as a unique opportunity because such revision requires the consent of all the treaty Powers which is practically impossible to obtain under ordinary conditions.

What the Chinese Government desire to be agreed to by the Conference in principle is that the present tariff should be superseded two years hence forth by the general tariff which is applied to the trade of non-treaty Powers, but in the meantime China is willing to negotiate with the treaty Powers with a view to arranging new conventional rates for those articles in which they are specially interested, under the following conditions:—

- 1. Any favourable treatment thus arranged must be reciprocal.
- 2. A differential scale must be established so that luxuries should pay more and raw materials less than necessaries.
- 3. The basis of the new conventional rate for necessaries must not be less than $12\frac{1}{2}\%$ in order to cover the loss of revenue resulting from the abolition of *likin* as provided for in the commercial treaties of 1902-1905.
- 4. At the end of a definite period to be fixed by new treaties Chipa must be at liberty not only to revise the basis of valuation, but also the duty rate itself.

In return for such concessions China is willing to abolish the undesirable tax of likin so that anything that tends to hinder the development of trade

may be removed once for all.

The Chinese Government do not intend to adopt a system of protective tariff nor to over tax trade, but simply demand the revision of the present tariff because it is unfair, unscientific, out of date and does not meet China's The prolonged unfavourable balance of trade and the constant increase of national debt have created a serious financial and economic stress which can only be relieved by consolidating the system of taxation and encouraging the export trade which will in turn benefit the importers by increasing the people's purchasing power. This reform has long been overdue, and in placing China's case before the Peace Conference the Chinese Government have behind them the voice of the whole country. It is to be hoped that the friendly Powers will restore to China the same fiscal right as is enjoyed by all independent nations so that the Chinese people may develop their natural resources, become better consumers of the world's commodities, and contribute their share to the progress and civilisation of mankind.

CONCLUSION.

In submitting the present memorandum to the Peace Conference, the Chinese Delegation are not unaware that the questions herein dealt with did not primarily arise out of this World War—a war which has brought sufferings to mankind to such a degree and extent as are unknown in history. They are, however, fully conscious of the purpose of the Peace Conference which seeks, in addition to concluding peace with the enemy, to establish a new world order upon the foundation of the principles of justice, equality and respect for the sovereignty of nations. It finds an eloquent expression in the Covenant of the League of Nations. These questions demand readjustment by the Peace Conference because, if left unattended to, they contain germs of future conflicts capable of disturbing the world's peace again.

The Chinese Delegation, therefore, request that they be taken into consideration by the Peace Conference and be disposed of in the following

1. With reference to the Spheres of Influence or Interest, that the various interested Powers will, each for itself, make a declaration that they do not have or claim any sphere of influence or interest in China and that they are prepared to undertake a revision of such treaties, agreements, notes or contracts previously concluded with her as have conferred, or may be construed to have conferred, on them, respectively, reserved territorial advantages or preferential rights or privileges to create sphere of influence or interest, which impair the sovereign rights of China.

With reference to Foreign Troops and Police, that all foreign troops and foreign police agencies now present on Chinese territory without legal justification be immediately withdrawn; that Articles VII and IX of the Protocol of September 7, 1901, be declared cancelled; and that the Legation guards and foreign troops stationed by virtue of these provisions be completely withdrawn within a period of one year from the date when a

declaration to this effect is made by the Peace Conference.

3. With reference to Foreign Post Offices and Agencies for Wireless and Telegraphic Communications, that all foreign post offices be withdrawn from China on or before January 1, 1921; that no foreign wireless or telegraphic installations be set up on Chinese territory without the express permission of the Chinese Government; and all such installations as may have already been set up on Chinese territory shall be handed over forthwith to the Chinese Government upon due compensation being given.

With reference to the Consular Jurisdiction, that upon China's fulfilment of her undertaking by the end of 1924, firstly, to promulgate the Five Codes and, secondly, to establish new courts in all the districts which once formed the chief districts of the prefectural divisions, all the treaty Powers promise to relinquish their consular jurisdiction and the jurisdiction of their special courts, if any, in China; and that before the actual abolition of Consular Jurisdiction, the Powers agree:

a) That every mixed case, civil or criminal, where the defendant or accused is a Chinese citizen, be tried and adjudicated by Chinese courts without the presence or interference of any consular officer or representative in the procedure or judgment.

b) That the warrants issued or judgements delivered by Chinese courts may be executed within the Concessions or within the precincts of any building belonging to a foreigner, without preliminary examination by

any consular or foreign judicial officer.

5. With reference to the Leased Territories, that they be restored to China upon her undertaking such obligations as the relinquishment of control may equitably entail on her as regards the protection of the rights of property-owners therein and the administration of the territories thus restored.

6. With reference to Foreign Concessions and Settlements, that the Powers concerned consent to have the Concessions or Settlements held by them restored to China by the end of 1924. China also undertakes the chligation to safeguard the rights of the property-owners therein. Pending the final restoration certain modifications in the existing regulations of the

foreign Concessions are desired.

With reference to Tariff Autonomy, that it be declared that at the end of a definite period to be fixed by mutual agreement, China is free to regulate, of her own accord, her customs tariff, and that during the said period China is free to negotiate with the various Powers tariff conventions which shall be reciprocal in treatment, shall differentiate luxuries from necessaries and shall have as the basis of the new conventional rate of necessaries a customs import duty of not less than 12½%. Pending the conclusion of such conventions, the present tariff shall be superseded by the end of 1921 by the general tariff which is applied to the trade of non-treaty Powers. China on her part, promises to abolish likin as soon as new conventions are concluded.

THE SINO-GERMAN COMMERCIAL AGREEMENT. DECLARATION

Peking, May 20, 1921.

The undersigned, being the duly authorized representative of the Government of the Republic of Germany, has the honour to make known, in the name of his Government, to the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China the following:

The Government of the Republic of Germany, animated by the desire to re-establish the relations of friendship and commerce between Germany

and China.

Considering that such relations should be based upon the principles of perfect equality and absolute reciprocity in conformity with the general rules of international law.

Considering that the President of the Republic of China issued a Mandate on September 15, 1919, concerning the restoration of peace with Ger-

many.

Considering that Germany engages herself to fulfil the obligations towards China, derived from Articles 128 to 134 (inclusive) of the Treaty cf Versailles dated June 28, 1919 and coming into force on January 10, 1920.

Affirms that Germany has been obliged by the events of the War and by the Treaty of Versailles to renounce all the rights, interests, and privileges which she acquired by virtue of the Treaty concluded by her on March 6, 1898 and other Acts concerning the Frovince of Snantung, and finds herself deprived of the possibility of restituting them to China.

And formally declares:

To consent to the abrogation of the consular jurisdiction in China. To renounce, in favour of China, all the rights which the German Government possessed in the "Glacis" attached to the German Legation in Peking, admitting that, by the expression, "public properties," in the First Paragraph of Article 130 of the Treaty of Versailles, the above-mentioned ground was equally included.

And to be prepared to reimburse the Chinese Government the expenses for the internment of German militaries in the various camps of internment

in China.

The undersigned takes this occasion to renew to His Excellency the assurances of his high consideration.

(Signed) H. VON BORCH.

THE SINO-GERMAN AGREEMENT.

The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the Republic of Germany, animated by the desire to re-establish the relations of friendship and commerce by an agreement between the two countries, taking as a basis the Declaration of the Republic of Germany dated on this day and recognizing that the application of the principles of the respect of territorial sovereignty, of equality, and of reciprocity is the only means to maintain good understanding between the peoples, have named, for this purpose, as their Plenipotentiaries, that is to say:

The Government of the Republic of China, W. W. Yen, Minister of

Foreign Affairs.

The Government of the Republic of Germany, H. von Borch, Consul

General.

who, after having communicated to each other their full powers, which are found to be in good and due form, have agreed upon the following dispositions :

ARTICLE I.

The two High Contracting Parties have the right mutually to send duly accredited dipiomatic representatives who shall reciprocally enjoy in the country of their residence the privileges and immunities that are accorded to them by the law of nations.

ARTICLE II.

The two High Contracting Parties accord to each other reciprocally the right to appoint, in all the places where there is established a consulate or a vice-consulate of a third nation, consuls, vice-consuls, and consular agents who shall be treated with the consideration and regard that are accorded to the agents of the same grade of other nations.

ARTICLE III.

The nationals of one of the two Republics residing in the territory of the other shall have the right in conformity with the laws and regulations of the country, to travel, to reside. and to engage in commerce or industry, in all the places where the nationals of another nation are allowed to do so.

They skall be placed, their persons as well as their properties, under the jurisdiction of the local courts: they shall conform themselves to the laws of the country where they reside. They shall not pay any imposts, taxes, or contributions higher than those paid by the nationals of the country.

ARTICLE IV.

The two High Contracting Parties recognize that all the matters concerning tariff are regulated solely by the internal legislation of each of them. Any duties higher than those paid by the nationals of the country shall not, however, be levied on the products, raw or manufactured, having origin in one of the two Republics or in a third country at their importations, exportations, or transit.

ARTICLE V.

The Declaration of the Republic of Germany on this day and the stipulations of the present Agreement shall be taken as the basis for the negotiation of a definitive treaty.

ARTICLE VI.

The present Agreement is drawn up in Chinese, German, and French: in case of difference in interpretation, the French text shall prevail.

ARTICLE VII.

The present Agreement shall be ratified as soon as possible* and come into force on the day when the two Governments shall have made known to each other that the ratifications have been effectuated.

Done at Peking, in double copies, the 20th day, 5th Moon, 10th Year of the Republic, corresponding to May 20th, 1921.

(LETTER-TRANSLATION).

Dr. W. W. Yen, Minister of Foreign Affairs, to Mr. H. von Borch, German Representative.

Peking, May 20, 1921.

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's letter of even date, in which it is stated:

"As an explanation to the German Declaration and the Sino-German Agreement, I have the honour, at the instruction of my Government, to

make the following declarations:

(1) Customs tariff on Chinese goods imported into Germany. The statement that the import, export, and transit duties to be paid by nationals of either of the two High Contracting Parties shall not be higher than those paid by nationals of the country, as provided for in Article IV of the Agreement, does not preclude China from the privilege of applying Article 264 of the Versailles Treaty.

(2) The payment of indemnity. The statement in the German Declaration that Germany is prepared to reimburse the Chinese Government the expenses of the internment of German militaries in various camps of internment in China, is understood to mean that Germany in addition to indemnifying China for her losses according to the principles of the Versailles Treaty, is also willing to refund to China the internment expenses.

As to the war indemnity, Germany undertakes to pay in advance a portion thereof in a lump sum, which represents the equivalent of one half of the proceeds from the liquidated German property and one half of the values of the sequestrated but not yet liquidated German property, which amount will eventually be agreed upon and which will consist of \$4,000,000. in cash and the balance in Tsin-Pu and Hu-Kuang Railway bonds.

(3) Chinese property in Germany. The real and personal properties of Chinese residents in Germany will be returned at the ratification of the

Agreement.

(4) Chinese students in Germany. In regard to the Chinese students in Germany, the German Government will be pleased to assist them with its best efforts in securing admission to schools or acquiring practical experience."

At to the in quiries addressed by Your Excellency, I have the honour to

reply as follows:

(1) The security to be given in future to the properties of Chinese or German residents. The Chinese Government promises to give full protection to the peaceful undertakings of the Germans in China, and agrees not to further sequestrate their properties except in accordance with the generally recognized principles of international law and the provisions of the laws of China; provided that the German Government will treat the Chinese residents in Germany in like manner.

(2) Judicial Guarantee. Law suits of the Germans in China shall be tried in the modern courts, according to the modern codes, with the right of appeal, and in accordance with the regular legal procedure. During the

^{*} Actually ratified on July 1, 1921.

period of litigation, the assistance of German lawyers and interpreters who

have been duly recognised by the courts is permitted.

(3) In regard to the law suits in the Mixed Court, in which Germans are involved either as one or both of the parties, the Chinese Government will in future try to find a solution so as to insure justice and fairness to all the parties concerned.

(4) China's trading with the Enemy Act. All the laws and regulations concerning the trading with the enemy will automatically lose their effect from the day of the ratification of the Agreement.

All German trade marks which had been registered at the Customs House will recover their validity, if they are registered again after the ratification of the Agreement, at the Customs House by their owners.

Prior to the general application of the national tariff in China, German goods imported into China may pay the customs duties according to the

tariff rate in general use.

(5) The liquidation of Sino-German indebtedness. The Chinese Government has no intention to join the Clearing House system, as provided

for in Article 296 of the Versailles Treaty.

Furthermore, the Chinese Government, in consideration of the fact that Germany undertakes, as stated above, to pay a lump sum as a portion of the war indemnity to the Chinese Government, agrees to effectually cease, at the signature of the Agreement, all the liquidation of German properties. and on receipt of the aforesaid indemnity and after the ratification of the Agreement, agrees to return to German owners all the proceeds from the liquidation of German property and all the German property still under sequestration.

The aforesaid procedure shall be considered as a settlement of all the matters concerning the liquidation, sequestration, or control of German property, as stated in Paragraph 2 in Article 133 of the Versailles Treaty.

As to the Deutsch-Asiatic Bank and the Ching-hsin Mining Corporation, the Chinese authorities will discuss methods of settlement with the Bank and the Corporation themselves; the unliquidated premises of the said Bank in Peking and Hankow, may, however, be returned to the original owner in accordance with the procedure stated above.

CHINA AND THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE.

The following is a translation of the aide memoire handed to the British Minister in Peking by the Waichiaopu in May, 1920, relating to the re-

newal of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance :-

"We are repeatedly informed by reports that, in view of the approaching expiration of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance in July next year, and in pursuance of the stipulations therein contained that in case of renewal the Alliance must be concluded one year before the date of expiration, the British and Japanese Governments have already begun informally to exchange views on the subject, and that the Alliance, if renewed, would have to be revised. As this matter vitally concerns China and the Far East, the people of China are quite alarmed. Fortunately it has been an International usage that when two friendly nations conclude a Treaty it can only cover those rights and interests which legitimately belong to the nations party to the Agreement. This usage has acquired fresh strength as the result of the Great War, in that International equality has become a watchword with the nations. If, as hitherto, the terms of the Alliance still contain such words as 'China' and 'China's integrity,' without China being a party, it is in fact an affront to the honour and dignity of an independent nation, and the Government and people of China cannot allow the matter to pass without expressing their protest.

Your Excellency is therefore earnestly requested to convey the above statement confidentially to your Government for the due consideration where

the terms of the Alliance are being revised."

CHAPTER XXIV.

RIVER CONSERVANCY AND HARBOUR WORKS.

With the establishment in December, 1913, of a National Conservance and Irrigation Bureau, with Chang Chien, Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, as Director-General, the Chinese Government took the first steps towards systematic treatment of a problem of supreme importance to China. In the absence of good roads, rivers and waterways, with which the country is abundantly provided, have supplied in the past the main channels of transportation. These are now being supplemented by railways, but too slowly in relation to the total area of Chinese territory to affect to any great extent for the present the importance of water routes. Moreover, come of the rivers, notably the Yellow River and the Huaiho, are a continual source of devastation and national loss, on account of their liability to flood, the bursting of their banks, and changes of course. In May, 1914, Mr. H. van der Veen, a Dutch expert, was appointed consulting engineer to the National Conservancy Bureau. Lack of funds has curtailed the activities of the Bureau. It has, however, given an impetus to conservancy schemes in various parts of the country, and seeks to make all these, whether in existence before or about to be started, subordinate to a national scheme of conservancy work. Sub-bureaux have been established in a few provinces; those in Kiangsu and Anhui have been occupied more particularly with survey work in connexion with the districts liable to floods from the Huai River and useful information was supplied, as a result of these initial labours, to the Board of American Red Cross Engineers which visited the Huai River in the summer of 1914. The major schemes which the National Conservancy Bureau has on hand are connected with the Huai River, the Sikiang or West River, the Grand Canal, and the Hangenow Sea-wall. The Peking staff has also been employed to survey the Liao River and for the Metropolitan operations.

THE GRAND CANAL.

The famous Grand Canal of China is the earliest and, in many respects, the greatest piece of engineering work ever accomplished. It is the longest canal in existence, extending from latitude 30° N. to 40° N., from the city of Hangchow to Peking, the capital, covering a distance of approximately 1,000 miles. It crosses the Yangtze River and the Yellow River and for many centuries it was the main line of communication between the North and South. The part it has played in the political, economical, and social history of the Chinese people is beyond estimation.

The Canal was built in no fewer than 3,000 years. The work was initiated in 540 B.C. when Fu Tsai, the Prince of Wu, built the first section between Tsingkiangpu and Yangchow. In the year 608 A.D., Emperor Yang of the Sui Dynasty ordered to have the canal improved and extended, and the canal from Huaian to the Yangtze River was completed at that

time.

The dynasty which did the most for the Grand Canal was the Yuan Dynasty. When Kublai Khan established his capital in Peking, he conceived the idea of building a national waterway to connect the capital with the rich cities in the south. In 1279 the big Wen Ho and Sze Ho in Shantung were excavated and regulated to form a part of the canal system. The part from Peking to Tungchow was built in 1285 and the Wei Tung

Ho was built in 1289. The skeleton of the Grand Canal from Peking to the Yangtze River was completed in 1320.

The history of the Ming and Ching Dynasties was full of accounts, memorials and mandates on how to get a sufficient supply of water for the canal, how to prevent the water from doing damage to the canal and the farm land, and how to protect the canal system from the menacing influence of the Yellow River. In those days the canal was the only highway between the North and the South and lavish sums were spent for its improvement and maintenance. The best talented men in the country were employed to take care of the canal and to supervise the transportation of the tribute rice. But with the introduction of steam navigation and transportation the usefulness of the canal was overlooked. The whole canal organization was broken up and the Government ceased to take any interest in the work.

In 1910, following a disastrous famine in the Huai district, Mr. Chang Chien organized a survey bureau at Tsingkiangpu and tried to influence the Government to repair the Grand Canal so as to give the Huai River a more efficient outlet. This was the first attempt of the Chinese to introduce modern scientific methods of improving waterways. The survey bureau did very valuable work and it was upon the data collected by that bureau that the Red Cross engineers were able to draw up a scheme for the improvement of the Huai River. A very careful survey of the Grand Canal from the Shantung border to the Yangtze River has already been made and the bureau is now completing the survey of all the effluents and defluents of the Inner and Central Grand Canal.

In 1912 Chang Chien published his Huai River Report and on January 30, 1914, he signed an agreement with the American Red Cross Society for a loan of 20,000,000 gold dollars for the improvement of the Huai River and the Grand Canal in Kiangpei. A group of eminent American engineers was sent to China by the Red Cross Society to study the problem in the field, but, so far, nothing whatsoever has been done.

In the early part of 1916, a loan of 3,000,000 gold dollars was arranged between King Pan-ping, Director of the Conservancy Board, and the American International Corporation for the improvement of the Grand Canal from the Shantung border to the Yangtze River. The agreement was signed on May 13th, 1916, but nothing has been heard of the agreement since that time.

While Chang Chien was conducting his canal survey in Kiangsu, Pan Fu organized a similar institution in Shantung and started to make a survey of the Grand Canal in that province. On November 20, 1917, after a long series of most complicated and difficult negotiations, an agreement was signed by Mr. Hsiung Hsi-ling, representing the Chinese Government, and the American International Corporation. The agreement provides for the issue of 6,000.000 gold dollars worth of bonds for the improvement of the Grand Canal south of Tientsin, in the provinces of Chihli and Shantung. It was understood that 2,500,000 gold dollars worth of bonds were to be issued in Japan. A party of American engineers, headed by Mr. Joseph Ripley, arrived in China in September, 1918, and the engineers at once began to make the survey and collect the necessary engineering data. A year later the American International Corporation sent out its consulting engineer, Mr. John R. Freeman, to make a final study of the problem. Both Mr. Ripley and Mr. Freeman expressed a very favourable opinion on the problem and made strong recommendations to the American International Corporation to start the work. The engineers have now returned for more than a year but there is very little indication that the work will be started in the near future. The Canal Beard has so far spent about one million gold dollars.

The only organization that is doing some constructive work on the Grand Canal is the Kiangsu Grand Canal Board at Yangchow. The Board

was organized in the fall of 1920 with Mr. Chang Chien as the Director. Kiangsu Province recently appropriated a sum of one million dollars a year out of the surplus land tax and likin duty for the improvement of the canal for three years. The Board has one American engineer to assist in

designing and construction.

The Grand Canal is divided into different sections, each being controlled and looked after by special organizations appointed either by the Ministry of Interior or by the Governor in whose province the canal happens to be. The Canal from Tungchow to Yangchun is under the jurisdiction of the Pei Yun Ho Conservancy Bureau under the Metropolitan Governor, while the canal in the Childi Province is under the Childi Conservancy Bureau. The Canal in Shantung is nominally under the Shantung Conservancy Bureau and the Board for the Control of Shantung Waterways. The Canal from the Shantung border to the Yangtze River is in chargof the Kiangsu Grand Canal Board and the canal in Kiangsu, south of the Yangtze River, is under the charge of the Kiangnan Conservancy Bureau, and, finally, the last section in Chekiang is under the jurisdiction of the Chekiang Conservancy Commission.

WHANGPOO CONSERVANCY.

The Whangpoo River connects the system of inland lagoons south-west of Shanghai with the Yangtze-kiang, and thus with the sea. Its total drainage area is estimated at about 12,000 square miles. The river and its numerous creeks are tidal for over fifty miles, i.e. above the Sitai Lake. At Woosung, where the Whangpoo flows into the Yangtze River, the rise of tide at springs is approximately 10 feet, and at neaps 8 feet above low water, ordinary spring tides, the range of neap tides being about 5 feet. At Shanghai, 14 miles from Woosung, the rise of springs is about 9 feet. and at neaps $6\frac{1}{2}$ feet, the range of neap tides being 4 feet. Obstacles to navigation approaching Shanghai begin about 25 miles below Woosung where patches of shoal water, known as the Fairy Flats, show a minimum depth of about 18 feet at low water ordinary spring tides. The other obstacles, before the inception of training works, were an Outer Bar at the confluence of the Whangpoo and Yangtze, and an Inner Bar, nearly three miles farther up-stream at the lower end of Gough Island, which used to divide the Whangpoo at this point into two channels. Between these two bars navigation was further impeded by a promontory, known as Pheasant Point, on the right bank, where a large shoal extending outwards considerably reduced the width of the river.

In addition to these obstacles to navigation, the tendency of the Whangpoo to silt up has provided a further incentive to the foreign population of Shanghai to stipulate for a permanent Conservancy system with a view to maintaining the channel in the condition required by the growing trade

of the port.

In 1876 two reports by engineers were submitted to the Consular Body of Shanghai on the subject of the Whangpoo Conservancy; but no further steps were taken in the matter. Between 1889 and 1891 an ineffectual attempt was made to deepen the Inner Bar by dredging. In 1897 M. J. de Rijke, a Dutch engineer who had submitted one of the reports in 1876, was again called upon to investigate the river, and submitted the following year a second memorandum, in which he showed that the channel had deteriorated since his previous visit in 1875.

After the Boxer rising of 1900, the Conservancy of the Whangpoo was made the subject of a diplomatic agreement between the foreign Powers and the Chinese Government. Annex 17 of the Peace Protocol of 1901 comprised "Regulations for the Improvement of the Course of the Whangpoc"

in thirty-seven sections. A Conservancy Board was to be appointed at Shanghai consisting of the Taotai, the Commissioner of Customs, two members elected by the Consular Body, two members of the General Chamber of Commerce, two members representing shipping interests, a member of the Municipal Council of the International Settlement, a member of the French Municipal Council, and an official representative of each country, the total of whose entrances and clearances in the Whangpoo exceeded 200,000 tons a year. The revenues of the Board were to be derived from a tax on land and buildings, shipping dues and Customs duties, together with a contribution from the Chinese Government equal in amount to the contribution furnished by the different foreign interests.

No steps were taken to carry out the terms of this agreement. At a later date, however, the Chinese Government agreed to undertake the work of its own accord and at its own cost, subject to the proviso that, if the works were not carried out satisfactorily, the Powers might revert to the original Board as prescribed by the Peace Protocol. On September 27, 1905, a new Agreement relative to the Whangpoo was signed in Peking. The Conservancy Board was to consist of the Shanghai Taotai and the Commissioner of Customs, and for the expenses of the undertaking China was to provide Haikuan Taels 9,200.000, in twenty annual instalments of Hk. Tls. 460,000 If the money should be required at an earlier period, China might obtain a loan for the necessary amount, and the interest on this was to be defrayed out of the Hk. Tls. 9,200,000. The engineer to be appointed to carry out the Conservancy works had to be approved of by a majority of the signatory Powers.

M. de Rijke was the engineer chosen, and work was begun in 1906. His scheme of Conservancy provided for the closing of the Ship Channel then in use to the northward and eastward of Gough Island, and the opening of Junk Channel on the other side of that island, together with the consequent elimination of the Inner Bar. The blocking of Ship Channel was completed in September, 1910, and the dredging of the new fairway, known as Astraea Channel, ceased in the same month. A training jetty, 4700 feet long, running out into the Yangtze from Woosung, was finished in October, 1910, and caused the Outer Bar practically to disappear. The result of the four years' work had been that from the anchorage outside Woosung to Shanghai there was a channel of a width of 700 feet and upwards with a minimum depth of 21 feet at average low water.

Although the Whangpoo Convention provided that the sole control of the Conservancy operations should be vested in the Shanghai Taotai and Commissioner of Customs, the Viceroy of the province appointed in January, 1906, a bureau in Nanking charged with the supervision of Conservancy affairs, and in practice this bureau exercised through the Taotai a close control over the Board of which he was a member. At a later stage, Viceroy Jui Cheng was appointed High Commissioner for the Whangpoo Conservancy, and at the end of 1909 this official announced his intention of closing the Conservancy works during the following year. The contracts of the majority of the existing staff terminated in 1910, and the Chinese authorities had resolved not to renew them. M. de Rijke, who had seen the completion of the main portion of his scheme, left China in November, 1910, and in the following month M. Hugo von Heidenstam, a Swedish engineer, was appointed to take charge in his stead. At the same time Conservancy matters were nominally transferred to an office in the Taotai's yamen.

To the end of 1910 the total expenditure on the Conservancy work had been, in Shanghai currency, Tls. 6,125,384, while an additional sum amounting to Tls. 415,000 was due for contracts already made. According to the conditions of the 1905 Agreement, a loan of Tls. 4,500,000 had been negotiat-

ed in 1903. The total appropriation guaranteed by the Chinese Government amounted to Tls. 10,248,000 (=Hk. Tls. 9,200,000). Of this sum, Tls. 2,955,972 had to be allocated to interest on the loan, which was reduced to Tls. 4,125,000 by not taking up the last instalment due in April, 1911. At the beginning of 1911, therefore, the Conservancy should have been in funds (leaving the remaining fourteen instalments of the Government's contribution to pay off the principal and interest of the loan) to the extent of over Tls. 1,000,000.

Work on the Whangpoo Channel was reduced to a minimum in 1911. The new engineer devoted himself to making a careful study of the stream, only to find that silting had taken place in the middle of the Astraea Channel, the minimum depth having been reduced from 21.2 feet to 19.5 feet between October, 1910, and April, 1911. and that the entrances to the channel had become narrower in the case of the upper entrance the 18-feet fairway having been diminished from the stipulated width of 900 feet to 625 feet.

The total expenditure for the year was returned at Hk. Tls. 817,965, of which Hk. Tls. 241,528 was for interest on loan. This sum brought the total expenditure from the beginning of Conservancy work to the end of 1911 to Hk. Tls. 6,943,349.

In a report issued in October, 1911, Mr von Heidenstam estimated that Tls. 6,000,000, spread over ten years, would be required for the proper regulation of the river from Woosung to the Kiangnan Arsenal above

Shanghai.

Towards the end of 1910 the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce prepared a scheme for the continuation of the Conservancy work, and this was in due course submitted by the Diplomatic Body in Peking to the Chinese Government. Counter proposals were made by the latter, but were not accepted by the representatives of the Powers. As the conditions of the Whangpoo would not brook indefinite delay, it was agreed in January, 1912, that the scheme of the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce should be adopted as a temporary measure, but it was not until May 15 that the Conservancy tax on which the scheme was based came into force in Shanghai. The tax levied is 3 per cent on the Customs duties and 1½ per mille on duty-free goods. The port undertakes to provide the whole of the necessary funds and supplements the Conservancy Board, consisting of the Taotai, the Customs Commissioner and the Harbour Master, with a Consultative Committee of six members, one from each of the five leading shipping nations and one selected by the Chinese Chamber of Commerce.

Work on the channel of the Whangpoo was resumed on a larger scale in July, 1912. The detailed Project, with estimates, for the continued Whangpoo Regulation, issued by M. von Heidenstam in October, 1911, was adopted for execution. The first work on the programme, the cutting of the Pheasant Point, where a serious obstruction existed at the very entrance of the river, was immediately taken in hand. A contract for the dredging of four million cubic yards, whereby all the dredging at present required Pheasant Point, Astraea Channel, and a ronsiderable the dredging off de Rijke's Point opposite Kajow will be effected was awarded to the Netherlands Harbour Works Co., Ld.

A long parallel dam at the eastern side of the mouth, which together with the Woosung Jetty trains the river over the former Outer Bar, as well as certain cribworks in the lower river were built and finally completed, and several valuable foreshore reclaimings made.

Conservancy Work in 1913.

At the end of 1913 the work stood as follows:-

All training-dam work is finished from the mouth upwards as far as Black Point. Training by means of parallel dams is going on in the section

nearest above Black Point. The dredging of Pheasant Point and lower and middle Astraea Channel is nearly finished and promises well for the future. Dredging is going on at de Rijke's Point and opposite Cosmopolitan Dock. Since July, 1912, in all 3,300,000 cubic yards have been dredged. An elaborate hydrometric survey is being carried on so as to systematize the results achieved.

The channel shows a depth of 24 feet at ordinary low water over a

width of more than 600 feet all through from Woosung to Shanghai.

The new Conservancy Tax levied since 15th May, 1912, has yielded on an average about Tls. 42,000 monthly, i.e. at the rate of about half a million Taels per year.

Conservancy Work in 1914 (Report of Conservancy Board).

During 1914 conservancy work progressed steadily along the lines of the project of 1911, although on account of the war and the thereby reduced income of the Board certain items on the works' programme were delayed or postponed. The most important work during the year was the dredging at Pheasant Point, De Rijke's Point, opposite Cosmopolitan Dock and Pootung Point. Contract No. 4 with the Dredging Company for four million yards was concluded in March, 1914, and followed by an extension contract of nearly half a million cubic yards, which was brought to a close in November, 1914. Only at Pheasant Point can the work be said to have been completed for the present, while in all other places dredging has to be continued as soon as feasible. The new training works, started in 1913, on the left bank of the reach between Black Point and Cosmopolitan Dock, were brought up to low-water level and completed. The fairway has generally maintained itself to the depth and width attained during 1913. It has been further widened by dredging at De Rijke's Point and at Pootung Point. A depth of 24 feet is now available at low water over a width of at least 400 feet from the Yangtze up to the harbour (Shanghai) where in the crossing off Wayside Wharf only 22-23 feet can be counted upon. (Vessels with a 28-foot draught pass in and out of the harbour quite safely, the Harbour Master reports.) The Conservancy Tax during 1914 totalled Tls. 448,753.53 as compared with Tls. 508,407.74 during 1913.

Recent Progress :

The work of dredging the Whangpoo River above the Shanghai Foreign Settlements just off the Nantao Bund was begun in 1915 partially at the expense of the Chinese City authorities. An agreement was made with the Nantao Municipal Tax Bureau te dredge close up to the readjusted normal line, inside which a stretch of new bunding was to be constructed. A certain area was also to be reclaimed.

In 1915 the Board commenced to order the elements of a complete dredging unit consisting of bucket dredger, mud-pump, tugs and barges. A repair yard in the lower river was also installed. An investigation of the Yangtze Estuary was commenced. The Conservancy tax totalled Tls. 438,693.08 in 1915.

In 1916 the Board's new dredging plant was put into service, and the Nantao bund dredging was continued. The Yangtze Estuary investigation was concluded. The long protracted negotiations as to the sale of foreshore lands were brought to a conclusion and a supplementary article on this subject was included in the agreement.

The Conservancy tax in 1916 amounted to Tls. 472,911.62.

In 1917 dredging was done at Pootung Point and various reclamation works were undertaken. The repair shops in the new yard were fitted out and a dry dock constructed. A report on the Yangtze Estuary Investigation was issued. The tax during 1917 totalled Tls. 481,155.35.

In 1918, dredging and training works near the Chinese Arsenal were carried out as well as certain reclaiming work. A second report on the hydrography of the Whangpoo was issued. Assistance was given to the local authorities in constructing a new motor road to Woosung. As a sequence to the Yangtze Estuary report a report on the "Future Development of the Shanghai Harbour" was issued. A preliminary project for the Regulation of the Soochow Creek was compiled.

The tax in 1918 amounted to Tls. 471,488.93.

Since 1918, dredging of convexes and the execution of sundry reclaiming works have been continued; training works below Pootung Point, opposite the Wayside Bar, have been commenced and a special investigation into all the possibilities for the future development of the Shanghai Harbour is in progress.

Provisional Agreement for the Administration of the Whangpoo Conservancy with Supplementary Article Regulating the Registration and Sale of Crown or Shengko Lands on the Whangpoo.

Scheme for the Administration of the Whangpoo Conservancy—as submitted by the Shanghai General Chamber of Commerce, adopted by the Ministers of the Treaty Powers at Peking, and agreed to, with embodied amendments, by the Chinese Government through the Prime Minister on the 4th April, 1912.

Art. 1.—The Whangpoo Conservancy Board of Administration, to be known shortly as the Conservancy Board, shall consist of the Commissioner for Trade and Foreign Affairs, the Shanghai Commissioner of Customs and

the Harbour Master.

Art. 2.—The authority with which the Conservancy Board is invested is delegated to it by the Chinese Government; and consequently the Board is in no way subordinate to the Provincial Authorities. The several members of the Board have, as such, equal authority, and the opinion of the majority is to be determinative.

Art. 3.—The Board shall have entire charge of the finance connected

with Conservancy matters. In this connection:

(a) The original annual government grant of Tls. 460,000 shall periodically, on fixed dates, be paid to the Board's accounts, in whatever bank or banks such accounts may be kept, and the Board will take charge of the existing Conservancy loan account and will provide for the payment of the principal and interest as they fall due.

(b) All Conservancy funds, in whose ever hands, shall, within 30 days of the promulgation of this Agreement, be paid to the Conservancy

Board's account.

- (c) Any new annual government grant that may be made shall periodically, on fixed dates, be paid in full to the Conservancy Board's account.
- (d) The Conservancy tax on imports and exports referred to in Article 4, shall be collected by the Commissioner of Customs and shall periodically, on fixed dates, be paid to the Conservancy Board's account.
- (e) The Conservancy Board will disburse conservancy funds for the execution of the necessary works and for the maintenance of staff and offices at its discretion. Cheques will be cashed on the signatures of any two members.

Art. 4.—The several Chambers of Commerce and Associations representing the commercial interests of Shanghai, having agreed to the raising of a tax for Conservancy purposes, consisting of 3 per cent. of the Cus-

toms duties and, in the case of duty free goods, of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per mille of value, the tax shall be dealt with, as provided for in Article 3 (d), as soon as such formalities as are necessary to regularize it have been completed and notified to the Conservancy Board by the Ministers.

Art. 5.—For all contracts in connection with the works, and for the purchase of material or machinery, etc., public tenders will be invited, and

the tender offering the most advantageous conditions accepted.

Art. 6—The Conservancy Board shall appoint, at its discretion, and shall control the staff necessary for the work to be effected, including the Secretary and Engineer-in-Charge.

Art. 7.—The general jurisdiction of the Conservancy Board extends ever the Whangpoo from the Yangtze to its tidal limit, that is to say within those limits, between the high water lines—no operation which may possibly affect the regimen of the river shall be undertaken without the Conservancy Board's consent, nor without such consent shall pontoons or hulks connected to the shore be established.

All applications for the Conservancy Board's consent for such works, etc., on the Whangpoo below the upper harbour limit, shall be made to the

Harbour Master and be replied to by him as heretofore.

The control of the River Police, of sanitary arrangements, of aids to navigation and of pilotage, remain as heretofore in the hands of the Maritime Customs.

Art. 8.—Under the Conservancy Agreement of 1905 provision that the conservancy funds benefit by the sale of crown lands, in so far as such sales were rendered justifiable by the conservancy scheme, was left undefined. During the operation of that agreement large quantities of crown lands, with the conservancy normal line as a boundary, have been sold by the Shengko Office, by which the conservancy funds should have, but have not, benefitted.

This matter needs settlement, but is too involved to be dealt with kerein. It is therefore decided that, subsequent to the promulgation of this agreement, this matter be jointly investigated by the Commissioner for Trade and Foreign Affairs and Consular Body, as a preliminary to the addition of supplementary article to this agreement.

Art. 9.—The duties of the Conservancy Board are:

(1) At an early date, to come to a conclusion in consultation with the Engineer in-Charge concerning:

(a) what should be the ultimate aim of conservancy works;

(b) what is the estimated cost of such measures.

(2) To maintain existing conservancy works in effective condition including the construction of such new works as are necessary for that purpose.

- (3) To provide and maintain a channel from the Yangtze to Shanghai having, as far as circumstances and funds permit, a least depth of twenty feet at mean low water of spring tides over a least width of 300 feet.
- (4) 'To undertake such additional new works as may from time to time be advisable for the maintenance or improvement of the regimen of the river, when funds are available.
- (5) To co-operate with the riparian owners in respect to dredging operations to secure improved wharfage facilities. Such co-operation to take the form of dredging at reasonable rates.
- Art. 10.—(1) The Whangpoo Conservancy Consultative Board, to be known shortly as the Consultative Board, shall consist of:
 - (a) Five members appointed as follows: The several Ministers at Peking of the five nations having the largest tonnage entering and clearing at Shanghai, shall determine at his discretion the means

by which one member of his nationality shall be selected, and the Consuls-General at Shanghai concerned shall notify the Conservancy Board of the selection made and of any subsequent changes.

(b) One member appointed by the Chinese Chamber of Commerce.

The Secretary will serve both Boards.

(2) The primary functions of the Consultative Board will be to watch conservancy proceedings on behalf of the commercial interests of Shanghai and to make such representations to the Conservancy Board as it thinks proper.

To this end the Consultative Board shall be supplied with full information concerning all projected works, concerning progress of current works and concerning finance. It will also be consulted in regard to the appoint-

ment of the Engineer-in-Charge.

(3) In the event of the Consultative Board considering that its representations are insufficiently attended to and that the commercial interests of the port are thereby threatened, it will refer the matter to a Consular Committee consisting of the Consuls-General of the nations referred to in Article 10 (1). If the Consular Committee is unable to arrange matters to their satisfaction with the Conservancy Board, they will refer the question at issue to their respective Ministers for diplomatic settlement.

Art. 11.—The object of the existence of the two Boards is as follows:—

(a) To provide that the Conservancy Board, in view of its executive nature, be small in order to expedite business.

(b) To provide that members of the Conservancy Board be officials of the Chinese Government in view of the extensive jurisdiction, namely, to the head of tidal influence, which it is desirable the Conservancy Board should have.

c) To provide nevertheless that the commercial interests of the port

be effectively represented.

It is considered that the representation as provided will be more usefully effective than would be the case were the representatives of commercial interests on the Conservancy Board.

Supplementary Article regulating—as provided for in Article 8—the registration and sale of Crown or Shengko lands, approved by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministers of the Treaty Powers, and adopted

January 19th, 1916.

Art 12.—(1) Saleable crown or shengko lands on the Whangpoo River subject to this agreement include all foreshore, accreted or reclaimable land—not required for conservancy or harbour purposes—situated between the Whangpoo highwater lines at ordinary spring tide from the Kiangnan Arsenal to the outer ends of the Conservancy's training works at Woosung. Titledeeds to all such saleable crown or shengko lands shall be issued by the Civil Administrator of Shanghai under the following conditions:—

(2) On application by the owner of a riparian lot to acquire foreshore or accretion thereto, the original title-deed being filed in the usual manner, the Joint Measurement Office shall first satisfy itself of the validity of the claim to the foreshore or area to be shengkoed.

(3) The Joint Measurement Office will then arrange with the Conservancy Board (to whom a copy of the official plan of the criginal lot shall be supplied) and the owner and, in the case of foreign owners, with the Consulate concerned, for a joint measurement to be made, at which the river-front boundary of the original lot shall be defined. The Conservancy Engineer will then proceed to survey the area to be shengkoed and draft a plan of the whole lot, on which shall be clearly shown the area to be shengkoed and its position in relation to the Board's triangulation net and existing boundaries. This will be sent to the Joint Measurement Office to be transmitted

to the owner for acceptance When the owner has accepted the plan, the Conservancy Board will assess the shengko price due.

(4) In calculating the shengko price per mow, the Board, while taking as a basis the price of the land in the vicinity shall consider the total cost of filling in and bunding and all other conditions involved.

(5) The shengko amount so assessed shall be communicated by the Board to the owner, in the case of a foreign owner through his Consul. The owner shall make payment direct to the Board who will give an official receipt. On presentation of this receipt the proper Chinese Authority shall issue the title-deed with the shengkoed area endorsed thereon without further delay. No receipt shall be valid for shengko for lands which are subject to this agreement except that of the Board.

(6) Should the owner of the foreshore lot consider the shengko price as assessed by the Board excessive, he has the right of appeal as provided in Article VIII of the Conservancy Agreement of 1905.

(7) Owners who have only paid the nominal rate of Taels 250 per mow, recently levied conditionally by the Board, shall make good to the Board the difference between that sum and the shengko amount assessed in the above manner; on the other hand if the shengko rate is assessed at less than Taels 250 per mow, the Board shall refund any excess paid by the owner.

(8) In drafting the plans of foreshore lots the Conservancy Board shall proceed as follows:—

The Whangpoo River highwater line at ordinary spring tides at the time being (12.5 feet above the Woosung conservancy datum) being taken as a base, the points at which the lateral boundaries of the original lot intersect this highwater line shall be determined. Then two lines drawn from these points to meet the final normal line perpendicularly shall be taken as the lateral boundaries of the shengko area while the boundary on the river side shall be normal line for the time being.

When owing to this extension out to the normal line land formerly belonging to an old lot which has been eroded by the action of the river, or otherwise, is recovered, the lateral boundaries of such recovered land shall be the boundaries defined in the foregoing paragraph notwithstanding that they may not coincide with the boundaries of the original land eroded.

The definition of boundaries above prescribed is made subject to the provision that such boundaries shall not conflict with the boundaries of reclaimed land, adjacent to the lot which is being dealt with, for which shengko shall have been paid and title-deeds issued previously to the enactment of this regulation.

(9) The calculation of the area upon which shengko price is to be paid to the Conservancy Board shall be made in the following manner:—

As a general rule the shengko area shall be taken as being the area enclosed between the highwater line at ordinary spring tides and the normal line for the time being, as allotted to each riparian owner according to the procedure prescribed in Paragraph 8.

But in cases where erosion has taken place since 1906 the area on which shengko shall be payable shall be reduced by an amount equal to the highwater free area eroded since 1906 and cases where a foreign Consular title-deed shows an area extending beyond the present highwater line the area otherwise liable to shengko shall be reduced by such title-deed area.

In cases where the river-front boundary of the original lot does not extend riverwards as far as the 1906 highwater line, the shengko price due on the area between that boundary and the highwater line shall be paid to the proper Chinese Authority.

The English and Chinese texts of this Supplementary Article have been carefully compared, but in the event of there being any difference of meaning between them the sense as expressed in the English text shall be held

to be the correct sense.

HA! HO CONSERVANCY COMMISSION.

The Commission was first established in 1898 in consequence of the rapid deterioration which had taken place in the river Hai Ho during the years 1890-1898. From 1894 to 1898 navigation of the Hai Ho became increasingly difficult and there were periods when even lighters could not get up to Tientsin.

The first Commission was composed of the Senior Consul, the Customs Taot'ai and the Commissioner of Customs with Mr. A. de Linde as adviser. Its labours were ended by the Boxer rising of 1900. In 1901 the

Commission was reconstituted as follows:

A Member of the Provisional Government (to be replaced by the Customs Taot'ai on the rendition of Tientsin City to the Chinese Government).

A Member of the Consular Body,

The Commissioner of Customs and, with consultative voice only, Consular representatives of the various Concessions (excepting the British Concession, represented by the Chairman of the British Municipal Council).

The Chairman of the Tientsin General Chamber of Commerce and a

representative of the Shipping Companies.

Before the execution of remedial works, the length of the river was 48 miles whereas the distance from Tientsin to the river mouth as the crow flies is 28.25 miles. One of the principle causes of the deterioration of the river was the indiscriminate manner in which canals had been excavated. These canals absorbed an excessive proportion of the water.

The first improvement measure was the closing by locks of the three largest canals. In later years four of the worst bends in the river were eliminated by means of cuttings, reducing the length of the river to 36 miles.

The average tidal range at Tientsin during May and June (the low water period) was 0.31 ft. in 1898 and 6.11 ft. in 1919. The area of a cross section was 2,500 sq. ft. in 1903 and 6,400 sq. ft. in 1919.

In 1898 the river was unnavigable. In 1919 a steamer drawing 15 ft.

could proceed to Tientsin on an ordinary tide.

As a result of the Spring and Summer freshets, the upper reaches become more or less silted in proportion to the severity of the freshets. The dredged spoil is pumped into the low-lying areas in the various concessions, large areas of which have been raised in this manner and subsequently developed.

In 1905 it was found that the river could carry a greater draught than

could pass over Taku Bar.

The work of making a channel over the bar was commenced in 1906. At first rolling rakes were used but in 1913 these were abandoned in favour of a suction dredger.

The depth available on Taku Bar in 1908 at ordinary High water was

10 ft., in 1919 the depth was over 15 ft.

When the deepening of Taku Bar was first under consideration, it was only contemplated to make a channel to carry a draught of 12 ft. and it was computed that such a channel would effect an annual saving in demurrage and lighterage changes of Tls. 650,000.

The Commission is financed by an annual grant of Tls. 63,000 from the Chinese Government and by a tax on cargo and on vessels. The total expended to date on improving and maintaining the river and Bar is approximately Tls. 7,000,000.

COMMISSION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE RIVER SYSTEM OF CHIHLI.

Public Statement No. 4 APRIL, 1921.

The Commission desires to bring up to date the position of its affairs for the information of the public.

The Reversion of the Pei Ho.

In Public Statement No. 3 dated May 1920 the reasons for the delay in commencing this work were explained. It was stated that the majority of the Commission were in favour of abandoning the reversion and concentrating on a radical remedy for removing the danger of the Yung Ting Ho but that it had been agreed that no decision should be made until Mr. Rose, who had recently joined the Commission, had reported on the matter. This report was submitted to the Commission in September 1920, and briefly it may be stated that in the interests of the flooded Paoti Hsien district, of navigation on the Pei Yun Ho, and of sanitation of Tientsin Mr. Rose recommended that the Pei Yun Ho should be reverted. He however considered that the reversion would not remove the danger existing from the Yung Ting Ho, the radical solution of which lay in providing a direct route for that river to the sea. The estimated cost of the reversion which was worked out in detail amounts with a subsequent modification to \$5,235,480, against funds in hand amounting to \$1,715,334, so in order to carry out the scheme a further grant of \$3,520,146 would be required. Copies of the report were forwarded to the Ministry of the Interior and the Hai Ho Conservancy, but no decision has yet been arrived at regarding the matter. The position of affairs may therefore be said to be much the same as it was last year. As then reported the consensus of opinion of the members of the Commission was that the reversion of the Pei Ho would merely remove the "additional" danger from the Yung Ting Ho caused by the diversion of the Pei Ho into the Chien Kan Ho, whereas the great desideratum was a radical dealing with that danger. With the exception of Mr. Pincione the members considered that sound policy indicated concentration of all resources on the radical remedy of improving the Yung Ting Ho itself, while Mr. Pincione himself while agreeing that the radical remedy was very desirable, had no confidence that the scheme would materialize to justify the abandonment of the Pei Ho reversion, which would at least provide a partial remedy. Mr. Rose considers that unnecessary stress has been laid on the advantage to be gained in ameliorating the Yung Ting Ho menace, but advocates that reversion on grounds of general advantage, placing at the same time the training of the Yung Ting Ho direct to the sea as the only radical solution both in the interests of the community at large and of the Port of Tientsin. He is now working cut a scheme for providing a direct outlet for the Yung Ting Ho to the sea, and as soon as he has submitted it, the Commission will be in a position to make a final recommendation in regard to the relative precedence of the works which should be undertaken. Expensive as the Yung Ting Ho scheme will be, it should be possible to carry it out if as Mr. Hsiung Hsi-ling stated in the last Public Statement "all interests concerned in the matter would vigorously unite for that purpose."

The Tientsin South Dyke.

The Syndicate of Gentry mentioned in Public Statement No. 3 as willing to undertake the construction of a new dyke from Nankai to Chentang-chwang duly constructed the portion of the embankment from Nankai to the railway and the necessary culverts were also completed by the Commission before the rainy season of 1920. There is now a continuous outer dyke around Tientsin, but to make this embankment efficient against such a flood as occurred in 1917, it is necessary to raise the portion of the railway embankment which lies to the south of Tientsin. Unfortunately the Railway Administration has not up to now seen its way to agree to the raising of the embankment, but it is hoped that its consent will be obtained as the result of negotiations which are still in hand.

Machang Canal.

The construction of a new escape channel for this Canal was commenced in October 1920 and about 80% of the total earthwork was completed before winter made it necessary to stop work. The arrangements for labour were made by a special deputy appointed by the Civil Governor, the intention being to provide work for famine labour. The remainder of the work will be completed during the coming spring as well as the construction of a masonry regulator at the head of the escape channel estimated to cost \$70,000.

Commission's Office.

During the year the Civil Governor intimated to the Commission that he was unable to continue to them the use of the old Customs Yamen for offices. The Commission have now purchased a set of buildings in the Italian Concession which were occupied at the beginning of February last. The address of the Commission is now 15 Via Roma, Italian Concession, Tientsin.

Financial Situation.

This has considerably improved during the past year. With the consent of the Diplomatic Body an arrangement was entered into in June 1920 whereby the Commission lent to the Ministry of Finance a sum of \$1,000,000.00 repayable by monthly instalments of \$100,000.00 commencing from May 1921. In consideration of this loan the Ministry of Finance guaranteed a monthly grant of \$30,000,00 from the Customs Surplus with effect from the 1st, May 1920 until such time as the Surveys in connection with the work of the Commission should be completed. The Commission have thus secured a regular grant to cover their ordinary working expenses. The financial position on the 31st. December 1920 is as follows:—

The total of the two grants from the Government was \$3,562,953.00.

The above sum was allocated as follows:

Pei Ho Reversion \$	1,761,418.00
Cathedral Cutting	403,714.00
Survey	161,485.00
Tientsin Dyke	242,336.00
Hsin Kai Ho	487,000.00
Machang Canal	507,000.00

\$3,562,953.00

 The expenditure to the 31st December 1920, on the above items has been Pei Ho Reversion
 \$ 46,083.71

 Cathedral Cutting
 70,000.00 (completed)

 Survey and Administration
 1,047,023.05

 Tientsin Dyke
 124,510.22

 Hsin Kai Ho
 322,729.73 (completed)

Machang Canal 93,470.87	
The net interest on fixed deposits and current accounts totals	\$106,841.40
Monthly grants from Chinese Government since May 1920	
total	350,767.25
Balance of allocation for Cathedral Cutting	333,714.00
Balance of allocation for Hsin Kai Ho	164,270.27

Total...\$955,592.92

It was originally laid down in the correspondence between the Diplomatic Body and the Wai Chiao Pu that the balance of a sum allocated to a particular work could on completion of that work be devoted to any other of the authorised items. The allocation for survey being entirely inadequate and no provision for administration having been made, the balances left over after completion of the Cathedral Cutting and the Hsin Kai Ho have under this ruling been transferred to the headings of administration and surveys, as also the interest on fixed deposits and current accounts. The monthly grant from the Government is likewise entirely devoted to survey and administration.

The position of affairs as regards uncompleted works is therefore as

follows:

	Allocation	Expenditure to	Balance
Pei Ho Reversion\$	1.761.418.00	31.12.20 \$ 46,083.71	\$ 1,715,334.29
Administration & Survey	1,117,077.92	1,047,023.05	70,054.87
Tientsin Dyke	242,336.00 507,000.00	124,510.22 93,470.87	117,825.78 413,529.13
Ariachang Canal	001,000.170	00,410.01	110,020.10

Total...\$2,316,744.07

General

In some respects the past year has been disappointing. Considerable progress has been made on surveys, and the greater experience of the surveving staff has resulted in more accurate work. Progress however was sadly retarded by the internal troubles of last summer which necessitated the withdrawal of survey parties from the field for a period of over two months. The year was further characterized by a total dearth of flood data, as owing to the want of rainfall no floods occurred in the rivers. On the other hand some improvement works, notably the Tientsin Dyke and Machang Canal, are under construction, the forerunners it is hoped of more extensive works. The Commission is hopeful of being able to put up shortly a definite scheme for the improvement of the Yung Ting Ho and trusts to have the active co-operation of all parties interested in removing what is without doubt a serious menace to the prosperity of the country. While indicating generally the lines on which improvements should be carried out throughout the province, the Commission feels that practical good can best be obtained by working out in order of their importance, individual schemes in detail and by concentrating the energies of the staff and available funds on each scheme in turn.

LIAO RIVER.

Schemes for the conservancy of the Liao River, above and below New-chwang, have been under discussion since 1907, and large sums have been spent on the work. Arrangements were made in July, 1911, for the improvement of the Liao Bar, but the agreement was never 'ratified, and conservancy work on the lower river came to a standstill. On the Upper Liao a weir and dam were constructed across the Shwangtaitze branch, in which the water of the Liao was being diverted, but in October, 1911,

these works were largely destroyed by a riotous crowd. In 1913 provincial opposition continued to prevent the adoption of any comprehensive scheme for dealing with the work. Finally, after four years' negotiations, an agreement was drawn up between the Superintendent of the Customs at Newchwang (representing the Government of the Three Eastern Provinces) and the Consular Fody at Newchwang on the subject of the Liao River Conservancy, and received the assent of the Diplomatic Corps on March 18, 1914. The President's sanction was given on July 1, and the authorized surtaxes began to be collected on August 23. Work was begun in May, 1906, under the direction of Mr. W. R. Hughes, C.E., as engineer-in-chief.

The works under the control of Lower Conservancy are the deepening of the bar by the construction of training banks and dredging, the closing of the east and west channels, and the protection of Duck Island Bend. The closing of the west channel, some 6 miles below Newchwang, was the first work undertaken. It was desired to direct on to the bar, and thus obtain full advantage of its scouring effect, the immense volume of water that had hitherto escaped by this channel, which exceeded a mile in width with from 6 to 10 feet of water at low tide. This channel was effectually closed by the end of 1916 and only now requires maintenance from time The next work taken in hand was the east training bank, similar in construction to that across the west channel but of greater length, being 6 miles long and at places 22 feet deep at half-tide. Owing, however, to the death of Mr. W. R. Hughes, the then engineer-in-chief, in January 1918 and to insufficiency of funds, practically no work was done in the Upper and Lower River sections of the Liao Conservancy until the end of 1919, when each section of the river was placed under the control of Mr. P. N. Fawcett, A.M.I.C.E, A.M.A.S.C.E., was apa separate engineer. pointed to the Lower River section, while Mr. T. Arai, a Japanese engineer, was appointed to the upper section. Mr. Arai was unfortunately killed in a railway accident on the South Manchuria Railway near Kaiyuan in December 1919 and was succeeded by Dr. B. Okazaki in May 1920. The work on the Lower River section is being pressed on rapidly; some 20,000 feet of the east training wall have now been completed, and, as the plant ordered is now delivered, increased progress should ensue. During the year 1920 the east training wall has been continued seaward for a distance of about 4,500 feet, and its entire length, 20,000 feet, has been raised from a level of 85 to 89 above Newchwang datum, i.e., 4 feet. A quantity of 19,354 fang of stone was delivered on to the training walls during the year, thus making a total quantity of 71,673 fang since the commencement of the work in 1916. By the spring of 1922 it is hoped to have a powerful suction dredger at work on the bar, which, in conjunction with the training walls, will, it is anticipated, give a 26 feet depth available across the bar at ordinary high water and thus make the port of Newchwang (Yingkow) accessible to ocean shipping. The surveys made during the 1920 season show a marked improvement in the depth of the river throughout its entire course between the bar and Duck Island. The width of river over which a given depth is available has greatly increased over all the places at which surveys of the preceding year showed narrow bottle-necks. There is now a good navigable channel from inside the present outer extremity of the training walls to above Newchwang, giving a depth of 28 feet at ordinary high tides, and the bar crossing is showing great alterations and improvements. Since 1919 a total scour of 1,500,000 fang of soil is shown to have taken place over the area of the bar surveyed, viz., 11,000 feet wide. An exceptionally dry season, with diminished freshets and consequently decreased deposits on the bar of the mud held in suspension, has undoubtedly contributed to these improvements; none the less, the training walls are largely responsible for the great improvements that have taken place. If

the present rate of scour remained constant, it would, the engineer avers, take seven years to effect the required depth by scour alone; whereas with the addition of a suitable dredger it would be possible to obtain a depth of 26 feet at high water over a channel 500 feet wide from the sea to above Newchwang. At Tangkiawopu, some 80 miles above the mouth of the Liao River, a large volume of the water in the main stream flows into the Shwangtaitze Channel, which empties itself into the Gulf of Pechihli. The main stream of the Liao River from the point of its diversion at Tangkiawopu down to Sanchaho, a distance of about 30 miles, is new gradually being silted up with mud and sand because of the serpentine course of this part of the river, its slack gradient, and diminishing supply of water, and has now become a serious impediment to navigation. The work of the Upper River Conservancy has, as a consequence, been mainly confined during the past year to dredging this section of the river bed with a view to ameliorating existing difficulties for the time being. engineer, however, is now further investigating the proposed opening of this reach of 30 miles between Tangkiawopu and Sanchaho, or reverting the water in Shwangtaitze Channel to the main stream. Important surveys of the river between Newchwang and Tangkiawopu have been carried out during 1920.

BOARD OF CONSERVANCY WORKS OF KWANGTUNG.

The Board of Conservancy works of Kwangtung was formed on Dec. 31st, 1914, by a mandate signed by the President of the Republic. As the first Director General of the Board the late Admiral Tan Hsia Heng was appointed who at his death in July 1919, was succeeded by the present Director General: Capt. Tsao Yü Ying.

As Engineer-in-Chief, Major G. W. Olivecrona has been attached to the Board from its start.

The Board has up to date published three reports on the conditions of the river valleys together with projects for their improvements namely:

Report No. I-The West River Survey of 1915.

Report No. II—Project for the Improvement of the Approaches to the Canton Harbour with estimates of Cost.

Report No. III--The North River System, Investigations and Project for Regulation with Estimates of Cost.

In August 1919, a sum of one million dollars was granted by the Central Government and later on sixty thousand dollars by the Military Governor for conservancy purposes and in Dec. the work was started in the East River District by construction of app. 9 miles of new dyke, by closing of several creeks and by construction of a flood gate at Masai.

The report on this work was published in Oct. 1920, as: Report of the Engineer-in-Chief for the period Sept. 1st, 1919 to June 30th, 1920.

For the season 1920—1921 are planned extensive works in the North River regions especially the construction of a large control sluice at Lupao for the protection of the Canton City from floods.

The present staff of the Board's Engineering Department is :-

Major G. W. Olivecrona-Engineer-in-Chief.

Mr. C. P. Vetter, B.Sc. C.E.-Engineer.

Mr. Chas. Conran—Superintendent.

13 Chinese Engineers and Surveyors.

HUAIHO CONSERVANCY.

Some conservancy work was carried out by the provincial authorities in the north of Anhui during 1915. Impressed labour was employed, every five families having to supply one workman. In this way 45,000 men were employed.

On January 30, 1914, the Chinese Government entered into an agreement with the American Red Cross Society in virtue of which the latter is empowered to raise a loan of £4,000,000 for the purpose of undertaking conservancy work in the Huai River region in the provinces of Anhui and Kiangsu. The loan, which is to be issued at 5 per cent., will be secured on the lands to be reclaimed and on the taxes, which will increase in the area to be protected from periodic floods under the new scheme, and also on the navigation dues of the Grand Canal. The conservancy work may be carried out on the contract system by contractors nominated by the Society, which will also have the right of nominating the engineer-in-chief, who is to direct the conservancy work over an extensive region, part of which is now permanently flooded, and the remainder tiable to inundations which cause disastrous famines. Owing to the European War, the option in connexion with this loan, which expired in January, 1915, was extended for a further period.

CHEFOO HARBOUR IMPROVEMENT COMMISSION.

Engineer-in-Chief's Report from 1st January, 1920 to 31st December, 1920.

BREAKWATER.

Throughout the year work was continued steadily. The North Caisson was successfully placed in position on the 29th May, and was rapidly filled with concrete. The last large blocks were set on the 10th June, and work on the masonry superstructure, and the depositing of heavy rubble and small blocks on the berms was carried on without interruption.

The whole of the work on the Breakwater was completed by the beginning of December.

MOLE.

Work has been carried on steadily from 1st March to 30th December. To date some 1,194,000 cubic yards of sand, 167,000 square yards of brushwood "zinkstuks," and 64,500 tons of rubble have been deposited in the foundations and lower part of the Mole, and nearly 173,000 tons of rubble of various grades in the upper part. The mound is approximately to its full height and protected by heavy rubble on the slopes for a length of about 3,200 feet. A total length 1,700 feet of parapet wall has been built.

The reinforced concrete Caisson for the east end of the Quay Wall was successfully sunk on the 1st August, and has been filled with concrete, and all the large masonry blocks in the Quay Wall and wing walls have been set and about half of the masonry superstructure has been built.

CEMENT.

Since the commencement of the works 18,000 tons of cement have been received.

C. RICKARD, Engineer-in-Chief to Commission.

TREASURER'S REPORT.

Collection and Expenses.

January to December 1920.

Chefoo Tls.

	Collection	Gov. Grants	Interest	Sundries	Expenditure
January	8,797.21	5,238.00	°2,609.40	§ 48.13	*126,441.27
February	5,355.58	***	***	***	2,255.86
March .	10,102.17		°1,531.55	+104.89	2,909.50
April	12,470.59	4, + +	* * *		3,517.05
May	12,174.20			***	*124,554.68
June	13,502.92		59.29	***	3,187.53
July	9,071.89		°41,598.66	.,.	*124,617,27
August	11,168.77		°1,748.56		3,140.78
Sept	10,604.65		°80.97		3,272.78
October	12,329.95	5,238.00	***	§401.52	*124,471.49
Nov	12,660.25				3,276.28
Dec	11,588.39	***	***	§573.60	*124,297.86
Ch. Tls.	129,826.57	10,476.00	47,628.43	1,128.14	645,942.42
(Thefee 1	Oth Tannama 1001				

Chefoo, 10th January, 1921.

A. SUGDEN,

Treasurer.

HONGKONG HARBOUR.

Although Hongkong is one of the greatest shipping ports of the world, little or nothing has been done in the past to improve the natural advantages of the harbour. The decision of the Hongkong and Kowloon Wharf and Godown Company to construct a new wharf for the accommodation of vessels up to 650 feet in length and of a corresponding draught, led to the discovery that the approaches to the property would not admit of the terthing of vessels of over 28 feet draught. The Colonial Government undertook to dredge two berths alongside the proposed wharf to a depth of 30 feet at lowest spring-tide, and to dredge an area of 231,600 square yards as an approach. In 1915 the Legislative Council appropriated a sum of money for this work.

It is the intention of the Hongkong Government to reclaim a portion of the harbour along Praya East, but the work has been delayed by the European War.

FOOCHOW PORT.

In 1918 a scheme was submitted for the improvement of the Min River from Nantai to Pagoda Anchorage, which has hitherto been accessible only to small vessels of from 6 to 8 feet draught. It is hoped to create a channel of a depth of 10 feet at ordinary low water over a width of at least 300 feet. The cost was estimated at \$900,000, to be spread over three years.

oInterest on Current and Fixed Deposits in Banks.

[§]Gain by Exchange on buying Chefoo Taels against Shanghai Draft. †Recovered from Netherlands Harbour Works Co. being repayment of advance for Acetylene for Buoys.

^{*}Include Instalment to Contractors.

CHAPTER XXV.

MANUFACTURES.

It is not yet possible to compile an exhaustive list of China's manufactures. In addition to peasant industries, to which reference has been made in a previous chapter, each year sees an increase in the number of factories established for the purpose of catering for a market outside the local trade. A list of the more important trades is given below, with the factories, etc., known to be in operation.

This list cannot claim to be exhaustive. It has been compiled under considerable difficulty, and the editors will welcome any additions or cor-

rections for future issues of the Year Book.

In the list are not included certain industries with which the name of China is particularly associated, such as porcelain and earthenware, which are manufactured in large quantities at various centres, the most famous being the Imperial Potteries at Kingtehchen,* Kiangsi; the lacquer-ware and objets d'art of Foochow, Canton and Fatshan; the cloisonné and enamel of Peking, Weihaiwei, etc.; the carpets and rugs of North China†; the fireworks of Kwangtung province; the mats and matting of the Canton delta and Ningpo district; the palm-leaf fans of South China§.

ALBUMEN FACTORIES.

Eggs are produced freely all over China, and Albumen Factories have been established in Anhui, Chihli, Honan, Hupeh, Shansi and Shantung. About a hundred factories are to be found at Chinkiang, the bulk of their products going to Shanghai for export. The largest factory, owned by Chinese, is at Hsuchow.

CHINKIANG

3 factories at Tsingkiangpu

1 ., ,. Hsinghua (Heng Ho & Co.)

2 ,, Such'ien. 2 ,, Yaowan.

1 ,, ,, Kaoyu (Yung Ta & Co.)

FOOCHOW.

Columbia Albumen Factory (German). Andersen, Meyer & Co. (American). International Export Co. (British).

§ Kingtehchen, situated on the left bank of the Peiho, is entirely given over to the pottery industry. There are 104 kilns in the town, of which about 30 work all the year round; the majority work for a short season only every summer, when each kiln will employ on an average from 100 to 200 men, apart from the men, women, and children engaged in designing, moulding, painting, or distributing pottery. The value of the trade is estimated at £50,000 a year.

†The carpet industry received a considerable stimulus during the Great War cwing to the export of Turkish rugs being at a standstill, and the shipment of Persian and Turkestan rugs being restricted. "Tientsin carpet" is a generic term applied to carpets which originally were not made in Tientsin, but in a number of cities on the Mongol border. Even now the best carpets are produced outside Tientsin. Those of Ninghsia enjoy the highest reputation, with Peking carpets as second best. Other cities prominent in the industry besides Tientsin are Hami, Kashgar, Khotan, Kuchar, and Sarachi.

• The common fans are the leaf and stem of the Livistonia chinensis, or ordinary small palm, which grows wild in most districts of South China, but is cultivated for the fan trade mainly in the San Hui district in the Pearl River delta. The leaves are gon dried and sulphur bleached.

Tuk Wo Egg Produce Factory. (Chinese). Société Maritime et Commercial du Pacifique. (French). Liu Bros. Egg Factory. (Chinese). Société Anonyme des Oeufs. (Belgian). Lih Tai. (French).

Yuen Fong. (Sino-British). Tung Mow Fong. (Sino-Japanese).

SHANGHAI.

The Amos Bird Co. (American), American Egg Drying Co., Inc. (American), Superior Egg Products Corporation. Tung Hsin Liang Factory. Hung Yue Chong. Hsin Chong.

TIENTSIN.

Yung Chi, Tientsin (Chinese). Kung Hsing Tsun, Paotingfu (Chinese). Chung Fa, Shih Chia Chuang, Chihli (Chinese).
Ching Ho Heng, Shih Chia Chuang, Chihli (Chinese).
I Ho Kung. Shih Chia Chuang, Chihli (Chinese). I Lung, Hantan, Chihli (Chinese). Pao Feng, Han Tan, Chikli (Chinese). Sino-American Industrial Co. Tientsin. China Mongolia Export Company, Tientsin (American).

TSINGTAO.

Nisshi Keitan Koshi, (Japanese), (branch at Changtien.) Taisei Koshi, (Japanese), (branch at Tsinan). Sakaguchi Yoko at Changlu (Japanese).

TSINAN.

Chung Hua Egg Factory, (Chinese). Taisei Koshi Branch Factory, (Japanese). Toa Egg Powder Co., (Japanese).

International Export Co., Ltd. (British).

WUHU.

Native factory at Lüchowfu.

ARSENALS.

There are (Government or Provincial Arsenals at: Canton, Chengtu (2) with Powder Factory, Foochow, Kaifengfu, Honanfu, Sianfu, Lanchowfu, Hanyang (with powder factory), Nanking, Kiangnan (Shanghai), Tsinanfu, Techow, Yunnanfu, Mukden, and Kashgar.

CANNERIES

AMOY.

China Canning Co., Ld. (Chinese) Output 5,000 cans a day. Tao Hua Co., Ld. (Chinese) Fruit, Vegetables, Pork and Beef. Ta Tung Co., Ld. (Chinese) Fruit, Vegetables, Pork and Beef. Amoy Tinning Co., Ld. (Chinese) Output 10,000 cans a day.

CHEFOO

Dung Ya (Chinese) Fish, Mutton, Beef, Chicken and Fruits. Li Feng (Chinese) Fish, Mutton, Beef, Chicken and Fruits.

CHUNGKING.

Chien Hsin Chang (Chinese) Fruits, Meats, &c.

FOOCHOW.

Several small canneries, which preserve fruits, bamboo shoots, &c.

A Chinese Fruit Cannery.

KIUKIANG.

Holhow.

Duff's Dairy Farm (British) Butter, Hams, Fruits, Meats and Game.

SHANGHAI.

Tai Foong Canned Goods Co., Ld. (Chinese) Game, Meat, Fruits, &c.

SWATOW.

Mee Hiang & Co. (Chinese) Fruits, Vegetables & Meats. Sek Bee Company. (Chinese) Fruits, Vegetables & Meats. Cheng Kiu (Chinese) Fruits, Vegetables & Meats.

Hongkong.

Cheung Sing Ta, Fruits and Candy.

Ma Chun.

Chy Lung, Ginger.

TSINGTAO

Shantung Canning Co. (Japanese) Beef. Seito Canning Co. (Japanese) Foods.

CANTON.

Taipingtung (Chinese).

CEMENT AND BRICK WORKS.

In addition to thousands of small native brick kilns there are the following Brick and Cement Works in China:

CANTON.

Canton Government Brick and Cement Works.

Yu Yick Brick Factory.

CHANGSHA.

Brick industry is increasing and modern methods are being introduced. Some of the works use foreign Machinery.

CHENGTU

Only small native Brick Works.

Chungking.

Hsin Shu Chuan Wa Kung Ssu.

DAIREN.

Fukusho Kenzan Brick Works (Japanese). Dairen Mortar Kabushiki Kwaisha (Japanese). Dairen Kenzai Kabushiki Kwaisha (Japanese) Tairiku Yogyo Kabushiki Kwaisha (Japanese). Taisho Concrete Kabushiki Kwaisha (Japanese).

FOOCHOW.

Foochow Brick Factory (Portuguese).

HANKOW.

Hupeh Government Cement Works, Shih Hui Yao, Hankow Brick and Tile Works (German). Hua Chi Hupeh Cement Works, Tayeh.

HARBIN.

Chinese Eastern Railway Co's. Brick Works.

Hongkong.

Green Island Cement Co., Ld. (British).

MUKDEN

Fushun Brick Works (Japanese) Fushun. Ku Cheng Tzu Tile Works, Fushun, (Japanese). Saida Brick Works, Kaiyuan. (Japanese). Shomo & Co. Brick Works, Kungchuling. (Japanese).
Shomo & Co. Brick Works. Kungchuling. (Japanese).
Hayashi Yoko Brick Works, Liaoyang. (Japanese).
Itoh Brick Works, Penhsihu (Japanese).

Ueki Brick Works, Sssupingkai, (Japanese).

NEWCHWANG.

There is a Japanese-owned Brick Works at Sanchiatu, four miles distant.

PEKING.

Briqueterie et Tuilerie (Chinese). Telge & Schroeter Brick Factory, Machiapu (German). SHANGHAI.

Manufacture Ceramique de Shanghai (French). Shanghai Brick & Tile Co., Ld. (Chinese). Tong Dong Kee Brick and Tile Works (Chinese).

TJENTSIN

Chee Hsin Cement Co. Tongshan (Chinese). Belgian Brick Works. Tientsin.

Yangtsun Brick Works, Yangtsun. (British). Manufacture Ceramique de Tientsin, Tientsin, (French).

Kailan Mining Administration, Tongshan, (Sino British).

WUHU.

Wuhu Brick Works (Chinese).

TSINGTAO.

Santo Industrial Co. (Japanese). Tanaka Cement Tile Works (Japanese). Asahi Brick Factory (Japanese). Tzen Shin Ho (Chinese). Hua Shin (Chinese). Hofa Chun Kee (Chinese) Hoantao Brick Factory (Japanese). Fu Ho Yin (Chinese) La Ma Chin (Chinese). Yamaguchi Tile Factory (Japanese). Hsian Li (Chinese) Yuan Tai Hsian (Chinese). Ssufang Brick Factory (Japanese) Hotao Tzu Brick Factory (Chinese). Santo Yogyo Co. (Japanese). Ku Shan Brick Factory (Japanese)

CHEMICAL AND DYE WORKS.

DATREN.

Kwanto Totokufu Ryusan Seizojo. Manchurian Paint Co. Ld. (Japanese).

Sha Ling Chuan (Japanese)

MUKDEN.

Electro-Chemical Industry Co., Fushun. (Japanese). Manchuria Chemical Industry Co., Fushun. (Japanese). South Manchuria Railway's Sulphuric Acid Factory, Fushun (Jap.) Kamiya Distillery Co's Lactic Acid Factory, Mukden. (Japanese). Mukden Chemical Industry Co., Ld. Mukden. (Japanese).

TIENTSIN.

Société des Usines de Produits Chemiques.

SHANGHAY.

Kiangsu Chemical Works (Major Bros, Ld., Proprietors; A. R. Burkill & Sons, Secretaries) (British) Sulphuric Acid Factory. V. Pucandi, Czecho Slovak. Electric dry cleaning and dye works.

TSINGTAO.

Nan Wan Chemical Factory (Japanese). Seito Someniono Kabushiki Co. (Japanese). Chung Ho Kung Ssu (Chinese). Tung Yuan Yung (Chinese). Ho Hsin Tung (Chinese). Tung Shen Tsai (Chinese). Fu Feng Ho (Chinese). Fu Ho Hsing (Chinese). Ishin Kagaku Kogeisha (Japanese).

COTTON SPINNING AND WEAVING MILLS.

CANTON.

Whampoa Cotton Weaving Factory, Canton. (Chinese) Forty power and about 260 hand looms on and off the premises.

Ya Tung Cotton Weaving Factory, Canton. (Chinese) About 100 looms.

CHANGSHA.

Hunan No. 1 Cotton Mill (Chinese).

Tzu Yu Cotton Mill Co. (Chinese). 200 looms.

Dah Sung Mills at Nantungchow and three building at Paochen. Haimen, and Kinlung.

Shen Hsin Mills at Wuhsi.

Changehow Mill at Changehow.

HANGCHOW.

Tung Yik Cotton Mill (Chinese).

HANKOW.

Chen Huan Cotton Mill

Yu Foong Cotton Mill at Chengchow.

Hupeh Government Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills 90,000 spindles, 600 looms, leased to Chinese firm.

Hankow No. 1 Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mill 26,000 spindles. Yue Wha Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mill.

MUKDEN.

Shuang Hsing, Antung. (Chinese) Weaving Mill.

Hsing Han Co., Changchun (Chinese) Spinning and Weaving Mill. Hsing Ya Co. Changchun (Chinese) Spinning & Weaving Mill. Ku Pen Factory. Changchun (Chinese) Coloured piece goods.

I Fa Ho Weaving Workshop. Changchun (Chinese).

Teng Ying Factories (2). Changchun. (Chinese) Spinning & Weaving. Liaoyang Cloth Weaving Factory, Liaoyang. (Chinese). New Mill projected and Machinery ordered 10,000 spindles and 200

looms.

NANKING.

Shan Hou Provincial Workshop. (Provincial Government) Hand looms only.

First Provincial Workshop. (Provincial Government) Native and Japanese Looms.

Charitable Workshop (Chinese) Native looms.

Li Sheng Workshop (Chinese Charity) Native looms and foreign knitting machines.

NEWCHWANG.

One hundred and Sixty Small Mills using only hand looms.

NANGPO.

Ho Feng Spinning Mill. (Chinese) 23,600 spindles. Tung Chiu Spinning Mill (Chinese) 18,000 spindles.

Tung Hui Kung Spinning Mill, Siaoshan. (Chinese) 10.300 spindles.

PEKING.

Hua Pei Co

SHANGHAI.

Ewo Cotton Spinning & Weaving Co., Ld. (British) Capital Tls. 1,500,000. 73,953 spindles. 700 looms.

Yangtszepoo Cotton Mill, Ld. (British) Capital Tls. 1,500,000.

55,362 spindles. 416 looms. Kung Yik Cotton Spinning & Weaving Co. Ld., (British) Capital

Tls. 750,000. 25,700 spindles. 500 looms.

The above three Companies have recently been amalgamated under the name of the Ewo Cotton Mills Ld. with a Capital of Tls. 6,000,000 (Tls. 4,900,000 paid up).

Laou Kung Mow Cotton Spinning & Weaving Co., Ld. (British)
Capital Tls. 800,000. 40,096 spindles.

Oriental Cotton Manufacturing Co., Ltd. (British) (formerly Soey Chee, German) Capital Tls. 1,000,000. 50,768 spindles.

San Sing Cotton Manufacturing Co. (Chinese) Capital \$2,100,000. 65,520 spindles, & 506 looms.

Shanghai First Second and Third Cotton Mills (Japanese) Capital Tls. 2,000,000. 20,392; 25,480; and 50,000 spindles respectively.

Hengfoong Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital \$500,000. 17,280 spindles and 400 looms.

International Cotton Mill. (Japanese) Pootung. Capital Tls. 957,000. 61,056 spindles. 500 looms.

Anglo-Chinese Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital Tls. 400,000, 13,200 spindles.

Heng Chang Yuen (formerly Kiu Cheng) Cotton Mill. (Chinese)
Capital Tls. 250,000. 9,392 spindles.

Tung Chong Cotton Mill. (Chinese) Capital Tls. 600,000. 11,200 spindles.

Nagai Wata Cotton Mills (7) (Japanese) 157,000 spindles. Pao Feng (formerly Yue Tung) Cotton Mill. (Chinese) Capital Tls. 500,000. 18,200 spindles and 300 looms.

Teh Tah Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital Tls. 300,000, 10,368 spind

Hau Sing Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital Tls. 1,200,000. 20,000 spindles.

San Sing Cotton Mill (Chinese) 12,230 spindles.

Hung Yu Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital Tls. 600,000. 30,000 spindles. Puh Yik Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital Tls. 800,000. 30,000 spindles. Yung Yuan Weaving Co. (Chinese) Capital Tls. 300,000.

Ho Tung Cotton Mill (Japanese) Under construction.

Yu Yuen Cotton Mill (Chinese) 26,936 spindles.

SOOCHOW

Soolin Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital Tls. 300,000. 22,500 spindles.

KIANGYIN.

Li Yung Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital Tls. 400,000 16,000 spindles, TUNGCHOW.

Ta Sing Cotton Mill (Chinese) Mills also at Tsungming and Changlochen. Capital about Tls. 3,000,000. 106,500 spindles. 800 looms.

WUSIEH

Yih Chin Cotton Mill. (Chinese) Capital Tls. 240,000. 15,000 spindles.

Chen Sin Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital \$270,000. 30,000 spindles. Kwang Chin Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital Tls. 700,000. 20,500 spindles.

Fu Cheng Cotton Mill (Chinese).

TAITSANG

Tsing Tai Cotton Mill. Capital Tls. 100,000. 13,200 spindles.

HANGCHOW

Tung Sin Cotton Mill. Capital Tls. 1,350,000 (Chinese) 20,160 spindles.

SIAOSHAN.

Ting Hui Kung Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital \$300,000. 10,300 spindles.

SHASI.

Chi Cheng Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital \$2,500,000. 50,000 spindles. Shasi Cotton Weaving Mill (Chinese) Japanese looms.

SWATOW.

Lee Kiang Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mill (Sino-Japanese) Japanese machinery.

Cheng Fa Cotton Spinning & Weaving Co., Cheng Hai. (Chinese) Japanese machinery.

TIENTSIN.

Heng Yuan Spinning & Weaving Co., (Chinese) Capital \$1,000,000. 10,000 American spindles. 200 looms.

Hua Hsin Cotton Spinning Mill (Chinese) 25,000 American spindles. Yu Yuan Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills (Chinese) American plant. 150,000 spindles.

Mu Fan Cotton Mill (Chinese) 5,000 spindles (British make). Min Yi Kung Chang (Chinese) Capital \$20,000. Cotton and silk fabrics.

Heng Sheng Spinning & Weaving Co., 30,000 spindles.

CHANGTEFU.

Kwang Yü Spinning Mill. (Chinese) Capital Tls. 1.000,000. 32,000 spindles.

TSINAN-

Lu Feng Cotton Mill (Chinese) Capital \$800,000. 12,000 spindles. TSINGTAO.

Nagai Wata Mill (Japanese) 20,000 spindles.

WUHU.

Yu Chung Cotton Weaving Mill (Chinese).

CHENGCHOW (HONAN.)

Yu Foong Cotton Mill (Chinese) Opened May 1920 will have 50,000 spindles and 1,200 looms. British and American Machinery.

NINGPO

Wo Foong Cotton Mill (Chinese) 23,200 spindles; \$1,500,000 Capital.

KIUKIANG

Hua Feng Spinning (Chinese) Not yet erected.

DISTILLERIES, BREWERIES, AND AERATED WATER FACTORIES.

AMOY.

A. S. Watson & Co., (Chinese) Aerated Water Factory.

CANTON.

A. S. Watson & Co. (Chinese) Aerated Water Factory. And 9 smaller native Aerated Water Factories in the district.

CHEFOO.

Chang Yu Wing Co. (Chinese) Produces red and white wines which are freely exported to the Straits Settlements. Hung Lie (Chinese) Native wines.

CHENGTU.

Chiao Yang Kung Chang (Chinese) Aerated Water Factory. Chuan Kung Chu (Chinese) Aerated Water factory.

American Chinese Drug Store (Sino-American) Aerated Waters.

DAIREN.

Dairen Seihyo Kabushiki Kwaisha (Japanese) American plant; aerated waters. Tsukihoshi Goshi Kwaisha (Japanese) Aerated waters.

HANKOW

Societe Franco-Chinoise de Distillerie de Hankow.

Niagara Mineral Water Co. (Greek).

Wilson & Co. Mineral waters.

Hankow Dispensary Co., Ld. (British). Mineral waters.

Li Yuan Brewery (Chinese) Erected 1919 February.

HARRIN.

Popoff Bros, Fuliardi (176 miles West of Harbin) Alcohol Distilleries. Kousnetzoff, Shilnikoff & Co. Ninguta, Harbin. Alcohol Distilleries.

"Spritenka" Harbin. Vodka Distilleries.

L. Mordohovitch. Handaohedze (170 miles East of Harbin), Vodka Dist-Ileries.

Antipas, G. Harbin. Vodka Distilleries. Mordohovitch, A. Harbin. Vodka Distilleries. Kozleff, T. Manchuli. Vodka Distilleries. Kousnetzoff, S. Manchuli. Vodka Distilleries. Miginoff, A. Manchuli. Vodka Distilleries. "Spritenka" Harbin. Breweries. "Vostochnaia Bavaria" Harbin. Breweries.

Imenpo Brewery Co. Imenpo (101 miles East of Harbin) Kotelnikoff, I. Manchuli. Breweries. Ternvandt, P. Manchuli. Breweries.

Yuan Sheng Te, Fuchiatien, Harbin. Chinese distilleries. Kovkaskoe Tovarishtchestvo. Harbin. Aerated Water Factory.

Tovarishtchestvo Soedinennikh Zavodoff. Harbin, Aerated Water Factory.

HONGKONG.

A. S. Watson & Co. Ld., Aerated Water Factory. Royal Aerated Water Manufactory Co.

HOIFOW.

San Wan Li (Chinese) Aerated Water Factory.

NEWCHWANG.

Aerated waters are made at Tangkangtzu Hot Springs, about fifty miles away.

PEKING.

Shwang Ho Shing (Chinese) Aerated Water Factory. Five Stars Brewery.

SHANGHAI.

A. S. Watson & Co., Ld. (British) Aerated Water Factory.

Llewellyn & Co., Ld. (British) Aerated Water Factory.

Aquarius. Ld. (British) Aerated Water Factory.

Sparklis Aerated Water Factory, Ld.

Union Brewery, German Co., Liquidated and taken over by a Norwegian Syndicate 1919.

SWATOW.

Swatow Aerated Water Co. (British). An Ho Aerated Water Factory (Chinese).

TIENTSIN.

Crystal, Ld. (British) Aerated Waters. Factory at Shanhaikuan. A. Mackie & Co. Ld. (British) Aerated Waters. Hsing Shih Brewery Cc. Tientsin (Chinese). White Star Aerated Water Factory (British).

TSINGTAU.

Dai Nippon Brewery Co. (Japanese).

DOCKYARDS, SHIPBUILDING AND ENGINEERING WORKS.

ANTUNG.

Takami Shipbuilding Yard (Japanese) 1917. wooded vessels.

AMOY.

New Amoy Dock Co., Ld. (British) Dock accommodates vessels up to 340 ft. by 40 ft. by 15 ft.

CANTON.

Kwangtung Engineering, Commercial and Construction Co. (Chinese Chu Kong Motor Boat Co., Ld. Honam; motor boats and engines. Chinese Government Dockyard, Whampoa.

Hip Tung Wo (Chinese) Motor Engine Works. - Manufactures imitations of Bolinder Internal Combustion Engines.

Quam Wo On (Chinese) Suction gas engines. Kuangnan Shipbuilding Yard (Chinese) 1917. 2 dry docks; 1,000 employees: builds wooden ships.

DAIREN.

Kawasaki Dockyard Co. of Kobe. Dairen Branch.

FOOCHOW.

Pagoda Arsenal and Dockyard. (Chinese Government) Dock over 300 ft. in length.

HANKOW.

Yangtse Engineering Works Ld. Under Chinese Management. New Engine and Iron Works. Hankow.

HARBIN.

M. Shuravleff Engine works. Klingmann Bros. Engine works. Chen Hung Ho Chi. Iron Works.

Hongkong

Hongkong and Whampoa Dock Co., Ld. (British) 8 Berths. 6 docks and two slips.

Taikoo Dockyard and Engineering Co., Ld. (British) Dock 787 ft. long and 120 ft. wide. Eight slips.

W. S. Bailey & Co. Ld. (British) Kowloon Bay. Engineers and Shipbuilders.

Macdonald & Co. (Kowloon Engineering Works). Hunghom.

Kwong Hip Ling (Chinese).

SHANGHAI

Tung Yue Engineering and Shipbuilding Works Pootung.

Shanghai Dock and Engineering Co. Ld. (British) Five docks 355 to 532 ft. long and 53 to 77 ft. broad.

Kiangnan Dock and Engineering Works. (Chinese Government)
Dock 560 ft. long, 70 ft. wide, 19 ft. deep.

New Engineering & Shipbuilding Co., Ld. (British) Dock 577 ft.

long, 70 ft. wide, 21 ft. deep.

Marine Motor Works. (British) Pootung.

Societe Franco-Chinoise de Constructions Metalliqueset Mecaniques

(formerly Nicholas Tsu).

TUENTSIN.

Taku Tug & Lighter Co. Ld., (British) Repair shops and Docks at

Tientsin Lighter Co., Ld. (British) Repair shops and docks at Taku. Chinese Government Naval Yard. Taku.

Adair, Graham & Co. (British) Tientsin. Engineers.

Eastern Engineering Works (Jas Turner) British. Engineers

Artesian Wells.

Mitsui Iron Works (Japanese) Tientsin.

Brossard Mopin & Co. Shipbuilding Works below Tientsin. Ateliers de Constructions Mechaniques (French) Tientsin. Pei Yang Chuan Yeh Kung Chang (Chinese) Tientsin.

ELECTRIC LIGHT AND POWER WORKS.

AMOY.

Shanghai Electric & Asbestos Co., Ld. (Kulangsu.) Supplies current to Kulangsu.

Chou Pei Electric Light Co. Chou Pei, near Amoy.

The Amoy Electric Light & Power Co. 1914. Chang Ma Electric Light Co. Changchow 1917
Hua Thai Electric Light Co. Shihma 1916.
Chüanchow Electric Light Co. Chüanchow 1916.
Hsinghuafu Electric Light Co. Hsinghuafu 1917 (Japanese).

CANTON.

Canton Electric Supply Co. Ld. This company has a franchise for the supply of current within a radius of twelve miles from the centre of the City.

There are 30 odd smaller plans in this district.

MACAO.

Electric Light Works.

CHANGSHA.

Two Electric Light Works.

CHEFOO.

Chefoo Electric Light Co.

CHENGTU.

Chengtu Electric Light Co. Canadian Methodist Mission (private plant). CHINKIANG

British Concession.

There are also electric supply companies in the Chinese city and at Yangchow and Wusih.

CHUNGKING.

Chu Chuan Tien Tung Kung Ssu (lights Chungking City). Wanhsien Electric Light Works, Wanhsien.

DAIREN

South Manchuria Railway Co. Port Arthur Electric Light Co.

Foochow Electric Co. (Chinese) 1911.

HANGCHOW.

Ta Yu Li Electric Light Co. Hangchow. Yang Ming Electric Light Co. Huchow. Wu Hsing Electric Light Co. Kashing.

HANKOW.

Hankow Light & Power Co., Ld. Supplies the British, Russian and French Concessions.

Melchers & Co. Supplies the ex-German Concession.

Taisho Electric Light Works. Supplies the Japanese Concession.

Hankow Waterworks and Electric Light Co., Ld. Supplies Hankow Chinese City.

Chinese Electric Light Co. Supplies Wuchang

HARBIN.

Chinese Eastern Railway Co's Electric Light station.
Choorin & Co's Electric light station. Harbin.
"Energia" Co's Electric light station. Harbin.
Shang Pan Tien Teng Chu. Chinese Power station. Supplies

Fuchiatien.

Ногнош.

Hoihow Electric Light Co.

Hongkong.

China Light & Power Co., Ld. Hunghom, Kowloon. Supplies the Kowloon District.

Hongkong Electric Co. Ld. Supplies Hongkong.

ICHANG.

Kuang Ming Electric Light Works.

Shasi Electric Light Co.

KIUKIANG

Nanchang Electric Light Co. Nanchang. Kiukiang Electric Light Co.

Mukden.

South Manchuria Railway Co's. Electric Light Works. At Antung, Changchun, Fushun. Mukden and Yentai.
Settlement Electric Light Works. Changchun.
Manchuria Electric Light Co., Ld Kaiyuan (Japanese).
Yung Heng Electric Light Works. Kirin.

Electric Light Works. Kungchuling (Sino-Japanese).

Liaoyang Electric Light Co. Liaoyang. (Sino-Japanese).

Chinese Government Electric Light Works. Mukden.

Electric Light Works. Penhsihu. (Sino-Japanese). Ssupingkai Electric Light Co. Ssupingkai. (Sino-Japanese). Tiehling Electric Light Co. Tiehling. (Sino-Japanese).

NANKING

Nanking Electric Light Installation. (Chinese).

NEWCHWANG.

Yingkow Electric Light & Waterworks Co. (Japanese).

NINGPO.

Chen Hai Hua Ming Electric Light Co., Ld. Chenhai, 1918. Yung Yao Electric Light Works. Ningpo.

Shaohing Electric Light Works. Shaohing. Wenchow Electric Light Works. Wenchow.

PAKHOI.

Pakhoi Electric Co.

PEKING.

Peking Chinese Electric Light & Power Co. Supplies Peking City. Peking Electric Co., Ld. Supplies the Legation Quarter.

SHANGHAI.

Shanghai Municipal Electricity Department. The largest power station in China. Supplies the International Settlement.

Compagnie Francaise the Tramways et D'Eclairage Electrique de Shanghai. Supplies the French Concession.

Chapei Water and Electric Light Works. Supplies Chapei suburb. Shanghai Inland Electric Light Co. Supplies Shanghai Native City. There are 3 electric lamp factories in Shanghai.

SWATOW.

Kaiming Electric Light Co. Swatow.

TIENTSIN.

British Municipal Power Plant, (in process of erection; Current temporarily secured from the French Concession).

French Municipal Power Plant.

Ex-German Concession Municipal Power Plant. Japanese Concession Municipal Power Plant.

Compagnie de Tramways et D'Eclairage de Tientsin (Belgian). Supplies Tientsin City.

Tongshan.

The Kailan Mining Administration operates generating stations at all its collieries, and at Chinwangtao.

TSINANFU.

Shantung Electric Light Works. Tsinan. Chiningchow Electric Light Works.

Wuchow.

Wuchow Electric Light Co. Nanning Electric Light Co. Nanning. Laochow Electric Light Works. Laochow.

WUHU.

Wuhu Electric Light Co.

YUNNAN.

Yaolung Electric Co. Water Power plant situated at Shihlungpa, 30, miles from Yunnanfu, which city it supplies. Ta Kuang Electric Co. Mengtsz.

TSINGTAO.

Tsingtao Electric Power Station (Japanese) 1914.

FLOUR MILLS. MANCHURIA.

Russian Flour Mill		
,, branch mill	(,,)	or 1
,, branch mill	(,,)	Shuangchengpu
Shuanghosheng Flour Mill (formerly		ww. 1.1
Dorinjia Mill)	(Chinese,)	Harbin,
Shuanghosheng Flour Mill (formerly		
managed by Gobies and Pazanoff)	(,,)	Shuangchengpu,
Torkansk Mill	(Russian,)	Harbin,
Nijnaya Mill	(, ,,)	Shuangchengpu,
Kuangyuansheng Mill (formerly Man-		
churia Flour Mill No. 1)	(Chinese.)	Harbin,
Kazatkin Mill	(Russian,)	Harbin,
Manchuria Flour Mill (Harbin branch)	(Japanese,) Harbin,

Moschiisky Mill	(Russian,) Harbin,
East Asia Flour Mill	(Chinese,) Harbin,
Chengtai Mill	(Chinese,) Fuchiatien,
Chengfahsiang Mill	(,,),,
Irkoutsk Mill	(Russian,	
Skidelsky Mill	(,,) ,,
Samsonovich Mill	, ,,) ,,
Techikoff Mill) ,,
Isaeff Mill) ,,
Robachiaeff Mill) ,,
Amur Company	(,,,) ,,
East Asia Mill	(Chinese,) Ssuchiatzu,
North Manchuria Flour Mill	(Japanese	e) Old Harbin,
(amalgamated with Manchuria Flour		
Mill)		
Branch mill of the above		
Imienpo Mill	(Russian,)
Changning Flour Mill	(Chinese,) Ninguta,
Yushun Mill	(,,)	
Hsinhua Mill		99
Funing Mill		**
Yushunho Mill		"
Yungchi Mill	(,4	Aigun,
Manchuria Flour Mill, Ltd., (Japan-		
ese)	Tiehling,	
Manchuria Flour Mill, Ltd., (Japan-	C(1) 1	
ese)	Changchu	ın,
Continental Flour Mill, Ltd., (Lately		
incorporated with Manchuria Flour	TD . 1	
Mill) (Japanese)		
Sino-Japanese Flour Mill (Japanese).	Liaoyang	,
Asia Flour Mill (Under Sino-Japanese		
joint management)	Kaiyuan,	
Yuchangyuan Flour Mill, (Chinese) 1914	011	
1914	Changchu	ın,
Fukuda Flour Mill (Japanese,) 1914	Fushun,	
Chienchinchai Flour Mill (Japanese,)		
1911	Fushun,	
Temonchang Flour Mill, (Chinese)	Ssupingka	ai,
Chuantai Flour Mill, (Chinese,) 1914. Koshunho Flour Mill, (Chinese,) 1910.	Liaoyang	,
Koshunho Flour Mill, (Chinese,) 1910.	Kirin,	
Hengmao Flour Mill, (Chinese,) 1916	Kirin,	
Seshankoku Flour Mill, (Russian,) 1910		
1910	Kwanche	ngtzu.
CHANGSHA.		
Hunan Flour Mill.		
CHENGTU.		
Three Chinese Flour Mills.		
CHINKIANG.		
Hui Yuen Pao Hsin. Wusih. Tai Lung. Wusih.		
Vi Cheng Flour Mill Co Chin	kinne	
Yi Cheng Flour Mill Co. Chin Hai Feng Flour Mill Co. Hai	chow.	
Vn Hung Flour Mill Co. Kao	Vn	
Tai Lai Flour Mill Co. Taighe	J. U.	
Tai Lai Flour Mill Co. Taiche Dah Foong Flour Mill Co. Ts	ingkiangn	u.
Foh Hsing Flour Mill Co. To	ungchow.	
Foh Hsing Flour Mill Co. To Dah Foong Flour Mill Co. Wi	isih.	
3		

Chiu Feng Flour Mill Co. Wusih. Heng Hsin Flour Mill Co. Wusih. Yu Hung Flour Mill Co. Yangchow.

Mow Hsing Flour Mili Co. 8 Mills. Wusih and Shanghai.

CHUNGKING.

Chi Nien Kung Hsu. Changshouhsien,

HANKOW.

Yu Loong Flour Mill. Hen Fung Flour Mill.

Chin Loong Flour Mill (Managed by Brandt & Co.)

ICHANG.

Hsin Yi Flour Mill. Shasi.

PEKING.

Ye Lo Mao Co. Teck Leung & Co.

DAIREN.

Asia Flour Mill (Japanese).

KAIFENG.

Tien Feng Flour Mill 1919 (Chinese).

TSINGTAO.

Seito Flour Co. (Japanese). Tsingtao Flour Mill (Japanese) 1916.

SHANGHAL.

The China Flour Mill (Mitsui Bussan Kaisha). Chang Feng Flour Mill, 4. Ichang Road. Cheng Mow Ho, 31, North Soochow Road.

Chung Hsing, Soochow Creek.
Foh Sing Mill, Chapei.
Foh Sing Mill, No. 2, 2, W. Soochow Road.

Foh Sing Mill No. 3. Chapei. Fu Feng, Soochow Creek.

Hua Feng, 58, Markham Road.

I Hsin, Feng Road. Li Ta, Jessfield Read.

Shen Ta, 71, Kichang Kai. Ta Yu, 39, S. Soochow Road.

Yuan Feng, Soochow Creek. Yu Shun Flour Mill (Japanese).

TIENTSIN.

Japanese Fiour Mill. Fu He Kung, Paotingfu. Tung He Kung Ssu, Paotingfu.

Feng Nien Flour Mill. Tsinan.

Chang Tai, Heng Shun King and Poli mills.

Two more mills are projected, one in Tsinan and the other in Chiningchow.

WUHU.

Wuhu Rice and Flour Mill.

YUNNAN.

The Flour Milling Co. of Yunnanfu (two mills of this name).

FURNITURE FACTORIES.

There are numerous Chinese furniture-makers in every Treaty Port. The principal foreign firms are: Hongkong.

> Lane Crawford & Co. Wm. Powell, Ld.

SHANGHAI.

Hall & Holtz, Ld. Weeks & Co., Ld.

Acts and Crafts.

TIENTSIN.

Hall & Holtz, Ld. Takeuchi & Co. Sims & Co.

TSINGTAO.

Narisan Skoten.

Normura Yoko Wood Works.

GAS WORKS.

DAIREN.

South Manchuria Railway Co's. Gas Works.

Hongkong.

Hongkong and China Gas Co., Ld.

SHANGHAI.

Shanghai Gas. Co., Ld.

GLASS AND PORCELAIN WORKS.

CANTON.

Ta Tung Glass Factory, Kayinghsien, (Chinese) lamp chimneys. Hsiung Hc Glass Factory, Kayinghsien, (Chinese) lamp chimneys. Li Ming Mirror Factory.

CHEFOO.

Chang Yu Wine Co. (Bottles).

Tung Chi Glass Co. (Lamp Chimneys and Ornaments).

CHINKIANG.

There is a factory at Sutsien, which was partially destroyed during the Revolution, but still has a small output of lamp chimneys.

CHUNGKING.

Lu Hao Po Li Chang Glass Factory.

HARBIN.

South Manchutria Railway Co's. plant.

Imenpo Glass Factory, Imenpo.

HANKOW.

Wuchang Glass Factory.

KIUKIANG

The celebrated Kingtechen porcelain kilns continue to turn out porcelain, mostly of inferior quality.

MUKDEN.

Hua Chang Company, Changchun (Japanese).

Ito & Co. Changchun (Japanese).

Kirin and Changchun Glass Co. Changchun.

Chung Hsing Pottery Co. Changchun.

NEWCHWANG.

There is a Japanese managed glass factory which produces lamp chimneys, and glass lamps.

Kwang Ming Glass Factory (lamp chimneys).

TSINANTU.

PEKING.

Shantung Glass Factory (Japanese) lamps, etc.

Poshan Glass Works.

ICHANG.

Ichang Glass Factory (Japanese) Chimneys, bottles, etc.

TIENTSIN.

Chung Chi Glass Co. (Chinese). Chung Li Glass Co. (Chinese). Mao Tai Glass Co. (Japanese).
Yang Hsin Glass Co. (Japanese).
Ta Hsing Glass Co. (Chinese).
(A large Glass Factory is projected at Chinwangtao).

GRASS CLOTH FACTORIES.

Grass Cloth, made from ramie fibre, is chiefly a cottage industry. HANKOW.

Wuchang China Grass and Jute Mill.

Hongkong.

China Drawn Work Co.
Swatow Drawn Work Co.

Swatow and Kiukiang are the principal centres of the cottage industry.

ICE AND COLD STORAGE WORKS.

As far South as Shanghai most of the domestic requirements, foreign and Chinese, are met from ice collected in the winter, and stored, in specially constructed huts, during the hot weather.

Amov.

A. S. Watson & Co., Ld.

Amoy Ice Manufacturing Co., Ld.

CANTON.

Canton Ice Factory, Canton.

DAIREN.

Kojima Seihyojo, Dairen. Ice factory and cold storage.

FOOCHOW.

Ice Factory (Japanese) 1918.

HANKOW.

International Export Co., Ld. Hankow & Nanking. The Nanking plant is one of the largest cold-storage factories in the world. Hankow Ice Works.

Molchanoff, Petchanoff & Co.

HARBIN.

The Produce Export Co., Ld. (British) Cold Storage. Harbin Municipal Council Cold Store.

Hornow.

Heihow Ice Co. (Chinese).

Hongkong.

Hongkong Ice Co., Ld. Ice factory and cold storage.

SHANGHAI.

Shanghai Ice & Cold Storage Co., Ld.

SWATOW.

Swatow Ice Co. (British).

TIENTSIN.

Kwei Feng Ice Co., 1890.

China Mongolia Export Co. (American) Ice Factory & Cold Storage. The American garrison also has its own ice-plant.

TSINGTAO

Katz Refrigerating (American) 1916. Dairen Ice Manufacture Co. (Japanese).

IRON AND STEEL WORKS.

DAIREN.

Anshan Iron Works (South Manchuria Railway Co.) Penhsihu Iron Works. Penhsihu. (Japanese).

HANKOW.

Yangtze Engineering Works Ld. blast furnace, Seven Mile Creek. Hanyang Iron & Steel Works. Owned by the Hanyehping Iron and Coal Company. Financially controlled by the Japanese. CHEFOO.

Ya Ching & Co. Ship-engines, stoves, presses, etc.

Tai Chang & Co. ,, ,, ,,

PEKING.

Lung Yen Mining Co's. Steel Mill on Yunting River opened, 1920.
Tientsin.

Ohiro Iron Works (Japanese).

Hongkong.

Hong Kong Steel Foundry Co., Ld.

LACE AND HAIRNET FACTORIES.

CHEFOO.

J. McMullan & Co., Ld. (British). H. E. Railton & Co., Ld. (British). Shantung Silk & Lace Co., Ld. (British). Frank W. Smith & Co. (British).

SHANGHAI

Calder Marshall & Co., Ld. (British).

Amoy.

Malhame Bros Inc. (American) and many Chinese firms.

Амоў.

The Amoy Lace Guild.

Hongkong.

The Swatow Drawn Work Co.

SWATOW.

The Swatow Drawn Work Co.

LEATHER FACTORIES AND TANNERIES.

CANTON.

Kong Kien Hoat & Co. (Chinese). Star Leather Co. (Chinese). Canton Tannery & Leather Works. Smaller Works at Kaying and Kiungchow.

CHENGTU

Government Leather Factory.

CHUNGKING.

Chuan Kung Chu (Official Industrial Institute) Leather Works. Kung Hua Chin Ke Chang.

HARBIN.

N. V. Vodiansky.

Tung Jen Leather Factory.

Tung Hsing Shih Yeh Kung Chang, Fuchiatien.

HANKOW.

Government Leather Factory at Wuchang. Closed down.

HONGKONG.

A large factory on foreign lines opened 1917.

Tung Thy, Hunghom. Yau Cheung, Hunghom. Tung Mow, Hunghom. Thai Hing, Hunghom. Kwong Tsui, Hunghom. Fook On, Hunghom.

All the above are small factories which tan leather for Chinese shoes.

MUKDEN.

Manchuria and Mongolia Leather Co. (Japanese).

NINGPO.

Ssu Ming Tannery.

PEKING.

Army Uniform and Equipment Factory. (Chinese Government).

KASHGAR.

Ili Leather Factory.

SHANGHAI.

Loonghwa Factories 1 & 2. (Chinese). Yü Min Tannery Co., Ld. 1910 (Japanese)

TIENTSIN.

Peiyang Tannery. Hua Pei Tannery.

Chikli Industrial Laboratory.

YUNNANFU.

Government l'annery, Yunnanfu

TSINGTAO.

Okura Gumi.
Meiji Tannery Co.
Tokusie Tanning Plant.
Yu Chin Tannery.
Hsin Men.

MATCH FACTORIES.

CANTON.

Tai Ho Match Co. Canton; Kwan Chung Shin, Shunteh. Wen Ming Match Co. Canton; Liung An Match Co. Szehui. Chieh Hsiung Match Co. Canton; Hua Shing Match Co., Nanhai. Lou Yi Ho Co. Chinyuan, Canton. Hao Ming Factory, Fatshan.

CHEFOO.

Kou Tung Chung Fa Match Co.

CHANGSHA.

Ho Fong Kee Match Co. Changsha.

CHENGTU.

Hui Chang Factory.
Chih Yi Match Co. Kiangpai.
Star Safety Match Co., Luchow
Ho Yo Match Co., Hochuen.
San Yi Match Co., Chuihsien.
Si Yih Match Co., Yosanhsien.
Shui Chang Match Co., Shiuchang.

DAIREN.

Kirin Match Kabushiki Kwaisha, Kirin. Antung Match Seizei Kabushiki Kwaisha. Antung.

FOOCHOW

Kwok Kwang Match Factory.

HANGCHOW.

Lwanhsien Match Factory, Lwanhsien. Kuan Hua Match Factory.

HANKOW

Set Chong & Co. Shui Hwa Match Factory, Kungshan, Honan. Hung Chang Match Manufacturing Co., Kaifengfu, Honan. Ta Chung Match Co., Kaifengfu.

HARBIN.

Ssin Hua Match Factory.

KIUKIANG.

Kiukiang Match Factory.

MUKDEN.

Changchun Match Factory, Changchun. (Sino-Japanese). Nisshin Match Co. Changchun. (Sino-Japanese). Toa Match Co., Ld. Mukden. (Japanese). Shih Yi Match Co., Kirin.

NEWCHWANG.

Tze Yuan Match Co., Yingkow. Kwangtung Hoo Chai Kungssu (Chinese). San Ming Match Co., Yingkow.

NINGPO.

Chengta Match Factory.

PEKING.

Tan Hua Match Factory, Peking. Tan Feng Match Factory, Peking.

TIENTSIN

Sin Hua Match Co., Shuangchen, Mongolia. Shi Tida Match Co., Shuang Kian, Mongolia.
Kwang Ming Match Co., Nanchow, Kansu.
Shuang Fu Match Co., Taiyuan, Shansi.
Yuan Hua Match Co., Paichang.
Yun Chang Match Co., Sinchiang, Shansi.
Ningkiang Match Co., Ningkiang, Shensi. Hua Chang Match Factory (Chinese). Pi Yan Matck Co., Ld. (Chinese). Cheng Hua Match Co., Huluhsien, Chihli. Pingyaohsien (Shansi) 1916 (Japanese). King Chin Match Co., Pingyaoksien, Shansi. Paoyung Match Co., Tseiengwiahsien, Shansi. Nanchang Yihan Match Co., Nanchang, Shansi. Sin Hua Match Factory, Sinshong, Honan.

SHANGHAI.

Hsieh Chang, 4, Tongshan Road Yung Chang, Pootung.

TSINANFU.

Chen Yeh Match Factory. YUNNANFU.

Lee Yih Co.

CHINKIANG.

Yung Chang Co.

TSINGTAO.

Shantung Match Factory (Japanese). Tsingtao Mach Factory (Japanese). Murai Match Sticks Factory (Japanese).

MOTOR CAR AND CARRIAGE FACTORIES.

(See list of Foreign and Chinese Garages, etc., in the Directories).

NAIL AND NEEDLE FACTORIES.

TSINAN.

Plant in process of erection.

HANKOW.

The Government Nail and Needle Factory at Hanyang was closed down some years ago.

Chung Hwa Hardware Co.

SHANGHAI.

Tung Sheng Nail Factory, Ld.

OIL MILLS AND BEANCAKE FACTORIES.

ANTUNG.

Antung Oil Mill.

Yi Hsing Oil Mill and twelve other smaller mills.

CHEFOO.

Kien Chong. (Chinese). Yuen Cheong. (Chinese). CHINKIANG.

Kuang Sheng Oil Mill Co. (Nantungchow).

Tu Yuan Oil Mill. Ya Hsin Oil Mill.

Kiang Feng Oil Crushing Co. Haichow.

DAIREN.

Manchuria Benzine Industrial Co. (Japanese).

Nissin Oil Mills Ld.

Nissin Beancake Factory (Sino-Japanese).

Santai Oil Mill (Sino-Japanese).

Kodera Oil Mill.

Saito Yubo.

Suzuki Yubo.

Yushi Kogyo Kabushiki Kwaisha.

HANKOW

Sing Oil Mill. (See also Hanyang).

HARBIN.

Anglo-Chinese Eastern Trading Co., Ld.

Kasatkin Drisin Patushinsky.

Kroll & Co.

Hulanho Oil Mill (Hulanho) Sino-Japanese.

NANKING.

Chin Tai Oil Mill.

Ju Chih Oil Mill.

NEWCHWANG.

Kodera and Co.

30 Mills in Liaoyang.

13 Mills in Haicheng.

NINGPO

Tung Li Yuan Oil Mill.

SHANGHAI.

Lih Teh Oil Mill Co., Ld. (A. R. Burkill & Sons, Agents).

Shanghai Oil Mill. (formerly German now Japanese).

Heng Yu (Chinese. Heng Ya (Chinese) Mo Feng (Chinese). Ta Teh (Chinese).

Ta Yu (financed by Mitsui Bussan Kaisha)

Tung Chang (Chinese). Seng Ho (Chinese).

Ge Chang Yuen (Chinese)

Hsin Chang (Chinese). Tseng Yu (Chinese).

Wu Fang (Chinese).

TIENTSIN.

North China Oil Mill (Chinese).

Tientsin Oil Factory (Italian) Marzoli & Co.

Tung Hsing Groundnut Oil Co. (Chinese).

Tih Hwa Oil Mill.

National Oil Mill.

Sin Lung Oil and Wine Manufacturing Co.

TSINANFU.

Hsieh Hsin Tung Co. (Chinese) Ichowfu. (closed at present). Yih Shing Tung Oil Mill, Ichowfu.

WUHU.

Yu Hsing Oil Press Co., Yingchow.

TSINGTAO.

Mitsui Ground-nut Oil Refinery (Japanese).

Toyo Ground-nut Oil Factory (Japanese). Towa Hardened Oil Factory (Japanese).

Yuasen Yoko (Japanese). Minamura Oil Refinery (Japanese).

HONGKONG

Pong Wei Ting.

HANYANG.

Bean and Cottonseed Oil Mill (Chinese). Cotton and Bean Oil Pressing Mill (Chinese), Hsi Shun Oil Mill Co. (Chinese). Shun Feng Oil Mill Co. (Chinese). Tien Shun Oil Mill Co. (Chinese). Ying Feng Oil Mill Co. (Chinese).

Yu Feng Oil Mill Co. (Chinese).

Yung Chang Oil Mill Co. (Chinese).

WIISTH

Jen Feng Oil Mill

NANKING.

Yuan Feng Oil and Cake Co.

SWATOW.

Swatow Beancake and Oil Factory.

PAPER MILLS.

CANTON.

Mien Yuan Paper Factory, Yen Pu. Kongmoon Paper Factory.

DAIREN

Yalu Paper Manufacturing Co., at Antung (Japanese).

HARBIN.

Ai Kuo Paper Factory. Hulanho.

HANKOW.

Wuchang Papar Mills. Government Paper Mill, Hankow. Peh Sah Tso Paper Mill: Hanyang.

Hongkong.

Tai Shing Paper Manufacturing Co., Ld.

NEWCHWANG.

Japanese Paper Mill, Niuchiatun

SHANGHAI.

Pao Yuan Paper Mill, Yangtzepoo Lungchang Paper Mill, Lunghwa. Shanghai Paper Mill, Pootung.

TSINAN.

Tsinan Paper Mill. Chengyi Paper Mill, (Chinese).

Plano and organ factory.

SHANGHAI.

S. Moutrie & Co., Ld. The only concern of its kind in China.

PRINTING AND LITHOGRAPHIC WORKS.

There are numerous small printing works in every city of any importancein China. Among the larger concerns are the following: CANTON.

Canton Times Publishing Co.

CHEFOO.

J. McMullan & Co. Catholic Mission. Sze Hing & Co.

CHENGTU.

Chang Fu Co. Chu Chang Co. Official Printing Press.

Canadian Methodist Mission Press.

CHUNGKING.

Chung Hsi.

I Hsin.

Jih Hsien.

Chi Yu.

HANKOW.

Central China Post (British).

Taising Printing Office.

Hankow Printing Office (Chinese)

HARBIN.

Bergut and Sons.

Oriental Press Co.

Kwan Ki.

Shang Wu Jui Shu Kuan, Fuchiation

Hongkong.

Kelly and Walsh, Ld.

Noronha & Co.

Guedes & Co.

Hongkong Printing Press.

South China Morning Post, Ld.

Hongkong Daily Press, Ld.

China Mail, Ld.

Hongkong Telegraph, Ld.

MUKDEN.

China Prison Workshop, Chengtu Hsien.

Chinese Orphanage, Hsinminhsien.

Chinese Government Ordnance Survey Establishment Mukden.

NANKING.

Provincial Printing and Stationery Office.

Pakhoi.

Pakhoi Mission Press.

PEKING.

Bureau of Printing and Engraving.

Ministry of Finance's Printing Office.

Peking Daily News.

Peking Leader.

Journal de Pekin.

Tientsin Press, Ld.

Commercial Press.

SHANGHAI.

China Publishing and Printing Co., Ld. (Chinese).

Commercial Press, (Chinese).

Presbyterian Mission Press.

Oriental Press.

Mercantile Printing Co., Ld. Kelly and Walsh Ld. Brewer & Co. Ld.

North China Daily News and Herald, Ld.

Shanghai Mercury, Ld.

Shanghai Times.

China Press.

Shanghai Gazette.

TIENTSIN

Tientsin Press, Ld. (Printers of the CHINA YEAR BOOK).

Tientsin Daily News (Japanese).

Chung Tung Litho Works (Japanese).

Chihli Kung Pao (Government Establishment)

North China Daily Mail.

North China Star.

YUNNAN.

Government Printing Works.

RAILWAY WORKS.

For complete list of railways in operation in China see the Railway section of this work. There are railway works at Taishatao (Canton), Wangsha (Canton), Changsha, Dairen, Wuchang, Hankow, Harbin, Kowloon, Kiukiang and Tuchiapu, Changchun, Liaoyang: Tashihchiao, Koupangtzu, Shanhaikuan and Tongshan; Changsintien, Peking, Woosung, Ningpo, Swatow, Shihchiachuang, Tsinanfu, Tsingtao, and Yunnanfu.

RICE HULLING AND CLEANING MILLS.

The most important include:

CANTON.

30 odd Machine Driven Mills in District.

Dairen.

Oya Gumi Seimaijo, Dairen.

HANGCHOW.

Ta Yu Fen Rice Mill. Hung Yu Rice Mill. Yuan Chang Rice Mill.

Kiukiang

Ho Sing Rice and Oil Mill Co. Nanchang.

MUKDEN

Chienchinchai Rice Cleaning Mill, Fushun (Japanese). Tungshan Rice Cleaning Mill, Fushun (Japanese). Mukden Rice Cleaning Mill, Mukden (Japanese). Nishimiya Rice Cleaning Mill, Mukden (Japanese). Shun Yang Rice Cleaning Mill, Mukden (Japanese).

NANKING.

Min Sheng Rice Hulling Co. Ho Chang Yuan Rice Hulling Co. Ching Chang Rice Mill. and five smaller plants.

SHANGHAI

Ching Chong Rice Mill, 50 N. Soochow Rd.
Ching Woo Rice Mill, 75, N. Soochow Road.
Heng Chong Rice Mill, 110 N. Soochow Rd.
Hung Foong Rice Mill, 65 N. Soochow Rd.
Nyoen Sung Tung Rice Mill, 45 a N. Soochow Rd.
Tsung Shing Rice Mill, 36 N. Soochow Rd.
Woo Shing Rice Mill, 561 Honan Rd.
Yue Tung Rice Mill, 1192 N. Soochow Rd.
Yue Zung Rice Mill, 5 Fokien Rd.
Yong Dah Chong Rice Mill, Chapei.
Yuen Zung Rice Mill, Chapei.

All the above use electric power. There are many smaller concerns in Shanghai.

WUHU.

Wuhu Rice and Flour Mill (Chinese)
Sao Feng Rice Mill.
Tung Feng Co.
Ho Hsing Co.
Tsung Yu Co.
Mei Shing Co.

ROPE FACTORIES.

HONGKONG.

Hongkong Rope Manufacturing Co., Ld.

AMOY.

Philippine Hemp Rope Manufacturing Co.

SAW MILLS. FOOCHOW. The Chieng Hing Sawmill (Chinese). Germania Sawmill. (Yung Lung Co.) (Chinese) Foo Hing Sawmill. Chinese Import and Export. Lumber Co. (British). HANKOW. Hankow Sawmill and Woodworking Factory Hankow Cask Factory. HARBIN. Chinese Eastern Railway's Sawmills, Harbin and Shitouheidze. L. S. Skidelsky, Veishahe and Imenpo. Yablonia Timber Co., Yablonia. Shevtshenko Bros, Khingan. V. F. Kovalsky, Handaohedze. The Hailin Timber Co., Hailin. HONGKONG The Hongkong Sawmills. (China Borneo Co., Ld.) MUKDEN. Okura & Co (2 mills) Antung. Tsugaru & Co., Antung. Yalu Saw Mill Co., Antung and Kirin (Sino-Japanese).

Yamashita & Co., Antung. Changchun Sawmill Co., Changchun (Japanese). Fu Te Chan Sawmill. Changchun (Japanese). Kirip Farestry Co., Changchun (Japanese).

Kirin Forestry Co., Changchun (Japanese). Mitsui Timber Co., Changchun (Japanese). Takahashi Saw Mill, Changchun.

Yung Heng Co, Changchun (Chinese). Kirin Forestry Co., Kirin (Chinese).

SHANGHAI.

China Import and Export Lumber Co., Ld. Kowkee Timber Sawmill and Construction Co. (Chinese).

SILK FILATURES.* SHANGHAI.

DITATION INC.				
Name of	No. of	Name of No	. of	
Factory. Si	pindles.	Factory. Spin	dles.	
Shui Len	600	Ching Chang	160	
Lee Chen	218	Cheng Yu	128	
Chin Hua	416	Cheng Chang Ta	240	
Yuan Fong	208	Yu Chang	208	
Tung Yuan		Heng Lee	208	
Chuin Yi		Kong Shing	52	
Tung Yi	256	Shui Fong	240	
Yuan Shin		Shih An	230	
Shi Kee		Chin Hua Yun	280	
Shai Chen	216	Yuan Ta	240	
Pao Lung	208	Chien Chen	450	
Yu Ho		Tien Chen	260	
Shui Chang		Yuan Hen	276	
Hua Foo		Yuan Yuan	416	
Tung Shun Kong	192	Cheng Chen	374	
Fu Ho		Chu Leng	448	
Wei Ta		You Chen	624	
Yun Tai		Shui Chang	208	
Landard Control of the Control of th				

^{*} Compiled by the Bureau of Economic Information.

404 116 136 234 258 184 240 172 132 244 162 160 186 240 240 378 160	Cheng Chang Yu Cheng Shin San Fong Yu Yuan Kong Tai Yu Chen Yue Chang (Branch) Shih Chen Yia Teh Lee Chang Yuan Chang Chiu Chen Chiu Chen (Branch) Shing Chang Chien Chen E-wo	300 200 200 252 200 260 208 200 264 256 312 512 208 538 240 540
оосно	ow (1917).	
336 206	Yia Chang Heng	200
Wusi	н (1917).	
330 256 256 208 256	Ching Kee Kai Sun Yu Kee Shih Chang	200 200 80 248
HINKI	ANG (1917).	
208 248	Ta Lon	276
HEKIA	NG (1917).	
e mo	del factories established by	
276 256	Ho Yi Ho Kai Yuan Yun	208 208
In H	ирен.	
320		
ZECHII	an (1916).	
292 84 208 160 82 40 160 200 100 200 40 80	Ko Shan Kwang Ho Sun Lee Hsiang Shin Cha Hsiang Model Chin Kiang Shou Ssu Lung Ho Pie Lung Chung Ho S: H	60 120 8C 35 100 100 200 80 100 100 100 70
	116 136 234 258 258 184 240 172 132 244 162 266 240 378 160 000CHC 336 206 WUSE 330 256 208 256 208 256 LN HINKI 208 248 HEKIA 200 100 200 40 100 200 40	116 Cheng Shin 136 San Fong 234 Yu Yuan 258 Kong Tai 184 Yu Chen 240 Yue Chang (Branch) 172 Shih Chen 132 Yia Teh 244 Lee Chang 160 Chiu Chen 160 Chiu Chen 178 E-wo 160 160 Chiu Chen 178 E-wo 160 179 Shih Chang 180 Chien Chen 180 Chen 180 Chien Chen 180 Chen 180 Chien Chen 180 Chien Chen 180 Chen 180 Chien Chen 180 Chen 180 Chen 180 Chien Chen 180 Chen 180 Chien Chen 180 Chen 18

IN KWANGTUNG (according to the latest investigation).

Mei Ho	800	Vung Vuon Shin	300°
Yun Tsang Hsien	300	Yung Yuan ShinI Ho Heng	500
Fu Kee	300		400
Shih Kee	300	Kwang Yuan Chu	
		Yung Hsiang Ho	400
Mei Chin Chong	400	Kwang Shiun Tsang Chiang	300
Kong Ho Hsiang	500	Teh Chang Cheng	400
Tung Yuang	400	Ling King	300
Tsiang Chiang	300	Mie Ho Chang	400
Yun Tung Hong	400	Mie King Chang	400
Ho Kee	300	Yung Chang Cheng	400
Shih Chang	300	Chia Ho	400
Mei Chiang	400	Fu Kee	400
Ho Lun	400	Teh Chang Lun	500
Pu Chi Hsiang	600	Hou King Lun	400
Yun Cheng Tai	50 0	Cheng Ru Lun	700
Yun An Lun	400	Tse Shin Lun	300
Yun Chang Chong	400	Yu Shin Lun	300
Sung Wei Hong	300	Kwang Shiun Hen	500
Shih San Tsan	400	Sui Chang Ho	400
Kwang Chang	500	Kwang Ho Shin	500
Chung Chiang	300	Shin Lee	300
Ching Cheng Lun	300	Yun Tsang Hsiang	400
Chun Chiang	300	Kwang Shiun Chang	300
Mie Ssu Lun	300	Yo Tung Chang	300
Chau Lo	400	Tung An	400
Chin Lee	400	Nan Lun	300
Ching Chin Lee	300	Chou Ssu Lun	400
Teh Ho	400	Yun Chang Lee	400
Shin Chang	400	Ching Sun Cheng	300
Yun Shin Lun	400	Kwang Sheng	300
Chin Son	300	Kwang Chiang	400
Kwang Shuin Chang		Tung Ho Chang	600
Mei Lun Chang	400	Kwan Hua Lun	600
Kwang Shin Chang	300	Kwang Teh Ho	400
Shou Ho Lun	400	Shin Chiang	400
Yun Tsan Hsiang	300	Shin Ho Chang	400
Fu Kee	300	Kwang King Lun	600
Tung Kee	400	Shi King Lun	400
Ching Kee Ho	400	Kwang King Cheng	300
Mei Lun	500	Wan Chang Yuan	400
	400	Park A mark mark	400
Lin Ho Chang	400	Shi Shang Chang	400
Yun Shing Lun	300	PR 8 015 115	300
Shiu Kee	300	Teh Siu Chung	400
Chai Kee		Tzen Chung Ho	400
King Chang	400	Chuan King Sheng	400
Ching King Chang	300 700	Kwang Chang Sheng	
Ru I Hsiang	700	King Chang Sheng	200
Yun Chang Lun	500	Chi Chang Sheng	800
Mie Shin Chang	500	Kwang Tai Ho	300
Shi Ssu Lun	500	Si Lun	300
		Pao Shuin Chang	400

SMELTING WORKS.

There are a number of Antimony, Lead and Zinc smelting Works at Changsha chief of which are the Wah Chang Mining and Smelting Co, Td., Ta Chi, Pao Hsing, Kwang Yi, Pooli Ho, and Hsin Ching.

S. I. C.

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Nobel's Explosives Co., Ltd.

Ewo Cotton Mills, Ltd.

Bombay Burmah Trading Corporation, Ltd.

Taku Pilot Co.

Nordisk Resebureau

The British and Chinese Corporation, Ltd.

The Chinese Central Railways, Ltd.

The Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd.

Canton Insurance Office, Ltd. (Marine)

Hongkong Fire Insurance Co., Ltd.

Imperial Insurance Co., Ltd.

Alliance Assurance Co., Ltd.

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Hong Name:

Phone 2620

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Scientific Instruments.
Concrete Reinforcements.
Sprinklers.
Weaving Machinery.
Lifts:
Casements Stained Glass, &c.
Flour Mill Machinery.
Safes, Strong Room Doors, &c.
Enamelled Ware.

Hongkong.

Tsang Ching Nam and Ming Hwa.

The China Mining and Smelting Co., Ld

HANKOW.

Carlowitz's Smelting Works-now Chinese.

MUKDEN

Osaka Zinc Mining Co., Ld., Fushun.

WUCHOW.

Pao Ta Antimony Refining Works.

YUNNAN.

Pao Hsing Co. at Kushan.

Pao Hua Co. Antimony Smelter, Tsz Tsuen. Yunnan Tin Trading Co. Kotchiu.

TIENTSIN.

Lung Yen Mining Co. at Hsuan Hua, Chihli.

SHANGHAL

Ho Shin Smelting Works at Pootung.

Ракног.

Yu Chin Co.

SOAP AND CANDLE FACTORIES.

CHENGTU.

The Chih Chi Soap Factory. The Yin Lien Soap Factory.

CHINKIANG.

Yu Li Shik Factory.

Cheng Li Yuan Factory: Hsüchowfu.

Chemoo Soap Factory. Chinkiang. Homow Soap Factory Chinkiang.

Chun Fu Soap Factory, Chinkang.
Chun Fu Soap Factory, Tanyang.
Sin Cheng Yung Soap Factory, Tanyang.
Yuen Kong Soap Factory Tanyang
Ta Lung Soap Factory, Tungchow.
Pao Sheng Soap and Candle Factory, Changchow
Ta Tung, Wusih.
Kwang Chien. Wusih.

Yu Chong, Wusih. Fook Lu, Wusih.

CHUNGKING.

Hsiang Ho Chin Soap Factory.

Wei Hsin Soap Factory.

DAIREN.

Dairen Oil and Fat Co.

Mangyoku Yoko. Manshu Sekken Kojo

Hatanaka Sikken Seizojo.

HANKOW

Standard Oil Co's. Candle Factory.

Tung Mow, Soap Factories. Han Chang, Soap Factories. Han Yang, Soap Factories. Hsieh Yung, Soap Factories. Kwang Hwa, Soap Factories.

Min Hsin, Soap Factories. Seng Mow, Soap Factories.

HARBIN

Dedeneff Soap Factory.

Kroll & Co., Candle Factory.

Fengshun Candle Factory (Chinese). Russo-Asiatic Trading & Manufacturing Co's. Soap Factory.

786 SOAP AND CANDLE FACTORIES—SUGAR REFINERIES—TEA FACTORIES.

Hongkong.

Hongkong Soap and Candle Factory, Ld., Mongkok. Star Manufacturing Co., Ld., Hongkong.

Mitsui Candle Co., Changchun.

Hua Li Foreign Candle Co., Mukden (Chinese).

Ho Mao Soap and Candle Factory.

NINGPO.

Kuang Ming Soap and Candle Factory.

SHANCHAI.

Ting Fun Soap Factory.

China Soap and Candle Co., Ld. (British). (Offshoot of Price's Patent Candle Co., Ld.)

Wah Tai (Chinese).

Nanyang Candle Co. (Chinese).

Asia Soap Works (British).

TIENTSIN.

Standard Oil Co's. Candle Factory. Wan Hua Soap Factory, Chihchiachuang, Tientsin Soap Factory (Chinese). Savonnerie Franco-Chinoise (French). A. Kapoostin & Co. (Russian).

Ho Kee Soap Factory (Chinese). Tung Hsing Soap Co. (Chinese).

Tsingtao Soap Factory. Shinsho Soap Factory.

SWATOW

Hung Sheng I.

SUGAR REFINERIES.

AMOY.

Hua Hsiang Co. Haitsang, Changchow (Chinese). Also refineries at Tungan Lungchi & at Hang Keng with foreign machinery.

CHENGTU.

Chinese refineries at Tzechou and Neikiang.

HARBIN.

Askaho Sugar Factory Co., Ashiho (Russian). Hulan Sugar Factory, Hulan (Chinese).

HONGKONG.

China Sugar Refinery Co. (Jardine, Matheson & Co., Ld.)

Taikoo Sugar Refinery Co. (Butterfield & Swire).

MUKDEN.

South Manchuria Sugar Refining Co., Ld. (Beet sugar; Japanese).

TEA FACTORIES.

HANKOW.

The Trading Co. (A. Koosnetzoff & Co.) (Russian). S. W. Litvinoff & Co. (Russian). Molchanoff, Pechatnoff & Co., (Russian).

Sin Shong Brick Tea Factory (Chinese).

KIUKIANG.

Litvinoff & Co. (Russian).

Molchanoff, Petchatnoff & Co. (Russian).

WUHU.

Anhui Tea Planting Model Farm. Ningchow Tea Growing Factory.

Foochow.

Pakling Tea Factory.

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TELEPHONE INSTALLATIONS.

Telephone installations, operated by the Chinese Government, are found at: Canton, Chefoo, Chengtu, Hankow and Hanyang, Wuckang, Nanking, Peking, Shanghai (Native City), Swatow, Tientsin, Kweilin, Nanning.

Japanese Government telephones have been installed at Antung, Chang-

chun, Fushun, Hsinminhsien, Kaiyuan, Liaoyang, Mukden, Penhsihu, Ssupingkai, Tiehling, Dairen, Port Arthur, Tsingtao.

Telephone installations operated by companies or private concerns are working in: Hangchow, Hongkong, Kiukiang, Nanchang, Antung, Changchun, Changtuhsien, Chengchiatun, Fakumen, Hailung, Hsifeng, Huaian, Kaiyuan, Lishu, Liuho, Mukden, Tiehling, Tungfeng, Newchwang, Ningpo, Shaohing, Shanghai (Settlements) Tsinanfu, Yunnan and many other towns.

Peking and Tientsin are connected by Telephone.

TOBACCO FACTORIES.

CANTON.

Kwangtung Native Tobacco Co. Nanyang Bros.

HAINAN.

Shao Shing Co., Nodoa, Hainan (Cigars).

British Cigarette Co. (B.A.T. Co.) Fu Hua Cigarette Manufacturing Co. Hsiakow.

HARBIN.

A Lopato & Sons, Ld. (Cigarettes). Choorin & Co. (Cigarettes). P. Alutin, (Cigarettes). N. Nastashevsky, (Cigarettes). Hsing Yeh, (Cigarettes).

Canton Nanyang Bros. Tobacco Co. (Cigarettes)

MUKDEN

British Cigarette Co. (B.A.T. Co.). San Lin Tobacco Co. (Japanese). Toa (East Asia Tobacco Co.)

NEWCHWANG.

Toa Tobacco Co.

SHANGHAI.

Sunsun Cigarette Co. China Sze Ming Cigarette Manufacturing Co. Nanyang Bros. British Cigarette Co. (B.A.T. Co.)

Tabaqueria Filipina.

Three Star Cigarette Manufacturing Co. China Cigarette Manufacturing Co.

TIENTSIN.

Chung Hun Tientsin Wusin Tobacco Co. (Chinese). Tientsin Tobacco Co. (Greek) (Cigarettes). Karatzas & Co. (Greek) (Cigarettes). Paizis & Co. (Greek) (Cigarettes). Wu Hsing Tobacco Co. Tung Ya.

North China Tobacco Manufacturing Co.

TSINAN.

Yi Hua Tobacco Co.. Tsinan. Heng Lee Cigarette Manufacturing Co. Fushan. Chung An Tobacco Co., Ld., Fushun.

TRAMWAYS.

There are Tramways (electric unless otherwise specified) in operation at Dairen, Hongkong (Tramway and Cable Railway), Fushun, Mukden (horsetrams) Shanghai (British & French Companies), Tientsin (Belgian Company). A Company has just been promoted for installing trams in Peking.

WATERWORKS

Waterworks have been installed at Canton, Chengtu, Dairen, Port Arthur, Hankow, Antung, Changchun, Fushun, Mukden, Newchwang, Ningpo, Peking, Shanghai (Settlement, French Concession, Chapei and Native City), Swatow, Tientsm (British Company supplies British, French and ExGerman Concessions: Native City supplied by a British Company), Yunnanfu, Kotchiuchang (Yunnan).

WOOLLEN FACTORIES.

Hongkong.

Kam Hing. Maw Sang.

Wei San Knitting Co. Ld. (Shewan, Tomes).

Li Maw Hing Kwok.

Tung Ah.

PEKING.

Pu Li Woollen Spinning Co. Chingho (Chinese).

SHANGHAI.

Pioneer Knitting Mills.

Chong Kwoh Tih Yih Chih Woollen Factory.

Reh Hwei Woollen Factory.

China Cotton and Silk Works.

MUKDEN.

Manchuria-Mongolia Weollen Manufacturing Co., Ld

WOOL CLEANING AND PRESS PACKING FACTORIES.

HANKOW.

Liddell Bros & Co. (Cotton, Wool and Hides). Mackenzie & Co. (Cotton, Wood and Hides). Japan Cotton Trading Co. (Cotton)

SHANGHAI.

Ewo Yuen Press Packing Co. (Jardine, Matheson & Co., Ld.)

Liddell Bros & Co. Mackenzie & Co., Ld.

These three firms are British, and all have cotton, wool and hide presses.

TIENTSIN.

Liddell Bros & Co.
Mackenzie & Co., Ld.
Jardine, Matheson & Co., Ld.
Wm. Forbes & Co.
Collins & Co., Ld.
Wilson & Co.

All the above firms are British and operate hydraulic presses for the packing of wool, cotton, skins, etc. as well as Wool-cleaning and washing machines.

CHAPTER XXVI.

OPIUM.

The poppy has been known in China for twelve centuries and its medicinal use for nine centuries. Opium for medicinal purposes was first extracted from the capsule of the flower about four centuries ago, but it was not until the middle of the seventeenth century that the practice of mixing the opium with tobacco for smoking purposes was introduced into China. The habit was indulged in by the Dutch in Java, and by them taken to Formosa, whence it spread to Amoy and the mainland generally. There is no record to show when opium was first smoked by itself, but it is thought to have originated about the eighteenth century. Foreign opium was first introduced by the Portuguese from Goa at the beginning of the eighteenth century. In 1729, when the foreign import was 200 chests, the Emperor Yung Ching issued the first anti-opium edict, enacting severe penalties on the sale of opium and the opening of opium-smoking divans. The importation, however, continued to increase, and by 1790 it amounted to over 4000 chests annually. In 1796 opium smoking was again prohibited, and in 1800 the importation of foreign opium was once more declared illegal. Opium was now contraband, but the fact had no effect on the quantity introduced into the country, which rose to 5000 chests in 1820, 16,877 chests in 1830, 20,619 chests in 1838, and to 70,000 chests in 1858. The opium question was not mentioned in the Treaty of Nanking, 1842, but in 1858 by the Rules of Trade that were drawn up as a supplement to the Treaty of Tientsin, traffic in opium was legalized by China and a tariff rate of Hk. Tls. 30 per picul was authorized.

The subject was more fully dealt with in the additional article to the Chefoo Agreement, signed in London, July 18, 1885. By this later undertaking opium was to be deposited in bond as before, and was not to be removed until a tariff duty of Tls. 30 per chest of 100 catties and a likin duty of Tls. 80 per chest had been paid to the Customs. Repacking in bond was allowed, and opium provided with the Customs certificate was to be free from the imposition of any further tax or duty whilst in transport in the interior, in Chinese hands. When such certificated packages were opened, they were "not to be subjected to any tax or contribution, direct or indirect, other than or in excess of such tax or contribution as is or may hereafter be levied

on native opium."

This tax of Hk. Tls. 110 per picul on foreign opium was levied from 1858 until 1911, when the British Government agreed to an enhanced tax of Hk. Tls. 350.

In 1906 an anti-opium edict was issued by the Emperor ordering the entire abolition of opium smoking within ten years from January 1, 1907. Subsequent negotiations in 1907 between the Indian Government and China led to an understanding whereby the former agreed to reduce the export of

^{&#}x27;For further information on the history and present status of the opium traffic in China and elsewhere refer to: the "Memorandum on Opium" presented to the International Opium Commission, February, 1909; H. B. Morse's two books "Trade and Administration of the Chinese Empire" and "The International Relations of the Chinese Empire"; Ellen La Motte's "The Opium Monopoly"; the bulletins and other publications of the International Anti-Opium Association; the special anti-opium supplements of the Peking and Tientsin Times; earlier editions of the CHINA YEAR BOOK. These last also contain statistics of the total importation of opium into China and the full text of various of the agreements referred to in this section.

the drug from India by 5,100 chests (ten per cent of the amount of Indian opium going to China at that time) per annum beginning January 1, 1908, for a period of three years, provided China reduced the native production in the same ratio. At the expiration of this agreement, negotiations were renewed, and a new agreement was signed May 8, 1911, between Great Britain and China. This provided for the complete extinction by the end of 1917 of the export of opium from India to China and of the Chinese production of opium. It also provided that Indian opium, meanwhile, should be barred "from any province in China which can establish by clear evidence that it has effectively suppressed the cultivation and import of native opium." Since practically all of the foreign opium imported by China came from India, this agreement seemed to insure the complete suppression of the evil by the end of the ten-year period set in the edict of 1906.

The Revolution of 1911 and the establishment of the Republic proved a set-back to the cause of opium suppression even though the Republican Government adopted the same attitude on the matter as its predecessor. Its efforts toward prohibition of the smoking and cultivation of opium were not invariably successful, however, because of the inability of the central authorities to control the military officers for whom the cultivation of the poppy

meant large revenues.

right to suppress the retail trade.

In spite of the fact that an opium crop was being harvested in many parts of China in violation of the 1911 agreement, the foreign opium trade was systematically obstructed. As a result serious friction developed in December, 1912. An attempt was made at this time by the Chinese authorities to justify the complete prohibition of the import of Indian opium on the ground that the new criminal code contained drastic provisions against the cultivation or use of opium, thus entitling the Chinese Government to close all the provinces in accordance with the agreement. The Government also took the attitude that the agreement of 1911 in no way interfered with the

The Chinese Government, however, failed to establish its case for the entire suppession of the importation of Indian opium. The Indian Government nevertheless announced early in 1913 that after the March and April auctions at Calcutta and Bombay no further sales of certificated opium for the Chinese market would be permitted, though no new restrictions were put on sales for other markets from which the opium could be smuggled into China. In May of the same year it also agreed that Indian opium should be excluded from Anhui, Hunan and Shantung in accordance with the 1911 agreement as the cultivation of the poppy had been stopped in these provinces. It already had similarly been excluded from Fengtien, Heilungkiang, Kirin, Shansi, Szechuan, Chihli and Kwangsi. By the end of 1915 Indian opium was officially excluded from the following fifteen provinces:

Anhui, Chekiang, Chihli, Fengtien, Fukien, Heilungkiang, Honan, Hunan, Hupeh, Kirin, Kwangsi, Shensi, Shantung, Sinkiang, Szechuan.

PRESENT CONDITIONS.

In accordance with the Anglo-Chinese Agreement of May, 1911, the legitimate foreign opium trade in China and the legitimate Chinese cultivation of opium came to an end December 31, 1917. Since that time, however, there have been various revivals of cultivation of the poppy in different parts of China; not infrequently under the tacit sanction or even the active encouragement of provincial officials who took this means to increase their revenues. The central administration has attempted to put a stop to poppy cultivation, but the actual conditions in the provinces seem to have been determined by the attitude of the local military and civil authorities. The following summary of reports from absolutely reliable sources indicates the extent of the cultivation of the poppy in the spring and early summer of 1920.

Northern and Coastal Provinces: Chihli, Shantung, Kiangsu.

No information is available of any cultivation in these provinces. Some opium is imported into them, however, and is sold secretly, especially in Chihli and Shantung.

Northern Interior Provinces: Shansi, Shensi, Honan, Kansu.

No cases of cultivation have been reported in Shansi except in remote districts. The officials are active in suppressing the cultivation, There is some secret sale of opium, however.

As regards Shensi, which in 1919 was one of the worst offenders, reports from Hanchung (upper Han valley, in the south of the province) indicate extensive and open cultivation carried on under the encouragement of the local military authorities. In early May (1920) an observer reported that in this neighbourhood one could walk for miles through flowering crops, nearly the whole of Hanchung being under poppy; and conditions do not seem to have improved since then. The region in question is nominally under the control of the Northern Government.

In Honan, the poppy is being extensively grown in the west of the province: Neisiang and the Lo River Basin are the chief producing districts, but it also is grown as far east as Juchow and Kianhsien. Opium also is imported and sold both openly and secretly.

Kansu, formerly a bad offender, was practically free of poppy, except in the remote, mountainous regions, during the 1919-1920 season. The governor had taken a strong attitude, cashiering a number of officials for allowing small quantities to be planted. With the rise of the militarists, however, conditions became worse. Reports indicate that in the spring of 1921 poppy was being grown openly in somewhat large quantities and with the connivance, if not under the direct orders, of the military.

Central (Yangtze) Provinces: Anhui, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan.

No reports of cultivation in these provinces have been received except for certain districts in the south-west of Hupeh and the south-west of Hunan. These districts are under the nominal control of the South, but actually are controlled by no one but the local military officials. The poppy is being grown on an extensive scale in the whole of the Shihnan prefecture in south-west Hupeh, where opium is becoming more abundant even than last year with the result that a very large number of people have resumed smoking the drug. Some official encouragement seems to be given to the cultivation.

In western Hunan the poppy is reported to be growing in every district, a third of the fields being devoted to this crop in the neighbourhood of Chienchow and Chenchi.

In Anhui there is no cultivation of the poppy, but there are large sales of opium.

Southern Coastal Provinces: Chekiang, Kwangtung, Fukien.

No cultivation is reported in Chekiang and Kwangtung. The officials are opposed to the growing of poppy.

In Fukien, which is partly in the hands of the North, partly under the control of the South extensive cultivation has been carried on in the districts controlled by both sides. The officials have gone so far as to issue positive o, ders for the cultivation of the poppy. Protests were made last year to the Wai Chiao Pu, to which photographs of poppy fields in full bloom were forwarded. The International Auti-Opium Association requested permission to send delegates to witness the destruction of the crops and their proposals in this respect were warmly supported by the British Legation. The Chinese Government, however, on the pretext that the Anglo-Chinese Agreement, with its provision for joint inspections, had expired, refused to accede to the Association's request and took no action to destroy the poppy fields until the crops had been successfully harvested and the taxes thereon collected by the local military officials. Opium is openly sold in this province.

South-western Provinces: Kiangsi, Szechuan, Yunnan, Kweichow.

In Kiangsi there is little poppy grown, the cultivation being confined to the remote and inaccessible places. The others of these provinces continue to be the worst offenders, though some improvement is noted in Szechuan.

Szechuan was practically clean of the poppy (except for a slight recrudescence at the time of the Revolution of 1911) for some years, until cultivation recommenced during 1918 and 1919 in the extreme west, near the borders of the tribal country and also in the east along the Yangtze above and below Chungking. No reliable reports have been received with regard to the situation in the west, but as regards the east of the province there is conclusive evidence to show that considerable progress has been made toward suppression again. The civil authorities were especially active in this work. Since the coming of the soldiers, however, they have been hampered.

In Kweichow every encouragement short of written authority has been given by the provincial authorities to the cultivation of the poppy. A special bureau under the guise of a Military Accounts Department has been instituted to collect the revenue from the opium produced. The opium has been seen growing in the districts of Chenyuan, Shihping, Hsinchow, Huanping, Chingping, Pingyueh, Huanghsien, Kueiting, Lungn, Kweiyang, Chingchen, Anping, Anshun, Ch'ienhsi and Chihchin. During May (1920) the reaping of the opium crop was paralysing all other work. Opium is sold freely and openly.

In Yunnan opium is growing this year in the districts of Chaotung, Tungchuan, Lutien, Kutsing, Luchuan, Wuting, Yuntien, Yuanmow, Kaiwa, T'ench'ung, Likiang, Chiench'uan, Hoching and elsewhere. In fact, the cultivation has been general throughout the province, wherever the soil and climate are suitable. An indication of the production is given by the fact that in one district the price of opium was \$1.00 per ounce in February, fifty cents in March and thirty cents in May (1920) If should be remembered, however, that much of western Yunnan is very mountainous, so that the actual acreage available for poppy cultivation is comparatively small.

Manchuria and Mongolia: Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Jehol.

A small amount of cultivation has been carried on in the mountainous parts on the borders of the three Manchurian provinces, notably on the Korean frontier. The inspecting officials are no doubt often "squared", but inspection and suppression are by no means easily carried out in these wild regions.

In Jehol the officials exercise strict control.

Sinkiang; Reports on the cultivation of the poppy this spring in Chinese Turkestan have not been received, but the conditions here make

unlikely any great amount of cultivation.

Summary: Reliable reports indicate that both last season and this the opium poppy was cultivated on a fairly extensive scale in the following provinces: Shensi, Hunan, Hupeh, Honan, Fukien, Kweichow, Yunnan and Szechuan. In Kansu there was a marked recrudescence in the 1920-21 season. There also has been some cultivation in practically all of the other provinces, especially in the remote and inaccessible districts. Opium is imported and sold either openly or secretly in every province.

The southern authorities are nominally responsible for the cultivation in Hunan, Hupeh, Kweichow, Yunnan, Szechuan and part of Fukien. The Peking Government is responsible for Honan, Shensi and part of Fukien. In general it may be assumed that the military authorities, who are in most cases a law unto themselves, and whom the Southern and Northern Governments cannot or dare not coerce into obedience, are to blame for the

cultivation.

Reliable figures of the quantity of opium produced by this illegal cultivation are not available. This is not the only source of opium supply, however. It is supplemented by opium smuggled in at various points. Naturally figures of the quantity entering China in this way are not available. The following extracts from the Chinese Maritime Customs Trade Returns for 1919 (Vol. 11. Yangtze Ports—Chungking to Chinkiang) indicate the

general situation.

"Ichang:—The resumption of regular passenger traffic on the Ichang-Chungking run and the facilities afforded by increased steamer traffic gave great impetus to the smuggling of opium, both by passengers in their baggage and by the crews of vessels on the Upper River run. A vigorous campaign against this disgraceful traffic has been maintained and large quantities of the drug seized. Despite this, the traffic, which is very profitable when successful, continues unabated and will continue so until the growing of the poppy in Szechuan has been entirely eradicated. As the severity of our searches increased, the ingenuity of the smugglers followed suit, and some very ingenious methods of smuggling have been discovered. The total amount seized by the Ichang Customs during the year under review was 94,452 taels (59.03½ piculs), or over 4 tons. In the previous year 9,210 taels were seized.

"Hankow: —Opium.—A considerable illicit traffic exists, and the total cuantity of this contraband drug confiscated and destroyed by the Customs authorities during the year amounted to over 38,000 taels.

"Wanhsien :- The total quantity of the drug (opium) confiscated by

the Customs druing the year aggregated 1,046 catties.'

MORPHIA AND OTHER NARCOTICS.

The difficulties attendant upon the importation of opium since the end of the period when it could be carried on legally have led those profiting by the sale of narcotics to China to develop the trade in morphia, cocaine, heroine and other derivatives from these substances. These are far more easily smuggled than the bulkier opium. At present these narcotics are distributed in China chiefly in two forms: by direct hypodermic injection and in pills and other pharmaceutical articles purporting to be cures for various ills. The wealthier users of the drugs secure their own hypodermic needles and supplies of the narcotics. For the poorer victims special shops are established. Here the coolie passes two or three coppers through a hole in the wall, follows them with his arm, receives the injection and departs -all without seeing those who give him the drug or being seen by them. The drugged pills and similar products are sold by itinerant medicine vendors and by regular drug stores. No indication is given that these products contain narcotics; they are advertised simply as cures for all manner of ills.

First-hand information indicates that morphia and other opium deriva-

tives are sold in these pharmaceutical disguises as follows:

Northern and Central Provinces: Chihli, Shantung, Kiangsu.

In Chihli, morphia and other narcotics are sold in important quantities,

toth openly and secretly.

In Shantung, outside of the territories controlled or under the influence of the Japanese there is some secret trade, though the quantity probably is not large. The indications point to quite a thriving though secret trade in narcotics in the territory under Japanese control.

In Kiangsu these opium derivatives are sold both openly and secretly

in important quantities.

Northern Interior Provinces: Shansi, Shensi, Honan, Kansu.

The trade in pills containing morphia seems to be especially brisk in Shansi. There is also some sale of opium derivatives in other forms, though this is carried on secretly. The same conditions exist in Honan, while in Shensi morphia is almost unknown. Information is not available concerning Kansu. In these provinces these drugs are distributed almost exclusively in the forms of pharmaceutical preparations. There is little use of the hypodermic needle.

Central Provinces: Anhui, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan.

In Anhui the indications are of a large and open trade in morphia, with the officials "in the position of helpless men." In Kiangsi there is a small secret trade. So also in Hupeh and Hunan.

Southern Central Provinces: Chekiang, Kwangtung, Fukien.

In the first two of these provinces there is a fairly large trade in morphia, both secret and open. The opium derivatives are almost unknown in Fukien, except for a small trade in the vicinity of Amoy.

South western Provinces: Kwangsi, Szechuan, Yunnan, Kweichow.

In Kwangsi there is a large secret and open trade in opium derivatives. These drugs are practically unknown in the other three provinces.

Manchuria and Mongolia: Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Jehol.

The Chinese officials in these provinces rigidly suppress the trade in opium derivatives. There seems to be, however, a steadily growing trade in these drugs, chiefly under Japanese auspices

Summary: In comparing these reports with those covering the cultivation of opium, one fact becomes strikingly prominent: the trade in the opium derivatives is in inverse ratic to the cultivation of the poppy. That is to say: where the people secure narcotics from locally-grown poppy, there is little if any demand for these drugs from outside sources; but where the restrictions prevent local cultivation, the people are supplied with opium derivatives through illicit channels.

The fact that the poppy is not grown in certain districts does not mean, therefore, that the people in these regions are not being poisoned by narcotics. It means simply that larger quantities of the more deadly opium derivatives are being consumed.

It is pertinent to remember in this connection, that practically no morphia is manufactured in China; all that comes in is smuggled. The customs officials and the consular courts are making every effort to prevent the smuggling of these drugs. The quantities which are seized, however, indicate rather the vastness of the traffic than any really successful suppression of it. It is certain that an extended and vigorous trade has developed in morphia, cocaine and related narcotics, This trade would seem to be carried on chiefly by the Japanese, and to take the form of enormous sales of the pills and other pharmaceutical preparations referred to above.

THE SOURCES OF THE MORPHIA.

Practically all of the morphia coming to China is manufactured in the United States and Great Britain, from which countries it is exported to Japan whence it finds its way into China. Morphia from Great Britain, by a special convention may pass through the United States in bond. These shipments are entered in the British records as being made to the United States; but they neither appear in the American records nor are in any way subject to American control by reason of the provision referred to. The facility with which the drug may be purchased in Great Britain and transhipped through the United States has contributed largely to the increase in the traffic. New legislation under consideration in England and the United States will, if passed, help to improve the situation.

The American law on the question, like the British, has permitted the shipment of these drugs in unlimited quantities to Japan. because the latter country has regulations covering their import, as long as these Japanese regulations were complied with. The Japanese regulations provide that no one may import opium from abroad, but they permit the free importation of opium and cocaine derivatives as medical materials. Thus there is nothing in the regulations of any of these three countries to prevent unlimited quantities of these drugs from going to Japan, nor to interfere with their flow in similar quantities to China through Japan. Nor is there anything in the American laws to prevent the manufacture of the drugs in unlimited

quantities, nor to prevent the importation into the United States of raw materials for the manufacture of these drugs.

The proportions assumed by this trade can be seen by reference to the following figures of importation of morphia into Japan.

Year	Quantity in Ozs.	Year	Quantity in Ozs.
1898	13,376	1903	25,849
1899	6,324	1904	12,730
1900	25,570	1950	23,201
1901	13,795	1906	21,713
1902	17,668	1907	26,433

The total for this ten-year period was 197,659 ozs., a yearly average of 19,766 ozs.

The figures only ten years later show that Japan imported in the year 1917 no less than 600,228 ozs. In 1920 the amount had jumped to 800,000 ozs. However, to be able to trace the relation between the gradual diminution of the importation of opium into China and the contemporaneous increase in the imports of morphia into Japan, it is necessary to take the figures of the Japanese trade returns. They show:

Year	Quantity in Ozs.	Year	Quantity in Ozs.
1915	358,543	1918	165.078
1916	558,812	. 1919	409,109
)917	600,228	1920	(Approx.) 880,000

The total for this six year period is 2,871,779 ozs., an annual average of 478,629 ozs. This is an increase of 2,406% over the average for the decade 1898-1907.

The largest amount imported in any single year in the decade preceding the suppression of the opium trade in China was 32,201 ozs. The record year in the six year period preceding 1921 was 1920, with 880,000 ozs.—an increase of 2.733%.

Moreover, besides this amount which is officially reported in the Japanese Customs returns quantities of the drug pass through Japanese ports from the United States and elsewhere without appearing in the official records because the material is trans-shipped in the harbours. This trans-shipment goes on chiefly at Kobe No accurate record of the quantity of morphia reaching China in this way is possible, but good evidence shows that it is large, amounting to several tens of thousands of ounces annually.

The use of opium and cocaine derivatives in Japan is very strictly confined by law to purely medical purposes. A small increase in the quantity imported might be explained by the increase of the population of Japan. But the actual increase has been over 2,400%.

Nor can Japan possibly use legitimately anything like the quantities of morphia which she imports On a very liberal estimate, the legitimate medical consumption of morphia in Japan in 1920 could not well have exceeded 7,500 ozs. for the population of 60,000,000. Yet during that year £80,000 ozs. were imported—an excess over legitimate consumption of 872,500 ozs. The indications are plain that practically all of this excess has found its way into China through various secret channels. And besides this, of which there is official record, there are the important quantities trans-shipped in Japanese ports and unrecorded; not to mention the amounts which find their way in from still other sources.

A traffic of such dimensions in these drugs is obviously a grave danger to China. Just how grave, a few figures will show.

A certain amount of morphia is needed in China to meet the legitimate medical requirements. But this is proportionately much less than in countries where the science of medicine is more highly developed, since morphia can be legitimately used only in connection with the most scientific practice—of which there is relatively very little in China. Moreover, practically all of the morphia actually used by the trained physicians is imported direct.

Thus we may safely estimate that in 1920 not less than 872,500 ozs. of morphia—not to mention cocaine, heroin, etc., found their way into China

though illicit channels, this being the excess of the importations into Japan over Japan's legitimate requirements. And in the past six years from the same source and by the same means 2,826,779 ozs. have been poured into China.

This means that in 1920 enough morphia entered China, over and above the quantities seized and those required for legitimate uses, to provide at least 1,675.200 000 injections, or estimating the population of China at 400. 600,000, enough to give every man woman and child in the country more than four doses. In the last six years, there have come 2,826,779 ozs. enough for 5,427,415,680 injections, or over two doses per person per year.

But the situation is made more serious by the fact that morphia is practically unknown in certain provinces and is sold only in small quantities in others. The lists have been given above. Deducting from 400,000,000 the total population of the provinces where the drug is unknown, and onehalf of the population of those in which the trade is small (figures from the Encyclopaedia Sinica), it appears that the 1.675,200,000 doses in 1920 and the 5,427,415,680 in the last six years were absorbed by approximately 200,000,000 people. This means an average per capita poisoning of eight doses in 1920, and of four each year since 1914.

Comment on the seriousness of the situation indicated by these figures is scarcely needed. But perhaps the most tragic feature is that conditions have been getting worse rather than better. Moreover, it is important to bear in mind that these figures cover only one source of supply of only one drug. No account is taken of the various other opium and cocaine derivates which are smuggled into China. It is impossible to estimate at all accurately how large the trade in these other drugs actually is. But that it is far from small is indicated by the quantities that are siezed, and by the acknowledgements of those making the seizures that these represent only a small part of the total.

In fact, all the evidence seems to indicate that the trade in these derivatives and especially dangerous drugs is growing year by year in spite of efforts at suppression. The prospect of new legislation in America, England and Japan, and the recent appointment of an Opium Commission by the

League of Nations alone give some hope of ultimate improvement.

Part of the recent increase can be attributed to the disturbed condition of the country. Part is due to the fact that the common people of China do not know the dangerous effects of the drug; and a still larger part, perhaps, to the further fact that the pills and other pharmaceutical preparations through which the drugs are distributed bear no indication on the wrappers that they contain any of these Larmful ingredients. It is only recently, for example, that it has been found that the "Chin Tan" or "Golden Pill," which is sold widely throughout many of the provinces. contains morphine in relatively large quantities. Many other preparations, similarly harmful have been found by the Customs and government officials, and lists of these are published and distributed from time to time.

All these causes are of secondary importance, however. The principal reason for the increase in the traffic in opium and cocaine derivates is that those who profit by the poisoning of China find it easier to deal in these drugs than in opium. Thus, though the native production and the importation of opium has been reduced materially the danger to China from narcotics

has not been removed.

CUSTOMS SEIZURES.

The 1920 Customs Report states that opium is at present imported only into the Leased Territories of Dairen and Kiaochao, and amounted to 136.20 piculs, as compared with 333 and 156 piculs in 1918 and 1919 respectively. With the above exception, opium has accordingly disappeared from the Customs returns as an article of import. This, it is feared, does not imply that the Chinese masses have been weaned from their pernicious habit of smoking opium, and there is good reason to believe that the poppy plant is still being extensively cultivated, more or less surreptitiously, in

several provinces. In addition to this home grown supply it is known that, owing to the extreme ease with which the drug lends itself to concealment, considerable quantities of opium are smuggled into China, in spite of constant vigilance on the part of the Customs officers. The quantities of opium, morphia, and cocaine seized by the Chinese Custom Houses during the last four years are given below:—

YEAR.	Оріим.	Morphia. Cocaine.
1918	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	147 15
TOTAL	192,146 = 85 15 2 10	1.321 475

tApril to December.

THE ANTI-NARCOTIC CAMPAIGN.

OFFICIAL ACTION.

The agitation against the opium evil has been carried on for many years. Foreigners have taken the leading role, with the co-operation of Chinese officials and others. The Imperial anti-opium edicts and the Anglo-Chinese agreements have been referred to above.

In 1909 an International Opium Commission, convened on the initiative of the United States, met at Shanghai. Besides the United States, the following Powers were represented: Austria-Hungary, China, France Germany, Great Britain, Japan, Netherlands, Persia, Portugal, Russia, Siam. Resolutions were adopted for submission to the respective Governments urging united international effort to aid China in the suppression of the opium evil. Toward this end the Commission proposed that the Powers individually take action to prevent at the ports of departure the shipment of opium and its derivatives to any country which prohibited the entry of these drugs. It also proposed that steps be taken to close the opium dens and shops in the foreign settlements in China. Laws embodying the gist of these recommendations were passed by the leading powers.

On December 10, 1911, an International Opium Conference met at the Hague, again on the initiative of the United States. China, France, Germany Great Britain, The Netherlands, Italy, Japan, Persia, Portugal, Russia, Siam and the United States were represented. On January 23, 1912, the

following Convention was signed.

INTERATIONAL OPIUM CONVENTION

CHAPTER I .- Raw Opium

Definition.—By "raw opium" is understood:

The spontaneously coagulated juice from the capsules of the *Papaver scmniferum*, which has only been submitted to the necessary manipulations for packing and transport.

ARTICLE I.—The contracting Powers shall enact effective laws or regulations for the control of the production and distribution of raw opium,

unless laws or regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 2.—Due regard being had to the difference in their commercial conditions, the contracting Powers shall limit the number of towns, ports, or other localities through which the export or import of raw opium shall be permitted.

ARTICLE 3 .- The contracting Powers shall take measures-

(a) To prevent the export of raw opium to countries which shall have prohibited its entry, and

(b) To control the export of raw opium to countries which restrict its

import, unless regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 4.—The contracting Powers shall make regulations requiring that every package containing raw opium intended for export shall be marked in such a way as to indicate its contents, provided that the consignment exceeds 5 kilog.

ARTICLE 5.—The contracting Powers shall not allow the import and

export of raw opium except by duly authorized persons.

CHAPTER II.-Prepared Opium

Definition.—By "prepared opium" is understood:

The product of raw opium, obtained by a series of special operations, especially by dissolving, boiling, roasting, and fermentation, designed to transform it into an extract suitable for consumption.

Prepared opium includes dross and all other residues remaining when

opium has been smoked.

ARTICLE 6.—The contracting Powers shall take measures for the gradual and effective suppression of the manufacture of, internal trade in, and use of prepared opium, with due regard to the varying circumstances of each country concerned, unless regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 7.—The contracting Powers shall prohibit the import and export of prepared opium; those Powers, however, which are not yet ready to prohibit immediately the export of prepared opium shall prohibit it as soon as possible.

ARTICLE 8.—The contracting Powers which are not yet ready to prohibit

immediately the export of prepared opium-

(a) Shall restrict the number of towns, ports, or other localities through which prepared opium may be exported;

(b) Shall prohibit the export of prepared opium to countries which now

forbid, or which may hereafter forbid, the import thereof;

(c) Shall, in the meanwhile, prohibit the consignment of prepared opium to a country which desires to restrict its entry, unless the exporter complies with the regulations of the importing country;

(d) Shall take measures to ensure that every package exported, containing prepared opium, bears a special mark indicating the nature of its contents;

(e) Shall not permit the export of prepared opium except by specially authorized persons.

CHAPTER III .- Medicinal Opium, Morphine, Cocaine, etc.

Definitions.—By "medicinal opium" is understood:

Raw opium which has been heated to 60° centigrade and contains not less than 10 per cent of morphine, whether or not it be powdered or granulated or mixed with indifferent materials.

By "morphine" is understood:

The principal alkaloid of opium, having the chemical formula C $_7$ H $_{19}$ NO $_3$

By "cocaine" is understood:

The principal alkaloid of the leaves of $Erythroxylon\ coca.$ having the formula $C_{1/7}$ H_2 NO_4

By "heroine" is understood:

Diacetyl-morphine, having the formula Ca, Has NOs

ARTICLE 9.—The contracting Powers shall enact pharmacy laws or regulations to confine to medical and legitimate purposes the manufacture, sale, and use of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts unless laws or regulations on the subject are already in existence. They shall co-operate with one another to prevent the use of these drugs for any other purpose.

ARTICLE 10.—The contracting Powers shall use their best endeavours to control, or to cause to be controlled, all persons manufacturing, importing, selling, distributing, and exporting morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, as well as the buildings in which these persons carry on such industry or trade.

With this object, the contracting Parties shall use their best endeavours to adopt, or cause to be adopted, the following measures, unless regulations

on the subject are already in existence :-

(a) To confine the manufacture of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts to those establishments and premises alone which have been licensed for the purpose, or to obtain information respecting the establishments and premises in which these drugs are manufactured and to keep a register of them;

(b) To require that all persons engaged in the manufacture, import, sale, distribution, or export of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts shall be furnished with a licence or permit to engage in these operations, or shall make to the competent authorities an official declaration that they are so

engaged;

(c) To require that such persons shall enter in their books the quantities manufactured, imports, sales and all other distribution, and exports of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts. This rule shall not necessarily apply to medical prescriptions and to sales by duly authorized chemists.

ARTICLE 11.—The contracting Powers shall take measures to prohibit, as regards their internal trade, the delivery of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts to any unauthorized persons, unless regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 12.—Due regard being had to the differences in their conditions, the contracting Powers shall use their best endeavours to restrict to authorized persons the import of morphine, cocaine, and their resective salts.

ARTICLE 13.—The contracting Powers shall use their best endeavours to adopt, or cause to be adopted, measures to ensure that morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts shall not be exported from their countries, possessions, colonies, and leased territories to the countries, possessions, colonies, and leased territories to the countries, possessions, colonies, and leased territories of the other contracting Powers, except when consigned to persons furnished with the licences or permits provided for by the laws or regulations of the importing country.

With this object each Government may communicate from time to time to the Government of the exporting countries lists of the persons to whom licences or permits for the import of morphine, cocaine, and their respective

salts have been granted.

ARTICLE 14.—The contracting Powers shall apply the laws and regulations respecting the manufacture, import, sale, or export of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts—

(a) To medicinal opium;

(b) To all preparations (officinal and non-officinal, including the so-called anti-opium remedies) containing more than 0'2 per cent of morphine, or more than 0'1 per cent of cocaine;

(c) To heroine, its salts and preparations containing more than 0.1 per

cent of heroine;

(d) To all new derivatives of morphine, of cocaine, or of their respective salts, and to every other alkaloid of opium, which may be shown by scientific research, generally recognized, to be liable to similar abuse and productive of like ill-effects.

CHAPTER IV.

ARTICLE 15.—The contracting Powers having treaties with China (Treaty Powers), shall, in conjunction with the Chinese Government, take the necessary measures to prevent the smuggling into Chinese territory, as well as

into their Far-Eastern colonies and into the leased territories which they occupy in Chma, of raw and prepared opium, morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, as also of the substances referred to in Article 14 of the present convention. The Chinese Government shall, on their part, take similar measures for the suppression of the smuggling of opium and of the other substances above referred to from China to the foreign colonies and leased territories.

ARTICLE 16.—The Chinese Government shall promulgate pharmacy laws for their subjects, regulating the sale and distribution of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, and of the substances referred to in Article 14 of the present convention, and shall communicate these laws to the Governments having treaties with China, through their diplomatic representatives at Peking. The contracting Powers having treaties with China shall examine these laws and, if they find them acceptable, shall take the necessary measures to apply them to their nationals residing in China.

ARTICLE 17.—The contracting Powers having treaties with China shall undertake to adopt the necessary measures to restrict and control the habit of smoking opium in their leased territories, settlements, and concessions in China, to suppress pari passu with the Chinese Government, the opium dens or similar establishments which may still exist there, and to prohibit the

use of opium in places of entertainment and brothels.

ARTICLE 18.—The contracting Powers having treaties with China shall take effective measures for the gradual reduction, pari passu with the effective measures which the Chinese Government shall take with the same object, of the number of shops in which raw and prepared opium is sold, which may still exist in their leased territories, settlements, and concessions in China. They shall adopt effective measures for the restriction and control of the retail trade in opium in the leased territories, settlements, and concessions, unless regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 19.—The contracting Powers having post offices in China shall adopt effective measures to prohibit the illegal import into China in the form of postal packages, as well as illegal transmission through these offices from one place in China to another, of opium (raw or prepared), morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, and of the other substances referred to

in Article 14 of the present convention.

CHAPTER V.

ARTICLE 20.—The contracting Powers shall examine the possibility of enacting laws or regulations making it a penal offence to be in illegal possession of raw opium, prepared opium, morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, unless laws or regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 21.—The contracting Powers shall communicate to one another.

through the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Netherlands-

(a) The texts of the existing laws and administrative regulations respecting the matters referred to in the present convention, or promulgated in virtue of the clauses thereof:

(b) Statistical information as regards the trade in raw opium, prepared opium, morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, as well as in the other drugs or their salts or preparations referred to in the present convention.

These statistics shall be furnished with as many details and within a period as short as may be considered possible.

CHAPTER VI.-Final Provisions.

ARTICLE 22.—Any Power not represented at the conference shall be allowed to sign the present convention.

With this object the Government of the Netherlands will, immediately after the signature of the convention by the Plenipotentiaries of the Powers

which have taken part in the conference, invite all the Powers of Europe and America not represented at the conference, that is to say:

The Argentine Republic, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Republic of Cuba, Denmark, the Dominican Republic, the Republic of Ecuador, Spain, Greece, Guatemala, the Republic of Haiti, Honduras, Luxemburg, Mexico, Montenegro, Nicaragua, Norway, Panamá, Paraguay, Peru, Roumania, Salvador, Servia, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Uruguay, the United States of Venezuela, to appoint a delegate, furnished with the necessary full powers, to sign the convention at The Hague.

These signatures shall be affixed to the convention by means of a "Protocol of signature by Powers not represented at the conference," to be added after the signatures of the Powers represented, the date of each signature being mentioned.

The Government of the Netherlands will, every month, notify the signatory Powers of each supplementary signature.

ARTICLE 23.—After all the Powers, as well on their own behalf as on behalf of their possessions, colonies, protectorates, and leased territories, have signed the convention or the supplementary protocol above referred to, the Government of the Netherlands will invite all the Powers to ratify the convention with this protocol.

In the event of the signature of all the Powers invited not having been obtained on the date of the 31st December, 1912, the Government of the Netherlands will immediately invite the Powers who have signed by that date to appoint delegates to examine at The Hague the possibility of depositing their ratifications notwithstanding.

The ratification shall take place within as short a period as possible and shall be deposited at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs at The Hague.

The Government of the Netherlands will every month notify the signatory Powers of the ratifications which they have received in the interval.

As soon as the ratifications of all the signatory Powers, as well on their own behalf as on behalf of their own colonies, possessions, protectorates, and leased territories, have been received by the Government of the Netherlands, the latter will notify all the Powers who have ratified the convention of the date on which it received the last instrument of ratification.

ARTICLE 24.—The present convention shall come into force three months after the date mentioned in the notification by the Government of the Netherlands, referred to in the last paragraph of the preceding article.

With regard to the laws, regulations, or other measures contemplated by the present convention, it is agreed that the Bills or drafts required for this purpose shall be prepared not later than six months after the entry into force of the convention. As regards the laws, they shall also be submitted by their Governments to the Parliaments or legislative bodies within the same period of six months, or in any case at the first session following the expiration of this period.

The date on which these laws, regulations, or measures shall come into force shall form the subject of an agreement between the contracting Powers, at the instance of the Government of the Netherlands.

In the event of questions arising relative to the ratification of the present convention, or to the enforcement either of the convention or of the laws, regulations, or measures resulting therefrom, the Government of the Netherlands will, if these questions cannot be settled by other means, invite all the contracting Powers to appoint delegates to meet at The Hague in order to arrive at an immediate agreement on these questions.

ARTICLE 25.—If one of the contracting Powers should wish to denounce the present convention, the denunciation shall be notified in writing to the Government of the Netherlands, who will immediately communicate a certified copy of the notification to all the other Powers; informing them of the date on which it was received.

The denunciation shall take effect only as regards the Power which notified it, and one year after the notification thereof has reached the Government of the Netherlands.

Four of the signatories made the following reservations:-

France: "With the reservation that a separate and special ratification or denunciation may subsequently be obtained for the French protectorates."

Great Britain: "With the reservation of the following declaration:

The articles of the present convention, if ratified by His Britannic Majesty's Government, shall apply to the Government of British India, Ceylon, the Straits Settlements, Hongkong, and Weihaiwei in every respect in the same way as they shall apply to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; but His Britannic Majesty's Government reserve the right of signing or denouncing separately the said convention in the name of any dominion, colony, dependency, or protectorate of His Majesty other than those which have been specified."

Persia: "With the reservation of Articles 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19 (Persia having no treaty with China), and paragraph (a) of Article 3."

Siam: "With the reservation of Articles 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19, Siam having no treaty with China."

Final Protocol of the International Opium Conference.

The conference further expressed the followed væux:-

1. The conference considers it desirable to direct the attention of the Universal Postal Union—

(1) To the urgency of regulating the transmission through the post of

raw opium;

(2) To the urgency of regulating as far as possible the transmission through the post of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts and other substances referred to in Article 14 of the convention;

(3) To the necessity of prohibiting the transmission of prepared opium

through the post.

2. The conference considers it desirable to study the question of Indian hemp from the statistical and scientific point of view, with the object of regulating its abuses, should the necessity thereof be felt, by internal

legislation or by an international agreement.

There were delays in the signature and ratification of this Convention by various Powers, and the whole matter was temporarily dropped at the opening of the Great War in 1914. The Convention was made an integral part of the Treaty of Peace with Germany, however, by Article 295 which provides that a ratification of the Peace Treaty shall be tantamount to a ratification of the Opium Convention. The United States has already ratified the Convention.

Under the British Dangerous Drugs Act, 1920, commencing from September 1 of that year, the import or export of opium, medicinal opium, morphia, heroin, cocaine, etc., is prohibited except by licence. The import or export of raw opium will be allowed only through the ports of London and Liverpool. All traffic in opium prepared for smoking is absolutely

prohibited.

In addition to the above, Lord Curzon informed the Edinburgh Anti-Opium Association that "arrangements have lately been made by the United States Government in accordance with which the American authorities will support no application for permission to export narcotics from Great Britain to the United States, unless the consignee has deposited with the Bureau of Internal Revenue an affidavit to the effect that the narcotics are needed for legitimate medical purposes and will not be re-exported, and unless the Bureau states that the drugs are genuinely needed for the purposes stated'.

On May 1, 1920 new regulations in the United States became effective, prohibiting the export of these drugs without a permit stating names, addresses, etc. of consignees and consignors, names quantities and ultimate destination of the articles and whether of not such goods are for consumption in the country to which they are consigned. A permit for importation to the country of destination must also be submitted. Export is prohibited to countries not regulating the entry of these drugs.

The Japanese Government in the fall of of 1919 issued new Consular Orders requiring a more stringent control of the narcotic traffic in China. In response to protests against the conditions in the Kwantung Leased Territory and at Tsingtao, the Japanese Government announced through its Legation at Peking, on October 5, 1920, that "it has been definitely decided entirely to abolish the opium monopoly system in the two localities in question in the course of this year". It further announced that "as regards illegal traffic in general in these territories, it is already a long time since it was prohibited and now the local authorities have been warned to exercise special diligence against the sale of such drugs not for medical purpose."

The League of Nations also has appointed a special Commission on the trade in narcotics, to inquire into the situation and prepare the way for a more rigid international control of the growth of opium and the trade in narcotics through the enforcement of the Hague Convention and such other international action as may be necessary. It is more and more being recognized that while the medical requirements of the world must be met, the growth of and traffic in narcotics can be kept within such

legitimate limits only by international action.

UNOFFICIAL ACTION.

A number of independent anti-opium and anti-narcotic associations have been organized from time to time in China. Early in 1919 the International Anti-Opium Assocition was established, with headquarters at Peking, to unite the anti-narcotic forces.

At the time the first steps were taken in Peking to inaugurate this Association, Anti-Narcotic Societies were formed in Tientsin and Shanghai, and the Board of Directors was very glad to work in collaboration with these Societies. Through the courtesy of the representatives of these Societies arrangements were made by which all three societies united into one organization, styled The International Anti-Opium Association, and the Peking Association by agreement became the Head Quarters for the entire Association. This, however, is for the sake of co-operation, and not for direction and control, each Branch Association raising its own funds, and marking out its own participation in the work accordingly. It was felt that the autonomy of each Branch Association would lead to the best results, but as the Peking Association took control of the international and diplomatic work it was desired that the Branch Associations would from time to time forward information concerning the conditions in the Provinces. on which to a large extent the policy of the Peking Association had to be The Board of Directors has endeavoured to create a Head Branch in each province, with as many subsidiary branches as possible. On October 1, 1920, the list of branches was as follows: Chihli: Peking and Tientsin; Honan: Kaifengfu; Hunan: Chang-sha; Hupeh: Hankow; Kiangsu: Shanghai, Soochow, Yencheng; Manchuria: Harbin; Shansi: Taiyuanfu; Shantung : Tsinanfu.

The work of some of these Branch Associations has been of a high quality and very successful. The Tientsin Branch Association, known as The Anti-Narcotic Society, through the energy of its able and devoted Secretaries, Mr. Y. S. Djang, and Mr. A. G. Robinson has become a powerful institution and its activities have done much to arrest the enormous traffic in

morphia, and in narcotic preparations sold by Tientsin druggists; many convictions have been obtained, and the Society has organized work throughout the whole Province. The Tsinanfu Branch, Head Quarters for Shantung, also exercised a powerful, influence and information sent from the Secretaries did much to assist in the campaign carried on by the Editor of the P. & T. Times, and many names of morphia traders were furnished for the Black List. Recently information received from the Secretary. the Rev. L. Todnem, was of great use in preparing the letters sent to the Legations about the morphia trade. Bishop White of Honan, and the Rev. E S. McN. Poteat were instrumental in opening a Branch Association in Kaifengfu, with the Patronage of the Governor. The General Secretary attended the inauguration, and he found the situation one of extreme difficulty, and it is much to the credit of the gentlemen in Kaifengfu that they courageously founded the Branch Association, and thus did their best to check the evils that now threaten the Province. Other Branch Associations have done well, and the Board of Directors is particularly gratified that an Association has been formed at the important centre Hankow-Wuchang, and another at Foochow, which is already actively opposing the attempts of military oppressors to force the cultivation of poppy. For the Association in one year to have extended its organization from Harbin to Foochow, Hankow, K'aifengfu and Taiyuanfu must be regarded encouraging, and it is hoped that this year the whole of China will be covered by the Branches of the Association.

From the commencement the Association has been favoured by the good will of H. E. President Hsu Shih Chang, and when the organization had sufficiently developed to admit of an approach to His Excellency, President Hsu very graciously consented to accept the invitation to become the Patron, very much to the delight of all. The late Premier, H. E. Chien Neng Hsun, and the present Premier, H. E. Chin Yun Peng, consented to become Vice Patrons, while many of the Cabinet Ministers were willing to form an Advisory Board, and for this countenance and recognition on the part of the leading statesmen of China the Association is deeply grateful. The Association must also gratefully acknowlege the help and sympathy of the Provincial Governors of Chihli, H. E. Tsao Jui, Shansi, H. E. Yen Hsi Shan, and Honan, H. E. Chao Ti.

The chief aim of the International Anti-Opium Association from the first has been to promote the control of the opium and narcotic evil by international legislation. It emphasizes the fact that this evil will not be remedied until the production of opium and other narcotics is limited at the source. There is a legitimate medical use for these drugs. sociation believes that the quantities produced or manufactured should be limited to this amount.

The anti-narcotic agitation in China has been carried on with increasing vigour since the organization of this Association. Telegrams were despatched to the Peace Conference at Versailles which resulted in the incorporation in the Peace Treaty of the Opium Convention (See above). Steps have been taken to call the attention of the International Postal Congress to the evils resulting from the shipment of morphia by parcels post. British Chambers of Commerce in China, meeting in Shanghai in November, 1919, passed a strong resolution calling upon the British Government to take immediate action for the effective suppression of the trade in opium and narcotics. Full memorandums on the subject were presented to Sir Beilby Alston, the British Minister to China, upon his return to the England in the summer of 1920. The visiting American Congressmen also were given full information on the subject.

The official representatives in China of the foreign Powers and of the Chinese Government have shown themselves heartily in sympathy with the

movement for the suppression of the opium traffic.

CHAPTER XXVII.

RELIGIONS.

It is customary to speak of the religions of China as three in number—Confucianism, Taoism and Buddhism. Probably a more correct statement of the facts would be, that China, apart from the monastical profession of Buddhism, merely recognizes one religion based on a belief in the animation of the universe with good and evil spirits, which finds expression, as one writer has said. "in countless acts of proputation or exorcism all designed to preserve or restore the proper balance of power between good and evil," and that in this religion are included (1) ancestor-worship—"the very core of the religious and social life of the people" (J. J. M. de Groot, Ph.D.); (2) Confucianism—a moral code rather than a form of worship; (3) Taoism, and (4) Buddhism; the last two supplying the forms of ritual or outward observances without calling for any corresponding degree of religious faith.

Ancestor-worship enters into the life of the Chinese as a religion in a more real form than any other system, the spirits of ancestors being worshipped, and attempts to merit their good-will and kindly offices being made, more conscientiously than in the dealings with the numerous deities incorporated with Taoism and Buddhism. The worship of ancestors is

a natural corollary to Confucianism, though antecedent to it.

Confucianism.

Confucius (K'ung Fu-tzu) was born in 551 B.C. and died 479 B.C. The family was of noble descent, but his father was in poor circumstances. Student life began for Confucius at the age of fifteen. Five years later he took office in a subordinate post and at the age of twenty-two he began public teaching. In later life he held office as magistrate for a short time. His teaching was less an original philosophy than an attempt to inculcate a standard of morality based on his interpretation of history as he had read it. It is impossible to overrate his influence on the moral, social, and political life of his fellow-countrymen, and that influence, though possibly on the wane now, has extended over two thousand years. The cult of Confucianism, as practised in modern times, however, did not become fully established until many centuries after the Sage's death. He is not worshipped as a god, but sacrifices were offered to his manes officially in the name of the State by the Emperor, and in numerous temples throughout the country by the officials. The cult, however, does not appeal to the masses, the temple observances being confined to the official classes and the literati. At the same time Confucian ideals of life and conduct permeate the whole people.

Taoism.

Taoism is theoretically the development of a philosophy—the doctrine of the right way, the "return" to which represents the consummation of supreme happiness—enunciated by or rather attributed to Laotze (flor. 570 n.c.). As practised to-day in China Taoism is a debased ritual embodying a polytheistic hotchpotch of witcheraft and demonology. On the suject of Taoism Mr. R F Johnston* says:—

"Most of the Taoist temples (in the territory of Weihaiwei) are poor in outward appearance and their interiors are often dirty and evil-smelling; while the images of the numerous Taoist deities are of cheap manufacture

^{*}Lion and Dragon in Northern China, by R. F. Johnston. John Murray, London.

and tawdry in ornament. . . . It is only the larger temples that have resident priests. . . . The official duties of the priests consist in very little more than looking after the temple buildings, seeing to the repair of the images when their clay arms and legs fall off (this is a duty they often shirk), and calling the attention of the deities to the presence of visitors who have brought offerings and desire to offer up prayers. Their services as magicians and retailers of charms are also invoked from time to time by private persons. . . . Apart from these (occasional) visits the temples are usually deserted except on one or two annual occasions, such as the celebration of a local festival. The temple then becomes one of the centres of attraction, and its precincts are througed from morning to night by crowds of well-dressed men and women and children, eager to register their vows or make their petitions. The worshippers knock their heads on the ground as acknowledgement of humility and powerlessness, while the priest strikes a tinkling bronze bowl with a view to awakening the god from his slumber. In front of every image stand jars containing sticks of burning incense. . . . The courtyard resounds with fire-crackers and bombs which are supposed to frighten away any wandering spirits of evil. . . . In front of the temple stands the open-air stage where a group of masked or painted actors perform . . . Popular Taoism provides deities or spiritual patrons for all the forces of nature, diseases (from the devil-possession to toothache) wealth and rank and happiness, war, old age, death, childbirth, towns, and villages, trades, mountains, and rivers and seas, lakes and canals, heaven and hell, sun, moon, and stars, roads and places where there are no roads, and thunder, every separate part and organ of the human body, and indeed for almost everything that is cognisable by the senses and a good deal that is not. It need hardly be said that no Taoist temple in existence contains images of all these spiritual personages, or a hundredth part of them. Each locality possesses its own favourites."

Buddhism.

Buddhism in China Proper, where it was introduced from India during the first century of our era, bears as little resemblance to the religion in its purer forms, as it may be found in other countries, as does modern Taoism to the presumptive doctrines of Laotze. If Buddhism exists anywhere in the country as a pure faith, it will be only in some of the great monasteries (Johnston), and even in these the monkhood is almost entirely a degenerate class. As a so-called religion of the people it is hardly distinguishable from Taoism, whose deities it has had to borrow largely in order to popularize its own temples. Its hold on the people is restricted mainly to beliefs and ceremonies connected with death and burial.

Although Tibet is now the centre of the Buddhist world, the religion did not penetrate into the country until the seventh century A.D., and then from China. Here again the purer eithics of Buddhism have been swallowed up in what is generally styled Lamaism, the system of priest-craft that would seem to have exercised such a baneful influence on the country. Huge monasteries, some of which may contain as many as 10,000 lamas, have sapped the energy and intelligence of the people for centuries, until the country has become a byword for sloth and decadence. The spiritual and temporal government of the country is nominally shared between the Dalai Lama (at the Potala, Lhassa), the supreme Pontiff of Buddhism, and the Tashi Lama in Tashilumpo, but there has been a tendency on the part of the present incumbent of the former office to concentrate both spiritual and temporal power in his own hands.

Dalai Lama. The present Dalai Lama is the thirteenth holder of the office of Supreme Pontiff of Buddhism, the spiritual and temporal ruler of the greater part of Tibet. He is 46 years of age, and is described as being of the normal Tibetan type, slightly pock-marked, with swarthy complexion, a small black moustache, prominent and large dark brown eyes and good white teeth.

The Buddhist Hierarchy.

(The information contained in the following pages is derived mainly from Mayers' "Chinese Government," and from official publications furnished by the Bureau for Mongolia and Tibet.)

Lama.—This designation is applied to all members of the priesthood observing the forms of Tibetan Buddhism.

Dalai Lama.—The Dalai Lama (Cheptsun Djamts'o Rinpoch'e, i.e. Venerable Ocean Treasure) is the senior of the joint Pontiffs of Tibet, sharing with the Panshen (Tashi) Lama, under the supervision of the Chinese Residents (Ambans), the temporal power in Tibet, and regarded as the Senior Pontiff of (Yellow) Buddhism. The present Dalai Lama, the thirteenth holder of the title, whose name is Ah-wang-lo-pu-tsang to-pu-tan-chia-ta-chi-chai-wang-chü-chueh-le-lang-chieh, was formally deposed by an Imperial Decree after his flight from Lhassa in 1910. No one, however, was appointed to succeed him, and in June, 1912, following a successful Tibetan revolt against Chinese authority, he returned to Lhassa from Darjiling. He was restored to his office and rank by a Presidential Mandate dated October 28, 1912.

The Dalai Lama's residence is the Potala, a picturesque and mysterious palace at Lhassa. He is regarded as the re-embodiment assumed by the spirit of one of Tsongkhaba's two disciples, and at the same time as

an incarnation, or Avatar, of Buddha himself.

When a Dalai Lama died (and few have lived beyond the age of twenty) the fact was reported to the Throne by the Chinese Amban, and a special envoy was sent to Lhassa to "change the bed" for his successor.* Inquiries were made by the priesthood with reference to miraculous portents which might have been observed in connection with the birth of male children about the same period. The necessary particulars were always forthcoming, and supplied in due form to the Chinese Amban, who, after scrutinizing them and making a report to Peking, summoned a certain number of the children, with their parents, to Lhassa. The prescribed form of selecting the new Dalai Lama was as follows: The names of the selected infants were written upon pieces of iron, which were thrown into water, whereupon the name of the reincarnated Buddha should float upon the surface. In reality, the names were written on slips of paper in Chinese and Tibetan, and each slip is encased in a roll of paste and deposited in a golden urn, the name drawn forth being hailed as that of the new incarnation. After a short period of instruction the newly acclaimed Pontiff, usually at the age of two or three years, was solemnly enthroned, and during his long ensuing minority, the actual administration of the country rested chiefly with the Chinese Amban.

On the paper slips are written the names of the parents as well as those of the candidates. Chapters from the Scriptures are read while the slips are sealed in paste, and deposited in the vase, which is over one foot deep. These are turned over and over by the officiating dignitary, and one is then drawn forth while (in the case of the selection of a Dalai Lama) the Panshen Lama recites a passage from the Buddhist Scripture. The popular idea of employing strips of iron seems to be incorrect; lower incarnations or Prul-skus (Tulkus) are so selected (Mongol: Hubilgan.)

The popular idea of employing strips of iron seems to be incorrect; lower incarnations or Prul-skus (Tulkus) are so selected (Mongol: Hubilgan.)

The present Dalai Lama was not selected in this manner, but his birthplace, his parents, and himself were seen in a vision mirrored in a lake by the Chief Lama of Galdan Monastery, who afterwards went to the spot indicated by the vision and found the miraculous infant. The latter than underwent the usual tests of recognition, and was duly elected Dalai Lama without any lot-casting.

Both the Dalai Lama and the Panshen Lama had to send a K'an Pu (Abbot) to Peking every two years to carry tribute to the Throne.

Both the Dalai and the Tashi Lama had jade seals, but permission to use them had first to be given by Imperial Edict, as jade seals are always

^{*}When a living Buddha dies, according to the Chinese phrase only the bedding is changed: i.e. his spirit passes into the body of his successor.

a special Imperial appanage. For ordinary use they were provided with gold seals.

Panshen Erdeni (Tashi) Lama.—The junior of the two Buddhist Pontiffs of Tibet. He is joint-heir with the Dalai Lama of the Buddhist inheritance derived from Tsongkhaba, and is believed by the Tibetans to be worthy of even higher veneration than the Dalai Lama, because his office and functions are less contaminated by worldly cares. He is regarded as an incarnation of the Boddhisattva Manjusri. "To him is confided the maintenance of the purity of religious doctrine, as to the Dalai Lama is attributed the temporal governance of the Tibetan realm." He resides at Tashilumpo, about 230 miles or eight days' journey westward from Lhassa. On the death of a Panshen Lama his successor is chosen in the same manner as that of the Dalai Lama. The present Tashi Lama was appointed to succeed the Dalai Lama, on the flight of the latter at the time of the British invasion of Tibet. In December, 1905, he visited India, and was received by King George (then Prince of Wales).

HUTUKHTU (Saint).—"This class of dignitaries," writes Mayers, "to which the Dalai and Panshen Lamas themselves belong, may be said to constitute the most marked and essential feature of Tibetan Buddhism. Derived from a Mongolian word which is interpreted in Chinese as signifying Tsai Lai Jen, i.e. one who returns again, an Avatar—the Hutukhtu supply, in their successive re-embodiments, that transmission of authority in safe or chosen hands which the enforcement of a strict rule of celibacy might otherwise render impracticable. . . According to traditional theory, the spirit of each Hutukhtu reappears on his decease, in the person of some newly-born infant, and thus comes forth re-embodied. . . . The number of Hutukhtu recognized in the Imperial Institutes and registered by the Mongolian Superintendency, is 160 in all. These are distinctive title of Shaburung; in Northern Mongolia, 19; in Southern Mongolia, 57; in the Kokonor region of Tibet, 35; and in Chamdo, on the Szechuan border, 5. At and near Peking there are, finally, 14 representatives of the class."

With the exception of the Ch'akhan Nomen Han (a hereditary chieftain of one of the T'umed Banners who claims descent from the Manjusra

Hutukhtu) they are chosen by drawing lots from the golden urn.

Next to the Dalai and Panshen Lamas the most venerated of these "living Buddhas" is the Djebtsung Damba Hutukhtu, the Metropolitan or Patriarch of the Khalkha tribes. His authority is recognized as supreme by the Tushetu and Tsetsen Khanates, and his residence is fixed at Urga, where he was supposed to act as the spiritual colleague of the Chinese Amban. It was the present Djebtsung Dumba Hutukhtu who gave the Chinese Government so much trouble in 1911, and finally declared the independence of Outer Mongolia, under his own sovereignty, on the inauguration of the Republic.

The other most important Hutukhtu are eight in number, their titles

being :-

Changchia Hutukhtu, the Peking Metropolitan.
Galdan Siretu Hutukhtu.
Minchur Hutukhtu.
Chilung Hutukhtu (Tibet).
Namuka Hutukhtu (Siningfu).
Achia Hutukhtu (Siningfu).
Lakuo Hutukhtu.
Tsahantarkhan Hutukhtu.

Every Hutukhtu was supposed to come to Peking on attaining the age of eighteen to render homage to the Throne, but it was provided that none might visit the capital until he had had small-pox. Thereafter, each Hutukhtu was supposed to visit the capital at intervals of six years, arriving in the eleventh moon. Those under age might send delegates to represent them, but if they failed to come themselves or to send delegates they were punished by the deprivation of their title.

On coming to Peking each Hutukhtu had to present the Throne a hada (scarf), receiving another and other gifts in return. When the Djebtsung Damba Hutukhtu intended to visit Peking, his intention had to be reported to the Throne by the Urga Amban. A special delegate was appointed to accompany him on behalf of the Chinese Government, and the Khalkha Princes also had to appoint eight delegates to accompany and protect him. While in Peking he resided in a temple where a yellow tent, 20 chang in length and 10 chang wide (200 ft. by 100 ft.), was erected for his use.

Other Buddhist Lamas.

Other dignitaries of the Buddhist Church are Jassak Da Lamas, and Jassak Lamas (Grand Princes. and Princes of the Church) K'an Pu (Abbots), Da Lamas (Priors), Fu Da Lamas (Vice-Priors), Hsien San Lamas (Higher Grade Clergy), Te Mu Ch'i (Stewards of Lamaseries), Ke Sze Kuei (Precentors who conduct the choral services), Ke Lung (Priests of the First Order), Pan Ti (Priests of the Second Order), and Sha Pi (Novices).

The editors of the China Year Book are indebted to Sir Edmund

Backhouse for the following notes on this section :-

The Hutukhtu of Inner Mongolia is Kanjur, who resides in the territory of the Silingol League, Huchit Banner, North of Kalgan. The Tukuan (Manchu Tukiyen) resides at Wutai, and received special favour from the late Empress Dowager when he came to Peking in 1906, because he provided gold vessels for her entertainment at Taiyuan. The Minchur Hutukhtu is at Kumbun, but is attached to the Metropolis. The Lakuo is at Kweihuach'eng. The Changchia (a Manchu word meaning perfect) The Tsahantarkhan is at Jehol. The Tungkor resides at Peking. The resides mainly at Dolonor, where a temple was built for his reception. Changchia proceeded upon one occasion to Lhassa to carry out the ceremony of electing the new Dalai Lama.

The Djebtsung Damba (or Cheptsun-dampa), "Holy Reverence," is a reincarnation of the historian, Taranatha Lama, who translated the Buddhist Gospels into Mongol. Originally he resided at Kweihuach'eng. He was killed by one of Kang Hsi's suite, and reappeared among the Khalkhas. It was arranged by the Emperor that he must hereafter, always be born in Tibet, so as to prevent political intrigues between the Lama and the Mongol Princes. The present Djebtsung Damba was born in Lhassa, and is

the son of a former steward of the Dalai Lama.

Mohammedanism.

It is estimated officially that Mohammedanism is the religion of from fifteen to twenty millions of people in China. They are to be found mainly in Chinese Turkestan, Kansu, Shensi and Yunnan. The first Mohammedans entered China overland in the seventh century. Although no disabilities are placed upon Mohammedans for their religion, they are marked off from the rest of their fellow-countrymen almost as distinctly as if they were of a separate nationality. Individual Mohammedans, however, rise to prominence in Chinese officialdom. It is a debated point to what extent Chinese Mohammedanism conforms to the tenets of Islam otherwise than in abstinence from pork; but, as one observer remarks, "the fact remains that some Chinese Mohammedans do still occasionally make the pilgrimage to Mecca; and well attended Mohammedan mosques may yet be found in at least half the provinces of China" (R. F. Johnston).

found in at least half the provinces of China" (R. F. Johnston).

The history of Mohammedanism in China has been characterized by fierce rebellions, but it cannot be said that religious fanaticism on the part of the Mohammedans has been the real casus belli. The two chief rebellions in the nineteenth century lasted from 1855 to 1873 and from 1861 to 1877. The respective theatres of these outbreaks were Yunnan and Shensi, and, although the sense of a common cause may have intensified the resistance of the Mohammedans in each case, the two struggles developed on independent lines. In Yunnan the origin of the revolt, known as the Panthay Rebellion, was a dispute among miners, in which the Mohammedan

section was opposed by the "orthodox" Chinese section. A preliminary success on the part of the former led to reprisals from the Chinese population at large, and the conflict thus started ended in a formidable campaign. The struggle brought to the front the great Mohammedan leader Tu Wen-hsiu, who in 1867 proclaimed himself Sultan, with Talifu, captured in 1857 and held until 1873, as his capital. Treachery hastened the subjugation of the Mohammedans, and Tu Wen-hsiu, after swallowing poison, surrendered to the Imperial troops. A great massacre of Moham-

medans followed the collapse of the rebellion.

In the north the immediate cause of the outbreak is saidt to have been a quarrel between Chinese and Tungani (Chinese Mohammedans) over the division of some spoil taken from a rebel chieftain. Again the conflict rapidly assumed formidable proportions, and finally spread from the Yellow River, the boundary between Shensi and Shansi provinces, to the farthest confines of Chinese Turkestan. Here Yakub Beg proclaimed himself Ameer of Kashgaria, and for nearly ten years the triumph of the Mohammedans was complete. From the beginning of 1871 the tide turned. A Chinese army under General Tso Tsung-tang was massed in Shensi and began a slow but methodical march westwards, re-establishing the Imperial power as it proceeded. The whole of Kansu had submitted by 1873, and in December, 1877, the last three strongholds of the Mohammedans in Kashgaria, Yarkand, Kashgar and Khotan, were in the hands of the Chinese troops.

A smaller revolt of Mohammedans, on the western borders of Kansu,

broke out in 1889, and another in 1905.

Judaism.

A colony of a few hundred Chinese Jews is established at Kaifengfu, the capital of Honan. Records remain of the building of a synagogue in that town in 1185 and of its rebuilding in 1488, and it is probable that between these dates the Jews formed a flourishing community. To-day, however, they are in a poverty-stricken condition, having lost practically all knowledge of their sacred tongue and of their religion and its traditions. An attempt is being made to reclaim the colony from its parlous plight. The site of the synagogue was purchased in February, 1913, by the Anglican Mission.

Christianity.

Christianity, as far as can be established by records, was first introduced into Chma by the Nestorian priest Alopen (Olopen) in A.D. 635. This statement rests on the authority of the Nestorian Monument* discovered at Sianfu (Singanfu) in 1625. In March of that year trenches were being dug for the foundations of some building near the district town of Chouchih, thirty or forty miles south-west of Sianfu, when the workmen came upon a great slab of stone buried several feet beneath the surface of the ground. The stone was raised and cleaned, and it was seen to be covered with an inscription of the Tang Dynasty, in Chinese and some foreign characters, of beautiful workmanship and in a perfect state of preservation. It was removed by order of the magistrate of Chouchih to a temple about a mile and a half outside the west gate of Sianfu. There the stone was set up and remained until October 2, 1907, when it was placed in the Peilin, a collection of ancient inscriptions inside the city walls.

"The monument is formed of one slab of stone. The upper part contains the title in nine large characters surmounted by the cross and enclosed in hornless dragons. The lower part, containing the inscription and lists of names on the front face and the two edges, measures approximately 3 feet 3.8 inches wide by 11.3 inches at the top. and is about 6 feet 4.83 inches high. The height of the whole stone is about 9 feet 1 inch. It is called fêng per, and so may have marked a Christian cemetery or grave."

[†] In the Footsteps of Marco Polo, by Major C. D. Bruce. Wm. Blackwood and Sons.

* This description of the Nestorian Monument is taken from a Paper by A. C. Moule in the Journal of the North China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society Vol. XLI, 1910. The Paper was based on the investigations of Père Henri Havret, S.J.

The history of the stone before 1625 is not known. From the perfect condition in which it was found it is surmised that it was intentionally buried, possibly in A.D. 845, after the issue of an Imperial Decree banishing the Nestorians or closing down their worship. ("As to the monks and nuns who come under the head of aliens," runs the Edict, "making known the religion of foreign countries, we decree that over 3000 (v.l. 2000) Syrians and Muhufu return to lay life and cease to confound our native customs.")

The inscription purports to describe the diffusion throughout the Mid-dle Kingdom of the Christian religion. After a recital of certain Christian beliefs, involved and highly embellished, with references to the Creation, the Fall of Man, the Incarnation and the Priesthood, the inscription refers to the arrival in China (A.D. 635) of Raban (Alopen) "of the famous land of Ch'in" (Syria). It quotes the Decree of A.D. 638 sanctioning the Christian religion and authorizing the erection in the I-ning quarter of the metropolis of "a monastery of Syria," with twenty-one men duly admitted as monks, and proceeds to trace the spreading of the religion "over the ten provinces." Buddhist persecution occurred in 713, but Imperial protection was revived thirty years later. The Emperor Tai Tsung (A.D. 763-780) "every year on the day of the Nativity presented divine incense to proclaim the perfected work, and offered a royal feast to do honour to the Christian congregation." Eulogies of the next Emperor and certain officials follow. Finally, after the date and the name of the writer come the names of the revisers, and on each edge of the Monument are other names. The

stone was set up (probably on Sunday, February 4) A.D. 781.

The Nestorian Church was flourishing again in the fourteenth century, but at the end of the sixteenth there seem to have been no trace and no memory of it. In the latter part of the thirteenth century China was visited by Roman Catholic missionaries, and in 1307 the Franciscan John of Montecorvino, reached Cambulac (Peking) and was appointed Archbishop by Pope Clement V. The closing of the overland route to China led to a break in missionary endeavours to reach the country, until the sea route had become better known. St. Francis Xavier attempted to reach China, but died in 1552 at an island off the coast of Kwangtung. From that date, however, China has been visited by a constant stream of Roman Catholic missionaries, and particularly Jesuits. Their scientific knowledge has won them the favour and esteem of the Chinese. Two of their number became President of the Board of Mathematics at Peking. (Reference is

made elsewhere to the Jesuit Observatory at Sicawei.)

The first Protestant missionary to reach China was the Rev. Robert Morrison, who landed in Canton September 7, 1807. It was not, however, until after the Treaty of Nanking that Protestant missionary work in China made any conspicuous headway.

Both sections of the Christian Church have been subject to persecu-

both sections of the Constian Church have been subject to persecution, riots, destruction of missionary property, and massacres, the most serious outbreak of all being the Boxer rising of 1900.

During the Revolution of 1911-12 both the contending parties undertook to protect the lives and property of foreigners, but in Sianfu (Shensi) a mob took possession of the city and attacked the missions. Mrs. R. Beckman and her two children, and Mr. W. T. Vatne and four other children of missionaries of the Scandinavian Alliance Mission, were killed. In spite of the good intentions of the authorities it became necessary to withdraw the majority of the missionaries in the interior to the coast as anarchy gradually spread over the country. Szechuan was in this respect the worst province, as a period of insurrection brought about by the railway question preceded the outbreak of the Revolution in Hupeh.

Treaties dealing with the Christian Religion.

Religious freedom in China is guaranteed by the Treaties with Great Britain (1842), Belgium (1865), Denmark (1863), France (1858), Germany (1861), Italy (1866), Portugal (1887), Russia (1851, 1858), Spain (1864), United States (1858, 1868, 1903). With it goes the right to build churches and hospitals, to rent or build houses and to open burial grounds. The fullest stipulation on the subject is contained in the last Treaty with the

United States. Article XIV reads :-

"The principles of the Christian religion, as professed by the Protestant and Roman Catholic Churches, are recognized as teaching men to do good and to do to others as they would have others do to them. Those who quietly profess and teach those doctrines shall not be harassed or persecuted on account of their faith. Any person, whether citizen of the United States or Chinese convert, who, according to these tenets, peaceably teaches and practises the principles of Christianity, shall in no case be interfered with or molested therefor. No restrictions shall be placed on Chinese joining Christian Churches. Converts and non-converts, being Chinese subjects, shall alike conform to the laws of China and shall pay due respect to those in authority, living together in peace and amity; and the fact of being converts shall not protect them from the consequences of any offence they may have committed before, or may commit after, their admission into the Church, or exempt them from paying legal taxes levied on Chinese subjects generally, except taxes levied and contributions for the support of religious customs and practices contrary to their faith. Missionaries shall not interfere* with the exercise by the native authorities of their jurisdiction over Chinese subjects, nor shall the native authorities make any distinction between converts and non-converts, but shall administer the laws without partiality, so that both classes can live together in peace."

Imperial Decreest on the subject of missionaries have been usued as

follows :-

June 13, 1891. Ordering protection to be afforded to loreign my towary establishments.

Aug. 9, 1895. Ordering protection of missionary establishments and suppression of idle stories and suspicion.

Jan. 15, 1898. Ordering officials to guard carefully against missionary troubles and to afford "thorough protection to missionaries passing to and fro."

Official intercourse between Roman Catholic missionaries and Chinese officials was regulated by a memorial of the Tsung-li Yamen, which obtained the Imperial assent on March 15, 1899. By the terms of this document Bishops were to rank with Governors-Generals and Governors, Provicaires and Head Priests with Treasurers, Judges and Taotais, other priests with Prefects and Magistrates. These privileges, which were not accepted by the Protestant Churches, were abolished on April 19, 1908.

Christianity and The Republic.

Article 6 of the Provisional Republican Constitution accords religious liberty to the people of China, and the Republican Government has repeatedly announced its intention to abolish all disabilities previously laid on Christians.

MISSION STATISTICS.

The latest available statistics of Protestant and Roman Catholic Mis-

sions will be found on the following pages.

The Young Mem's Christian Association has made immense strides in China during the past few years. It mow has thirty Associations in various cities, and 174 School Associations. The membership of the former is 41,699, and of the latter 29,639. The cost of maintaining the City Associations in 1920 was \$141,276, and of the School Associations \$12.101. There are 81 Foreign and 320 Chinese Secretaries in the City Associations.

*Sir E. Satow, British Minister to Peking, addressed a circular in the same tenour to Consuls in China, with instructions to notify missionaries (August 31, 1903). It is pointed out that missionaries "have no right of intervention on behalf of native Christians," and that communications to Chinese officials must be made through one of His

Majesty's Consuls or the head of His Majesty's Legation.

† See Hertslet's China Treaties, Vol. II.

I.-FORCE AT WORK.-FOREIGN.

District	Ordained.	Physicians—Men.	Physicians—Women.	Nurses.	Single Women.	Total—Men.	Total—Women.	Total foreign force.
North China:								
Manchuria	49	20	11	3	39	73	99	172
Mongolia	4		whitehells	_	22	20	36	56
Shansi	100	41	14	22	186	256	408	664
Chihli	109	30	9	21	137	191	312	504
Shantung	29	8	_	5	74	92	148	240
Shensi	24	3	1	1	32	53	73	126
East China:								
Kiangsu	161	36	15	29	331	327	611	938
Chekiang	63	19	1	12	109	116	228	344
Anhui	32	11	1	7	55	62	110	172
Kiangsi	14	5	1	2	104	63	163	226
Tentral China:								
Honan	100	19	4	12	87	152	242	394
Hupeh	122	16	7	17	85	167	222	389
Hunan	95	24	4	14	84	167	231	398
South China:		5						
Fukien	70	26	15	22	198	135	319	454
Kwangtung	188	42	17	16	188	295	435	730
Kwangsi	21	7	_	6	19	30	46	76
West China:								
Sinkiang	7	3	4	3	5	9	9	18
Kansu		2		2	19	29	43	72
Szechuan	91	32	12	11	138	204	339	543
Kweichow	6	2	_	1	10	20	25	45
Yunnan	14	2	_	1	17	33	42	75

Number of Employed of Start of	5.2	2.6	2.3	5.1	5.3	3.3	8 4 4	0.1	2.9	5	1.2	2.7	2 6
Proportion of men to tall to tall force.	75% 100%	%11%	78% 83%	73%	82%	%69	77%	% +0	74%	0/ 1-	75%	80%	95%
Total voluntary usorted.	92	181	107	251	526	174	161	S 6	227	7	37	167	28
Total Employed Chinese Force at Work.	893	1,726 2,592	566	2,860	1,788	740	1,106	1,223	2,838	017	96	1,485	244
ornot lasidalki loto" ni səsrun gnibuləni) (gninibri	97	260	37	348	215	126	83	100	268	3	11	111	1 0
·gainint ni səstuV	02	161	17	247	135	102	182	120	162) L	2	80	ا د
Graduate Nurses.	14	32	2 2	57	48	15	20 41	07 02	39	•	1 2	12	-
nəmoW—snuisiehAA		22	-	9		4	- 10	4 n	18	4		2	-
.nsMsnsisisthA	13	53 49	12	38	31	2	17	07 5	49	2	-	17	
Total Educational force (all grades).	323	713	242	1,367	301	294	409	304	1,218		22	884	88
Teachers-Women.	120	228	8 28	410	173	88	97	2 9	369	3	9	188	04
Teachers-Men.	203	485 969	115	957	423	206	312 416	404	849		16	969	84
Total Evangelists	473	753	287	1,145	977	320	614	043	1,352	- 0	63	121	154
nəmoW—stsiləgnarA	79	124	62 46	276	139	66	141	101	305	3	15	ලි ග	17
Unordained pastors Alen (including colporteurs).	376	567 727	216	989	735	195	462	7040	912	2	48	366	124
.bəninb10	18	62	o o	183	103	58	11	000	135	4	1 1	35	13
District	V <i>orth China</i> : Manchuria Mongolia	Chihli Shantung	Shansi Shensi	ast China: Kiangsu	Chekiang	Kiangsi	entral China: Honan Hupeh	outh China:	K wangtung K wangtung	est. China:	Kansu	Szechuan Kweichow	Yunnan

	Evangelistic Centre.	1																	
	to redmun squarent req stansimmmod retash ritsileannid	70					30			43		52	99		2	35	27	63 45	
	stnsbutz Sundents,	6,586	13,432	3,071	1,725	36,699	16,618	7,323	5,689	9,339		33,022	2,883		55	693	21,567	3,367	- 1
	Proportion of Female Communicants who are literate.		43%	% 25 87 87 87 87 87 87 87 87 87 87 87 87 87	32%	28%	43%	44% % % 74%	34%	28%	0/ +	49%	%05 20%	2		%02	24%	17%	0/ >1
NITY.	Proportion of Male Communicants who are literate.		%09	% 78 81%	%19	%69	%09	%12	28%	%09 80%	2	%02	%19		1	20%	74%	39%	5/ >>
MO	Proportion of Com- solding in Cities solding on 50,000.	%	34%		15%	53%	16%	33%		27%		20%	% % % %		17%	% 6	23%	1 4 %%	2/
N COM	Proportion of Men to Women Com- to Women Com-	%89	65%	71%	64%	62%	62%	26%	%99	%89	2	%09	28%		%82	%29	63%	54% 53%	0/
CHRISTIA	Total Christian Con- stituency.	30,575	57,089	15.298	12,257	70,084	48,079	15,319	20,636	26,364		86,094	5,361		57	2,519	32,942	20,873	. + . ()
ш	. Communicants—Total.	20,586	22,283	8,340	7,081	29,783	27,902	7,827	12,418	14,725		38,585	4,722		23	1,336	12,954	9,446	2426.
TION-TH	Communisants.——stansinummoO Women.	6,688	7,698	2,390	2,541	11,502	10,490	3,059	4,074	4,671		15,451	1,978		ಬ	498	4,724	4,346	21262
UCCUPA	.noMstnasinummoO	13,898	14,585	5,950	4,540	18,281	17,412	4,438	8,344	10,054		25,133	2,744		. 18	828	8,230	5,100	
UF U	Evangelistic Centres.	294	471	296	248	460	918	272	455	344 409		1,164	7.71	1	ر 1	38	487	174	
LNI	Organized Con- gregations.	85	365	229	176	314	859	225	247	262		965	62		4	33	369	106	
-EAI		1 1	ļ		İ	1	1		1	1		-	: 1			1	1		
-111.	District	North China: Manchuria Mongolia	Chihli	Shansi	Shensi	East China: • Kiangsu	Chekiang Anhui	Kiangsi	Central China: Honan	Hupeh Hunan	South China:	Fukien Kwanotuno	Kwangsi	West China:	Sinklang	Kansu	Szechuan	Awelchow Yunnan	

IV.-EXTENT OF OCCUPATION-THE CHRISTIAN SCHOOL.

816	PROTEST.	ANT MISSIO	NS.		
Proportion of Lower Primary School Students entering Higher Primary Schools.	14% 16% 14% 14%	44 22 23%% 26%%%	17% 27% 25%	18% 24% 19%	0% 16% 11% 11%
Proportion of Boys no Girls in Mission schools Schools.	97% 85% 70% 78% 100%	81% 81% 9 3% 58%	85% 86% 81%	85% 88% 47%	90%
Proportion of Boys to Girls in Mission Schools.	59% 68%% 76%%% 79%%	67% 70% 71% 67%	71% 62% 70%	69% 68% 63%	75% 75% 61% 94% 92%
noistrid onder Christing struction (Middle) School and below.)	7,599 799 13,695 21,354 4,240 2,246	19,888 10,592 5,604 5,062	7,107 11,086 8,685	31,690 25,496 1,513	74 486 8,664 1,798 2,016
Total Middle School	521 1,953 1,489 267	3,323 974 270 266	275 852 659	1,510 1,929 17	875
Middle School Students Girls.	293 444 58	618 182 19 113	35 118 126	219 236 9	85
Middle School. Students Boys.	507 1,660 1,045 209 23	2,705 792 251 153	240 734 533	1,291 1,693 8	790
Total Higher Students.	893 70 3,188 2,782 505	5,015 1,746 1,016 982	982 2,185 1,594	4,612 4,510 234	63 1,835 189 224
Higher Primary School Students— Girls,	308 33 708 910 123 47	1,429 599 248 209	225 847 263	1,328 1,424 105	27 529 2 45
Higher Primary School Students— Boys,	585 37 2,480 1,872 382 227	3,586 1,147 768 773	757 1,358 1,331	3,284 3,086 129	36 1,306 187 179
Total Louer Primary Students.	6,185 729 8,554 17,083 3,468 1,949	11,550 7,872 4,318 3,814	5,850 8,049 6,432	25,568 19,057 1,262	74 423 15,954 1,609 1,782
Vouer Primiry Students-stribes.	2,601 300 3,136 3,887 689 413	4,067 2,293 1,320 1,379	1,754 2,964 2,107	8,042 6,185 444	18 93 6,423 0
Lower Primary Students—Boys.	5,584 429 5,418 13,196 2,779 1,536	7,483 5,579 2,998 2,435	4,096 5,085 4,325	17,526 12,872 818	56 330 9,531 1,516 1,640
Middle Schools.	16 24 40 7	51 19 11 6	10 17 14	37	15
Higher Primary Schools,	39 6 44 142 26 9	120 53 39 24	45 58 56	96 122 6	1 4 00 00 0
Lower Primary Schools.	223 27 316 942 139	354 283 185 159	257 288 223	852 675 49	118 408 84 61
District	orth China: Manchuria Mongolia Chihli Shantung Shansi Shensi	ast China: Kiangsu Chekiang Anhui Kiangsi	entrat Unina: Honan Hupeh Hunan	outh China: Fukien Kwangtung Kwangsi	Pest China: Sinkiang Kansu Szechuan Y weichow

V .- EXTENT OF OCCUPATION-THE CHRISTIAN HOSPITAL.

	District	Hospitals.	Dispensaries— Exclusive of those located on Hospital premises.	Hospital Beds-Men.	Hospital Beds- Women.	Total Number of Inpatients Annually.	Schools for Nurses	Students.	No. of Hospital Beds per Foreign Physician.	No. of Hospital Beds per Foreign Nurse
	North China:									
	Manchuria	21.	1	537	423	5,217	2	11	31	320
	Mongolia	ottonero	7		_		_	_		
	Chihli	24	6	634	534	9,548	10	161	21	53
	Shantung	28	38	654	332	5,798	8	108	25	47
	Shansi	11	12	278	122	2,256	2	12	50	80
	Shensi	3	20	87	27	542			29	114
1	East China:									
	Kiangsu	29	1.1	829	718	17,537	15	247	30	53
	Chekiang	19	9	811	422	13,216	10	135	61	100
	Anhui	8	4	231	114	2,295	5	56	29	49
	Kiangsi	7	18	134	268	5,349	4 .	100	67	201
1	Central China:		ļ							
	Honan	14	10	586	299	8,006	4	30	39	74
-	Hupeh	22	8	842	278	12,467	8	91	49	66
	Hunan	18	18	548	356	8,636	9	112	32	65
2	South China:									
	Fukien	41	9	1,242	1,188	21,125	13	132	59	110
The state of	Kwangtung	39	11	1,597	1,125	21,361	10	126	46	171
	Kwangsi	4	3	65	54	873	1	8	17	20
)	Vest China:									
	Sinkiang	3	1	24	_	40			3	12
-	Kansu	2	12	140	80	864	1	5	110	110
	Szechuan	26	28	693	348	8,839	3	43	24	94
-	Kweichow	2	6	45	22	175	1		33	67
-	Yunnan	2	9	30	20	150				50

VI.--DEGREE OF OCCUPATION AND TABLE OF URGENCY. THE CHRISTIAN OCCUPATION OF CHINA.

	Hospital Beds proposital 1,000,000 Population.	5.3	46 54 17 16	27 39 31	143 78 11	14 36 17 6 56
	koreign Physicing per 1,000,000 Population,	1.7 2.0 1.3 6.7	1.5 0.9 0.6	0.7	2.4	4.0 0.3 0.2 0.2
	Wasion Primary Stabuts Stabuts 1,000 Stabuts Stabutanummod	345 933 527 475	556 345 1,052 615	550 696 729	782 385 517	3,217 363 1,428 191 255
	lood22 ynhau2 Scholavs OO,1 yoq stansianamaoD	321 725 605 566 370	1,236 593 1,336 938	474 635 987	858 231 610	2,391 495 1,719 358 411
2	. Communicants. per 10,000 Population.	11.4 1.2 8.2 13.5 7.6	8.9 12.5 2.5 3.2	3.8 5.2 3.7	22.6	2.2 2.2 8.2 8.8
סייס	Chinese Employed Workers per 1,000 Communicants	44 110 77 62 68	96 65 123 94	92 92 112	93 47 59	480 74 118 22 22 30
_	Missionaries 000,1 rsq Sannsinummod	8 65 30 12 29	32 12 34 30	32 27 36	12 12 16	782 55 43 5
ADE	Chinese Employed por 1,000,000 Population,	47 1.4 63 84 52	85 79 31	34 47 42	211 81 26	7 16 24 18 27
	sərvnoissi M 000,000,1 vəq noitaluqoA	10 8 8 24 25 22	28 115 9	12 14 14	27 21 7	10 12 4
ON A	Total Communicants.	20,586 856 22,283 41,821 8,340	29.783 27.902 5,070 7,827	12,418 14,725 11,018	38,584 61,262 4,722	23 1,336 12,447 9,446 7,816
ULAIN	Potal Chinese.	895 94 1,726 2,592 566	2.860 1,788 627 740	1.106 1.347 1,229	3,590 2,838 276	11 96 1,479 207 236
000	tranoissi M. IntoT.	172 56 644 503 240	938 344 172 226	394 389 398	454 730 76	18 72 531 45 75
EE OF	Estimated Population of Field Claimed.	17,998,986 6,943,000 27,312,673 50,955,307 10,891,878	53,678,611 22,909,822 20,002,166 24,490,687	32,547,366 28,573,822 29,528,272	17,667,277 35,195,036 10,872,300	1,750,000 6,083,565 61,444,699 11,470,099 8,824,479
DEGR	Approximate Area of Field Claimed.	173,700 1,167,500 60,000 55,984 60,000	38,610 36,680 54,826 69,498	69,954 71,428 83,398	46,330 100,000 77,220	550,340 125,483 115,800 67,182 146,700
>		11111	1111	111	1 1 1	11111
	District	North China: Manchuria Mongolia Chihli Shantung Shansi	Bast China: Kiangsu Chekiang Anbui Kiangsi	Central China: Honan Hupeh Hunan	South China: Fukien Kwangtung Kwangsi	West China : Surkiang Kansu Szechuan Kweichow

ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSIONS, 1920.

			1	. Pré	ties 1		ACK.	
Vicariats	Concedentions	Résidence	Fvé-	-		Chié-	Accrois-	Caté.
apostoliques	Congrégations	centrale	ques		incit-	tiens	sement	chumènes
			!	Péens	gènes			
		Première	régi	o n				
/ N. I	Lazaristes	IFé king	1 2	33	99 1	262 320	- 8 297	7 500
(N. W.	**	chen-ting		20	40	70 875	1 223	7 4.9
The best E.	/*	Yong-ping	1	10	5	15 013	389	1 000
Cente	31	P: o-ting	1	18	43	8 795 83 650	- 958 - 3 418	4 000 625
Mer. S.E.	lésuites	Hienshien	i	46	34	102 390	1 553	7 408
Ho-nan N.	M.E. Milan M.E. Paris	Wei-hoei	1	21	2	18 177	1 180	3 780
Mandchourie. S.	M.E. Paris	Moukden	1	26	18	30 277	20	2 461
Mandenourie. N.	M.E. Scheut	N.D. des Pins	1	20 38	17	26 935 31 016	884 677	1 382 6 733
Mongolie Cent.	M.Is, Schen	i-wan-tse	2	39	24	44 833	1 298	12 263
(W.	21	Eul-che-se-king-ti	1	41	5	30 501	1 680	15 714
	1	Deuxième	régi	o n				
Ili (Sin-kiang) (m,)	M.E. Scheut	I-li	1	1 4	1 1	340		1
12 (N.	11	Liang-tcheou	2	14	1	5 227	316	5 190
18. (P.A.)	. 7	Isin-tcheou	1	13	2	2 529	161	1 297
Chien-si	Franciscains	Yen ngan	1	11 8	2 29	9 230 35 067	180 1 197	4 007 26 903
1 S.	M.E Rome	Han-tchong	1	10	8	14 : 90?		2 100
Chan : N.	Franciscains	l'aisyuen	1	20	19	86 541	1 677	18 000
Chan-si S.		Lou ngan Tsi-nan	1	28	33	80 557 42 1 65	568 568	7 864
Chan-tong E.	21	Tche-fou	1	29	11	15 0.7	483	18 8 3
S.	M.E. Steyl	Yen-tcheou		52	17	95 571	1873	43 582
		Troisième	rég	ion				
(W.	M.E Parme	Hiang-ich eng	1 1	1 2	1 1	10 021	853	6 285
Ho-nan E.	M.E. Milan	Nan-yang	î	16	12	19 077	1 295	10 700
(S.		K'ai-fong	1	7	2	7 975	330	2 633
Hanni E.	Franciscains	Ou-tch'ang Lao-ho-k'eou	1	30 16	21	42 4 6 33 716	1 220 1 251	18 400
Hou-pé N.W. S.W.	11	I-tch'ang	1	35	5	31 379	1 302	9 281
Lian N.	Augustiniens	Li-tcheou	î	30	2	11 406		
Hou-nan S.	Franciscains	Heng-tcheou	1	18	7	21 750	2 55 1	19 200
Klang-si E.	Lazaristes	Kieou-kiang Fou-tcheou	1	18	16	31 167 28 846	966 744	16 089
S.	/* //	Ki-ngan	i	11	18	21 384	94	5 235
Tabé lina E.	"	Ning-po	1	19	23	38 219	1721	4 091
	71	Hang-tcheou	1	13	20 79	20 126 262 672	573 5 208	2 649 83 256
Kiang nan	Jésuites	Chang-hai	1	131	19 1	202 012	0 208	83 200
		l uatrième						
Koei-tcheou	M.E. Paris	Koei-yang	1	45	23	35281(18)		1 612
Se-tch'oan E.	9.9	Tch eng-tou Tch ong-k ing	1	37	65	49 35(6) 58 102		18 034
Scatch Gail S.	11	Sui-fou	2	32	25	38 949	1 878	7 598
Kien-tch'ang	"	Ning-yuen	1	12	3	9543(17)	592	
Yun-nan	9 1	Vun-nan-sen	2	27 20	16	17 081 4 059	149	9 790 300
Thibet	n	Ta-tsien-lou			1 2 1	4 009	149	300
		Cinquième				W.C		
Fou-tcheou	Dominicains	Fou-tcheou		43	17	52 175 12 500	1 406	5 000
Amoy Hong-kong	M.E. Milan	Amoy	1	17	12	23 477		7 838
Chao-tcheou	alésiens	Chao-tcheou	1	14	1	2 314		
Canton	M.E. Paris	Canton	2	53	18	28 92+		
Swatow	4.9	Swatow	1	19	11 8	32 447 4 86 2	-1 334 144	2 000
Diocèse de Macao	,	Nan-ning Macao		32	10	11 609	- 143	602
SPICOSO GO BENGNO (11111)		1						
	/ نه،	Première region !	13	319	322	753 812	-3 771	
	E (Deuxième ,,	9	216	131	279 8 14	6 455	
	=)	Troisième "	13	371	242	580 [64]	18 108	
	on)	Quatrième "	9 8	204 221	180	21 2 350 168 313	12 827 6 171	
	e (Cinquième ,, Procures	0	31		100 010	0171	
	jades .	Total	52	1365	9+3	1994 483	37 318	
			-	2200	material *			
	,	un prêtre		2380 pour	838)		
	Soit {	un piêtre europé	en	pour	1408	hchre	tiens	
		un prâtre chinoi	0	C11.7	2071			

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE FAMINE IN NORTH CHINA, 1920-21.

Note:

It should be noted that the figures given in this article are not final as the reports of the different societies are not yet in, nor is their work completely finished.

1. Causes of the Famine.

The immediate cause of famine was the continued drought throughout the year of 1920 causing failure of the spring and fall crops. This failure followed upon poor crops in large sections during 1919 and the serious flood of 1917-18. This region is subject to such drought as is shown by the fact that the serious famine of 1876-79 covered practically the same area. It must be said, however, that drought is not the only explanation of the famine. One of the deeper causes is the low margin of subsistence upon which many of the people through much of this region live even during the best years, otherwise one year of drought would not bring millions of people to the verge of starvation. Chronic poverty is the underlying basis of the famine. A crop failure is only the climax bringing about actual starvation conditions.

II. EXTENT OF THE FAMINE.

The famine covered large sections of Chihli, Shantung, Honan, Shansi and Shensi. Roughly speaking, the whole area north of the Yellow River and south of a line drawn from Tientsin to Peking was very seriously affected. In addition, certain sections of Western Honan and Shensi are included. The following table shows the extent of the famine; the column headed "destitute" is the latest information given the famine committees:

Province Chibli Honan Shantung Shansi Shensi*	No. Hsien. 97 57 35 56 72	Population. 18,819,653 11,461,791 7,488,000 4,569,497 6,504,834	Destitute. 8,736,722 4,370,162 3,827,380 1,616,890 1,243,960
	317	48,843,775	19,795,114

The destitute represent those who were practically without any resources of sustaining life, and do not include the vast number of those who though seriously affected had property sufficient to tide over the famine period.

III. INTENSITY OF THE FAMINE.

Famine conditions were most intense throughout the sections north of the Yellow River in the three provinces of Shantung, Honan and Chihli, and a few hsien in the mountain regions of Western Honan. Only spotted districts in the other places reached the severity of these areas. The districts immediately bordering on the railroads or the main roads were less severely affected. This was unquestionably largely due to the varied means of sustenance that the inhabitants had due to the easy means of communication. As a rule the more remote districts in the mountains were very severely affected and suffered greatly. Areas where there were large numbers of wells or irrigation ditches were able to get along quite

^{*}Revised figures of the International Relief Society of Shensi are not at hand; in their absence recent figures published by the Psking-Shensi Famine Relief Society, a Chinese organization, are given. The total seems reasonable though evidently a number of counties are but slightly affected.

comfortably. These facts produced a very spotted character to the famine, and it was common to find in the same hsien sections where the crops

were good and sections where they were entire failures.

The intensity of the famine is shown, in the first place by the emigration of the people from their home districts. All of the railroads were crowded with these refugees. They poured across the passes into Shansi and Shensi, they reached to the plains of Mongolia and northern Manchuria. A conservative estimate is that a million people, largely the stronger members of the families, fled from their homes to secure a livelihood elsewhere.

Secondly, by the character of the food eaten by the people. Famine workers have visited personally hundreds of thousands of homes throughout the various districts and they found practically nothing therein but leaves, chaff, thistles, bark of trees, and similar kinds of materials as the staple food being used Many more millions beside those classified as destitute were eating this type of food. In some places pumice stone, ground up, was used as the basis for cakes in which a few leaves were mixed. It is remarkable testimony to the endurance of the Chinese people that so many were able to survive the winter on such a food basis as this.

Thirdly, the economic losses to the people. Most of the population survived the winter by the sale of their land, their farm animals, their nouse timbers, furniture and miscellaneous property. Some districts reported 7/10ths of the farm animals sold; animals selling for \$60.00 to \$70.00 in normal times could be purchased for a few dollars during the famine; only the rich could afford to support an animal. It is unquestioned that the poor and the middle class who have survived the winter with their lives are burdened with the loss of property and debts which will weigh them down for many years to come, if they ever recover from the handicap.

Fourthly, the sale of women and children. This took place on a very large scale. Most of those sold were young girls but women up to forty years of age were also sold. The boys were sold as adopted sons, for training in theatres, and for forms of industrial work which one fears practically amount to slavery. The girls were sold as wives, concubines, slave-girls, but very largely to houses of prostitution. No total estimate for the entire district is available as many of the regions were so remote as to create no demand. but the number is large. In the districts bordering

on the railroads this sale was very lively.

Fifth, the death rate. This is a most difficult thing upon which to get figures. The district reporting below shows a total of 11,377 deaths, in six of their nine counties. The death rate was kept down by the very large amount of relief given out particularly during the spring months. In general, it could be said that the death rate was not as large as expected and feared; at the outside an estimate of half a million people could be set down. The following report of six hsien around Shuntefu based on detailed information given by the village headmen is interesting. The region is average as far as famine intensity goes in Chihli. The figures are to April 1st—the succeeding months would have been the most severe had not relief in much greater amount been sent into the district.

Number of villages reporting	692
Population	397,700
Destitute	160,119
Frozen and Starved	11,377
Sick at present	6,253
Mu of land owned before the Famine	1,395,000
Mu of land sold during the Famine	187,500
Mu of land planted in Winter Wheat	581,400
Mu of Irrigated Land	231,300
Animals owned before Famine	42,663
Animals sold during Famine	30,034
Number of Children Sold	9,253
Number of wells	9,155

IV. ORGANIZATION FOR FAMINE RELIEF.

The organizations can be divided into four groups:

Government Relief.

International Relief Societies.

Chinese Societies.

- Work of other Nationals, (such as the American Red Cross, Japanese Societies, and the various Missions).
- 1. Government Relief.

The contribution of the Chinese Government to famine relief was large,

and given in varied ways:

(a) The Government Relief Bureau. This was established by Presidential mandate and carried on a considerable measure of direct relief. Its main sources of income were the surcharge on the Maritime Customs, Native Customs, Transit and Commodity Taxes and a large measure of Chinese subscriptions. Use of the surtax on the Maritime Customs should be given special mention. This surtax was imposed by permission of the Diplomatic Body and in January the loan of \$4,000,000 was negotiated with this surtax as security. By the agreement between the Diplomatic Body and the Chinese Government a Commission of six Chinese and six foreigners were appointed to administer the fund, and by subsequent decision of this Commission this fund was administered through the various

international societies as given below.

(b) Ministry of Communications. This Ministry imposed a surcharge on railroad fares, postal service and telegraphs and the proceeds of this surtax were applied in the construction of the road bed of the Shihchiachuang-Tsangchow and Chefoo-Weihsien Railways. On both roads famine labour was used. A large contribution to the relief of the affected regions and one which has some claim to be the largest measure of relief was the organization of the Railroads in the transportation of grain. A very effective stimulation to the importing of grain into the affected areas was given by the marked reduction even to the commercial grain. This was so effective that through all parts of the famine area reached by railroads, grain could be purchased at fairly reasonable prices. Those who had money could buy-it was the poor who suffered. The records of the Railways show deliveries of grain of 103.763 tons in February, 105.217 tons in March and 96,251 tons in April, or an average of 3,429.6 daily for that period, which was a very creditable performance. Furthermore the railways granted free transportation for grain for the relief societies, free passage for all relief workers and the privilege of franking telegrams. was a financial contribution to the work of the societies totalling several million dollars.

2. International Relief Societies. The international organizations were as follows:

Peking United International Famine Relief Committee in charge of West Chihli.

North China International Society for Famine Relief, Tientsin, in charge of the East Chihli area.

International Auxiliary of Shantung Famine Relief.

Chinese-Foreign Famine Relief Society of Shantung (in charge of the Customs Surtax Loan.)

Honan Famine Relief Committee.

Shansi Famine Relief Society.

Shensi United Famine Relief Committee.

Chinese-Fcreign Famine Relief Committee. Shanghai (assuming no administrative responsibilities for work but acting as a collecting and distributing agency to the other societies.)

Hankow International Famine Relief Committee co-operating with the Honan Famine Relief Committee.

These were organized at the very beginning of the famine. The Peking United International Famine Relief Committee was initiated by six members of the Diplomatic Body of Peking, who organized relief committees among their nationals (American, Belgian, British, French, Italian and Japanese.) These six, together with other foreigners, united into an international executive. This international group in turn united with the union of twenty-two Chinese societies thus forming the Peking United International Famine Relief Committee. This Committee, having sprung from the initiative of the Diplomatic Body and uniting with the Chinese Societies, while not in any sense having administrative control over other international bodies was recognized as the body having general oversight over the entire famine area.

The bulk of the work was done by the international societies and the American Red Cross. This international feature—different nationals cooperating in the one task—was the most striking feature of relief organization.

3. Chinese Societies. These societies were myriad in number, representing provincial organizations, local district organizations as well as large general relief societies promoted by prominent individuals. A general statement of the facts of the work done by them is impossible at the present moment but it is no small figure, and it can be well said that this famine marked a very much larger measure of local Chinese relief than has been known before. Many millions of dollars were undoubtedly raised by these societies.

4. Work of Other Nationals. The American Red Cross made a grant of \$500,000.00 Gold at the beginning of the famine, undertaking work in a large section of Western Shantung. The type of work is described below. This grant of \$500,000, was increased by a similar grant later on wherefrom similar projects in Shansi, Honan and Chihli were undertaken. Nearly every Mission body working in this district had considerable private sums which they handled as Missions, furnishing a very considerable measure of relief; the total figures for this relief are not in hand at present.

V. Funds.

The organization for collection of funds was slow in getting under way. Of the many million dollars handled by the International Committees only \$1,800,000 was in hand by the first of January. Special credit should be given to the Chinese Foreign Famine Relief Society of Shanghai and to the Chinese in Manila and the British colonies; their active efforts produced money which enabled all of the organizations to get started and to perfect the organization to handle the subsequent larger funds. The main sources of later funds were the Loan on the Customs Surtax, the funds resulting from the National Drive held in the latter part of February, the China Relief Fund of the United States, the Mansion House Fund of Great Britain, and the funds collected in Canada. The following table gives a summary of the total funds received by the different international organizations and the American Red Cross.

TOTAL FUNDS AVAILABLE FOR INTERNATIONAL RELIEF SOCIETIES BY DISTRICTS.

TO MAY 31, 1921.

WEST CHIHLI

WEST CHIME:	
Through Peking United Int'l Com.	
General	1,366,026.64
Customs Loan	756,200,00
American Advisory	2,611,060.00
Drive Funds	
Ann	5,420,786.64
Through American Red Cross	50,000.00
agence on	

EAST CHIHLI.

Through	North China Int'l Society	
	General	367,364.11
	Skanghai	667.345.31
	Customs Loan	716,400.00
	Drive	179,759,48
	American Advisory	1,301,200.00
		3,232.068.90
Through	American Red Cross	50,000.00
		3,282,068.90
SHANTUNG.		
Through	International Auxiliary.	
	Genera!	
	Shanghai	257,225.09
	Drive	99,358.61 813,270.00
	American Advisory	537,300.00
601 1		1.837.259.84
Through	American Red Cross	1,200,000.00
	*	3,037,259.84
	Honan.	
Through	Honan Famine Relief Society	
	General	
	Customs Loan	875,600.00
	Shanghai Drive	280,600.00
	Canadian Funds	815,925.00
	American Advisory	1,056,510.00
	_	3,544,144.77
Through	American Red Cross	118,000.00
	\$	3,662,144.77
Shansi.		
Through	Shansi Relief Society	061 054 40
	General Customs Loan	261,874.42 398,000.00
	Drive	115,477.98
	American Advisory	627,960.00
	Shanghai	62,250.00
		4 465 560 40
Through	American Red Cross	1,465,562.40
2111035	American Advisory	250,000.00
	Other Funds	700,000.00
	- \$	2,415,562.40
	SHENSI (TO APRIL 1).	
Through	Shensi United Committee	
	General\$	160,200.00
	Customs Loan	537,300.00
	Shanghai Drive	110,000.00 63,000.00
	American Advisory	189,000.00
	\$	1,059,500.00

KANSÛ.

Through Kansu Int'l. Fam. Rel. Com. Customs Loan	\$ 45,000.00
Grand Total	\$ 18,972,322.55
General \$ Customs Loan Drive Shanghai American Advisory American Red Cross Canadian	2,600,081.08 3,865,800.00 1,346,096.07 1,377,420.40 6,599,000.00 2,368.000.00 815,925.00

\$18,972,322.55

Note: Shanghai funds are not included in the "drive."

VI. THE METHOD OF RELIEF WORK.

1. Direct Relief. The largest method of relief was direct: giving out of grain to those whom investigation showed to be in need. The international societies as a rule fixed on the policy of giving out grain rations rather than money on the principle of getting as much grain as possible into the affected areas in order to keep down prices. In Chihli the total amount of grain purchases for this relief as far as reported totals 94,548 tons.

2. Labour Giving Relief Works.

(a) Road Building.

The American Red Cross-In this line the American Red Cross took the lead in confining its relief practically entirely to this method of distribution. They set about building a system of roads in Shantung, southern Chihli, Shansi and Honan, of which the following table of Building Operations for May shows the extent:

			Workmen		Persons
	Laid out.	Completed	. Recruited	at Work.	reached by
					relief.
Shantung	495	338	50,060	25,000	350,420
Shansi	82	36	18,000	17,940	90,000
,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	123	56	15,000	14,700	75,000
Chihli	41	30	8,000	4,400	26,700
,,	115		1,300		
,,	60		600		
	33	16	14,000	12,000	70,000
	949	476	106,960	74,040	611,120

2. The Wuhan-Hantan Road—Honan to Chihli with a length of 174 miles. This road deserves particular mention because it is a good macadam road of first class construction and the operation has been conducted in such a way as to make the cost even of bridges and metalling, almost entirely one of labour, thus relieving many famine stricken people.

A large number of smaller road building propositions, irrigation ditches, tree planting schemes, etc., have been carried on by the various committees.

3. Industrial Training and Promotion.

The third method used is the promotion of industrial opportunity for people in the famine district. The Tingchow Branch of the Peking United International Famine Relief Committee set spinning machines going in 40,-000 homes, by the giving of a catty of cotton to each family to start them in their work. Hair Net Classes: It was early found that a month's training in the making of hair nets should give a young girl a trade at which she could make her living, and in this way approximately 12,691 people have been trained for this work. A number of institutions have

been started where people were used in making garments, rugs, embroidery and laces, towels, soap, basketry, cloth weaving, straw-braid, etc.

4. Schools.

The fourth method of relief was in the opening of schools. In order to protect the children from sale by making them an asset to the family a large number of schools were started, giving a very simple education and paying the student approximately \$1.50 a month for regular attendance in school. Altogether there is a total of 465 schools with 28,090 children in the West Chilli District where this method was most used.

5. Refugee Camps.

While against the policy of nearly every Committee the large number of refugees necessitated camps; these varied from the camps of from 1,000 to 2,000 people to the camps as at Tientsin of nearly 50,000. Sanitation squads rendered very valuable service in the prevention of the spread of epidemics, by the process of de-lousing occupants and segregating of those with contagious diseases. In this connection there were soup kitchens established in certain places, either for the regular feeding of the refugees of for the serving of those en route to other fields.

RELIEF STATISTICS.

The total number of those relieved as reported to the Peking United International Famine Relief Committee for different periods during the famine months are as follows:

	an. 1st.	February	March	A pril	May
West Chihli. P.U.I.F.R.C. A. R. Cross	200,000	467,285	1,089,506	1,398,386 1,240	2,031,000 13,350
East Chihli.				1,399,626	2.044.350
$\mathbf{N.C.I.F.R.C.} \left\{ egin{array}{l} \mathbf{th} \\ \mathbf{in} \\ \mathbf{w} \\ \mathbf{C} \end{array} \right.$	is month cluded ith West	451,000	590,000	840,000	974,000
A. R. Cross	1111111				13,350
Shantung.				-	987,350
Int Ann)	200,000	159,000	374,920	500,000	600,000
A. R. Cross		75,000	100,000	150,000	350.420
Honan.		234,000	474,920	650,000	950,420
Honan Famine Relief Soc. A. R. Cross	16,000		500,000	1,000.000 15,000	1,000,000 70,000
Shansi.				1,015,000	1,070,000
Fam. Rel. A. R. Cross	33,000	50,000	50,000	200,000	200,000
				306,000	365,000
Shensi	12,000	(Owing to reliable	remoteness figures are	and political not in hand).	troubles
Total	451,000		2,704,426	4.209,626	5,417.120

Note: These totals do not include the 40,484 families relieved by the grant of cotton for spinning, nor the thousands of families (one Branch alone reports 43,701 families) in the West Chihli area who received the benefit of grants of seed grain.

VII. PERSONNEL

Shortly after the opening of work, the Personnel Bureau was established by the Peking Committee which served the various committees in the providing of foreign and Chinese staff as required. Many of the committees arranged their own staff so that figures reported by the Personnel Committee may not be entirely complete. The report on the Volunteer foreign workers down to April 30th is at hand showing a total of 465 who have given full time in famine relief work. They come from the following lines of of work:

Missionaries Gevernment School Teachers	
Business Houses	8
Independent	16
Not yet classified (being volunteers on the American Red Cross	
Roads whose occupations had not yet been fully reported)	78
Total	465

A glance at this report shows that the carrying on of this extensive famine relief was made possible through the missionary forces of the area already established in the field forming the basis of the local organizations and through the generous contributions of Missions outside the affected area who set aside men for this work on the volunteer basis.

VIII. FAMINE PREVENTION.

One of the outstanding results of this famine has been the realization that such famines are preventable by the undertaking of proper irrigation and river conservancy, forestry, proper agricultural methods and systems of crop totation, etc. Fortunately, this has led to the desire to form a permanent commission which will take steps to carry out proper measures of prevention. At present the Government has formed a Famine Prevention Commission of which Mr. Lu Cheng-hsiang, Ex-Minister of Foreign Affairs is the Director and Mr. Yuen Pao-hui, Vice-Minister of the Interior is Assistant Director. The general organization of the Commission has not yet been determined. The International Committees and the American Advisory Committee of the China Relief Fund are also considering this matter of permanent organization. It is hoped that out of these organizations will spring large constructive measures which will be of lasting benefit to China.

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE CHINESE CUSTOMS TARIFF.

TARIFF REVISION IN 1918.

The Customs Tariff took its origin in the Treaty of Nanking, which promised China a 5% duty. A revision of the tariff was made in 1858 and another in 1901. Japan, in the treaty of 1896, promised China that the tariff could be revised every ten years. Great Britain and United States of America made a similar promise in 1902.

By 1912, it was computed by the Customs authorities that the rate of duty payable was only about 4% ad valorem. Consequently in August, 1912, the Chinese Foreign Office addressed a circular note to the representatives of all the signatory Powers at Peking, proposing a revision of the tariff. No satisfaction ensued from this proposal. The Chinese Republic was formally recognized by the Powers on October, 1913, and soon after another attempt was made at tariff revision. The United States of America, Great Britain and the Netherlands acceded to China's request while the other Powers excepting three signified their consent by following the majority. The exceptions were Italy, Russia and Japan which made counter-demands before consenting. As the demands were not acceptable to China, the matter ended there. Meanwhile, owing to alterations in values caused by the war, the incidence of the tariff dropped steadily until by 1916 it was not much more than 3% ad valorem.

On August 14, 1917, China declared war against Germany and Austria-Hungary. The Allied Powers, in order, no doubt, to finance China in a common cause, consented, among other things, to the revision of the maritime tariff. The Neutral Powers joined them a little later. It was agreed between the Chinese Foreign Office and the Diplomatic Body that delegates should be sent to confer at Shanghai and the date for the Conference was fixed for December 1, 1917, which was, at the request of Japan and one or two other Powers, postponed to January, 1918.

The Japanese Minister asked for a reclassification of goods so that the amount of duty payable should correspond to their quality. The idea was for better goods to pay more duty, and inferior goods less. This suggestion was

accepted by China.

The Russian Minister reiterated the demand made in 1913 that only the old tariff should be applied to the overland trade. It may be pointed out here that Great Britain, France, Japan and Russia have frontier tradal relations with China, and this trade is taxed at one-third reduction from the maritime tariff. It was only an accident that in the former two cases the tariff of 1858 was applied and in the latter two that of 1902, and it was an oversight, no don't, that the tariff of 1902 was not applied to the former two cases as well. Realizing the difficulty of the Russian Minister for the want of an established government to refer the question to, and not wishing to block the progress of revision, China suggested that the matter be left open until some future date when she would take it up again with all the Powers concerned. This suggestion was agreed to by the Russian Minister.

During the summer of 1918, the equity of applying the revised tariff to the frontier trade, maintaining however the reduction conceded by treaty, again formed the subject of discussion between the Chinese Government and the representatives of the four Powers concerned. Of these, Great Britain, with her usual broad mindedness, promptly and readily fell in with China's

views. Japan was willing to follow the majority, and France, though she at first was non-committal, was willing to abide by the majority also. When three nations out of four decided in China's favour, the abstention of Russia did not seem to be of great moment. Moreover the amount of revenue involved was very small, perhaps an increase of a few thousand taels in Customs duty. China could well sacrifice this amount in favou, of Russia, but there was a principle involved and she was forced to fight it out in justice to herself.

The real difficulty yet to be overcome was the basis of valuation. Most of the foreign Ministers at Peking preferred it to be solved by the delegates in Conference at Shanghai, but the Japanese precipitated the matter by taking it up with the Chinese Ministry. It was proposed that values of commodities during the three years, 1911, 1912 and 1913 should be taken as the basis. The Great War, it was declared, had caused an abnormal rise in the price of goods. And so the three years preceding the war were selected.

China could not accept this suggestion, as the value of the three years proposed by Japan was much lower than the market value, and a tariff rate on such a basis would not be an effective 5%. She proposed that following the precedent of the 1901 revision, the value of the three years, 1914, 1915 and 1916 should be taken as the basis. She further suggested that goods whose prices were most affected by the war could be singled out by the delegates who might declare on them a 5% ad valorem duty, and that she would be ready at any moment to co-operate with foreign governments to effect a further revision of the tariff when it was found that the price of goods should be so much lowered after the War as to raise the tariff rate to more than 5%.

In December, China suggested that the values of 1917 should be taken as the basis, which suggestion brought no response from the Diplomatic body. Japan proposed in March 1918, that the average values of the years, 1911-1916 be taken as the basis, and China brought forward the counterproposal that the basis should be the original proposal of Japan to take the average values of the years, 1911-1913 plus 20% in order to make good the losses due to fluctuation of prices after 1913.

Finally it was agreed between the Chinese and the foreign governments that a tariff be prepared on the basis of an effective 5% of the average values of merchandise during the years 1912-1916, the determination of these values being left to the Conference which will seek guidance from the valuation in the Returns of the Chinese Customs authorities and all other available evidence, and that "this tariff be subject to revision in whole or in part,

two years after the War".

Meanwhile delegates from Belgium, Brazil, China, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, and United States of America, assembled at Shanghai, and the Commission held its first meeting on January 5, 1918. After disposing of its Rules of Procedure, the Commission appointed a committee of seven delegations—Belgium, China, France, Great Britain, Japan, Russia and the United States of America—to consider China's proposal for a provisional tariff Much discussion ensued over the proposals and counter-proposals. In order to effect a compromise, China finally proposed a surtax of 40% for piece goods and metals and 30% for sundries with the option that merchants might pay 5% ad valorem duty on the present market value. When this proposal was put to the vote, it was found that fourteen delegations voted in favour of it and only Japan cast a dissenting vote.

The Commission having been idle for well-nigh three months was at last informed that the basis of valuation was agreed upon. It held its meeting again and set to work to appoint a committee to deal with the reclassification and the valuation of goods. The committee was to be

composed of any delegation which announced its wish to be represented in it, and any delegation could attend, speak and vote at its meetings whenever it wished to.

It was decided, at a meeting of the Committee, to divide the goods into 30 categories: piece goods, 9; metals, 2; and sundries, 19; and to appoint a sub-committee to deal with the reclassification and valuation of each category. The committee sat most studiously for nearly six months when the revised tariff assumed its present shape. It was adopted by the delegates unanimously and was forwarded to the respective representatives of their

governments for final approval.

The British, Japanese and United States delegations also brought up certain recommendations to be considered by the Commission. They were the reform of the transit pass administration, the removal of certain articles from the list of prohibited articles of import, the correction of the tariff schedule into dollar values, the reform of the procedure of fixing duty-paying values of the ad valorem duty goods, the improvement of the Appraising Department and certain changes to be made in the Customs Returns. They were all carried unanimously.

The representatives of all the interested Powers in an identical note expressed to the Chinese Government their respective governments' approval of the new tariff with the understanding that one month before the date of its enforcement, the Chinese Maritime Customs would give public notice that all shipments made during the ensuing month would continue to pay duty in accordance with the old tariff. The note also embodied the resolutions of the Commission for various reforms mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

According to a despatch of the Shui Wu Ch'u to the Inspectorate General of Customs, August 1st 1919, was the date on which the new tariff would come into force. It was further ordered that the said tariff was to be applied at the maritime as well as at the northern and southern frontier ports, which latter were subject to the deductions conceded by treaty. Thus

the work of tariff revision was brought to its close.

Details of the New Import Tariff appear on the following pages.

CUSTOMS IMPORT TARIFF.

COTTON AND COTTON GOODS. COTTON PIECE GOODS, GREY.

Name of Article Tari	# Unit	& Duty
	Per 1	Hk. Tls.
Grey Shirtings and Sheetings, not over 40 ins. by 41 yds. :-		
(a.) Weight 7 lb. and under	Piece	0.091
(b.) ,, over 7 tb. and not over 9 tb	Piece	0.13
(c.) ,, ., 9 lb. and not over 11 lb		0.18
Grey Shirtings and Sheetings, not over 40 ins. by 41 yds. and	with	
more than 110 threads per square inch:-		
(a.) Weight over 11 lb. and not over 12½ lb	Piece	0.20
$(b.)$, $12\frac{1}{2}$ lb. and not over $15\frac{1}{2}$ lb		0.23
$(c.)$,, ,, $15\frac{1}{2}$ tb		0.27
Grey Shirtings and Sheetings, not over 40 ins. by 41 yds. and		
110 threads or less per square inch:		
	Piece	0.16
	Piece	0.20
	Piece	0.15
Drills and Jeans, Grey, not over 31 ins. by 41 yds. :-		
(a.) Weight 123 lb. and under	Piece	0.20
(b.) ,, over 12\frac{3}{4} tb.	Piece	0.16
() , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		

Name of Article Tariff Uni	
T-Cloths, Grey, not over 34 ins. by 25 yds.:-	Hk. Tls.
(a.) Weight 7 fb. and under	0.086 0.12
T-Cloths, Grey, over 34 ins but not over 37 ins by 25 yds Piece Imitation Native Cotton Cloth (including Machine-made), Grey, not over 24 ins. wide and with not more than 110 threads	0.15
per square inch. Picul	1.60
Cotton Flannel or Flannelette of Plain or Twill Weave, Grey:— (a.) Not over 32 ins. by 31 yds	0.17 0.24
COTTON PIECE GOODS, WHITE OR DYED.	
(irrespective of finish).	
Plain White Shirtings & Sheetings, not over 37 ins. by 42 yds. Piece White Irishes, not over 37 ins. by 42 yds. Piece	0.21 0.25
Drills and Jeans. White, not over 31 ins. by 32 vds. Piece	0.25
Drills and Jeans, White, not over 31 ins. by 32 yds	0.22
7-Cloths, White, and Mexicans, not over 32 ins. by 41 ydsPiece	0.18
Dimities, Piqués, Vestings, Quiltings, and Bedford Cords, White, not over 30 ins. by 30 yds	0.24
Cambries Lawns and Muslins White Plain not over 46 ing by	
12 yds. Piece Cambrics, Lawns, and Muslins, White, Figured, not over 46 ins. by 12 yds. Value 5 Cambrics, Lawns, and Muslins, Dyed, Plain or Figured, not over	0.041
by 12 yds Value 5	ner cent
Cambrics, Lawns, and Muslins, Dyed, Plain or Figured, not over	per cent.
46 ins. by 12 yds	4.0
White or Dyed Plain or Figured Cambrics, Lawns, Muslins, Limbrics, Pongees, Brocades and Striped, Spotted, Corded, and Figured Shirtings:—	
(a.) Not over 30 ins. by 31 yds	0.22
(b.) Over 30 ins. but not over 37 ins. by 42 ydsPiece	0.25
Leno Brocades, White or Dyed, not over 31 ins. by 30 yds	0.11
Dyad Shirtings and Sheetings Plain :	per cent.
(a.) Not over 30 ins. by 33 yds. Piece (b.) Not over 30 ins. and over 33 yds. but not over 43	0.14
(b.) Not over 30 ins. and over 33 yds. but not over 43	0.40
yds. Piece (c.) Not over 35 ins. by 21 yds. Piece	0.18 0.11
(d.) Not over 36 ins. and over 21 yds. but not over 33 yds. Piece	0.11
ydsPiece	0.17
(e) Not over 36 ins. and over 33 yds. but not over 43	0.22
yds. Piece Dyed Drills and Jeans, Plain:—	0.22
(a.) Not over 31 ins. by 33 yds	0.18
(a.) Not over 31 ins. by 33 yds	0.07
Dyed T-Cloths, Embossed Cantoons, Alpacianos, Real and Imitation	0.23
Turkey Reds, not over 32 ins. by 25 yds.:—	
(a.) Weight 31 lb. and under Piece	0.094
(b) ,, over $5\frac{1}{4}$ lb. but not over $5\frac{1}{4}$ lb	0.12 0.17
(b.) ,, over $3\frac{1}{4}$ lb. but not over $5\frac{1}{4}$ lb. Piece (c.) ,, ,, $5\frac{1}{4}$ lb. Piece Mercerised Crimps, White, Dyed, or Printed, Plain or Figured,	0.17
not over 52 ing by 52 ydg	0.27
Gatmeal Crapes, White or Dyed, Plain or Figured, not over 33 ins. by 33 yds.	0.06
Cetton Crape (not including Oatmeal Crapes). Grey, Bleached.	0.26
Dved. Printed, or Dved in the Yarn:—	
(a) Not over 15 ins. wide	per cent.
(b.) Over 15 ins. but not over 30 ins. wide	0.0053

Name of Article - Tariff Un	it f. Thata
Per	Hk. Tls.
Lastings, Italians, Satteens, Ribs, Cords, Moreens, Beatrice Twills, Tientsin Twills, Satteen Drills, Satteen Stripes, Repps,	
and Imitation (Weft-faced) Venetians, White or Dved.	
Plain or Figured, not over 33 ins. by 33 vds. Piece	0.23
Peplins and Venetians, White or Dyed, Plain, not over 33 ins.	0.40
by 33 yds	
oy 33 yds	0.50
(1.) White, Dyed, or Printed, or Dyed in the Yarn, exclusive	
of Duplex or Reversible Prints:	0.05
(a.) Not over 25 ins. by 15 yds	0.07 0.085
(c.) Over 25 ins. but not over 30 ins. by 31 yds Piece	0.18
(d.) Over 30 ins. but not over 36 ins. by 15 yds Piece	0.10
(e.) Over 30 ins. but not over 36 ins. by 31 ydsPiece (2.) Duplex or Reversible Prints	0.22 per cent.
Dyed Cotton Spanish Stripes:—	
(a.) Not over 32 ins. by 20 yds. Piece (b.) Over 32 ins. but not over 64 ins. by 20 yds. Piece	0.11
Dyed Cotton Velvets and Velveteens, Plain, not over 26 ins.	. 0.22
wide	0.014
Cotton Velvets and Velveteens, Printed, Figured, or Embossed, Velvet and Velveteen Cords, Corduroys, Fustians, Mole-	
skins, and PlushesValue 5	
Canvas, Cotton (including Cotton Duck), for Sails, etcYard Stockinet or Knitted Tissue:—	0.015
(a.) Raised Picul	2.20
(b.) Not RaisedValue 5	per cent.
COTTON PIECE GOODS, PRINTED.	
Printed Cambrics, Printed Lawns. Printed Muslins, Printed Shirt-	
ings, Printed Sheetings, Printed T-Cloths (including those known as Blue and White Printed T-Cloths), Printed	
Drills, Printed Jeans, Printed Diagonal Twills, Twill	
Cretonnes, Printed Silesias, Printed Repps (not including	
Repp Cretonnes):— (a.) Not over 20 ins. wide	per cent.
(b.) Over 20 ins. but not over 46 ins. by 12 yds Piece	0.051
(c.) Over 20 ins. but not over 32 ins. by 30 yds. Piece (d.) Over 32 ins. but not over 42 ins. by 30 yds. Piece	0.12 0.15
Printed Mercerised Crimps. See Mercerised Crimps, &c.	0.20
Printed Oatmeal Crapes and Oatmeal Crape Cretonnes, not over 32 ins. by 30 yds	0.14
Printed Cotton Crape. See Cotton Crape. &c.	0.14
Printed Turkey Reds, Real and Imitation, not over 31 ins. by 25	0.10
yds. Piece Printed Lenos, not over 31 ins. by 30 yds. Piece	0.10 0.12
Printed Satteens and Satinets, Printed Brocades (including Printed	
Fancy Woven Stripes or Checks), Printed Italians, Printed Damasks, Printed Venetians, Printed Lastings, Printed	
Beatrice Twills, Printed Cords, Printed Poplins, Printed	
Moreens, not over 32 ins. by 30 yds Piece	0.25
Printed Flannelette. See Cotton Flannel. &c. Duplex or Reversible Prints of Shirting Weave and one colour only,	
not over 32 ins. by 30 yds	0.15
Printed Velvets and Velveteens. See Cotton Velvets, &c. Printed Domestic Cretonnes, Printed Satteen Cretonnes, Printed	
Timed Domestic Creconnes, Timed Saucen October, Timed	
Repp Cretonnes, Printed Embossed Figures, Printed Art	

3.50

Name of Article

Twiff Unit & Duty Per IIk. Tls.

Muslins and Casement Cloth, Printed Cotton Coatings, Trouserings, and Gabardines, and all other Duplex or Reversible Prints except those enumerated aboveValue 5 per cent. Printed Blankets. See Blankets, &c.

Printed Handkerchiefs. See Handkerchiefs, &c.

The term "Printed" in this Tariff includes Pigment Style, Direct Printing Style, Steam Style, Discharge Style, Madder or Dyed Style, Resist Style, Resist Pad Style, Metal Style, and so forth, irrespective of finish.

The term "Duplex or Reversible Print" in this Tariff includes all Printed Cottons having (a) a different pattern printed on each side of the cloth, (b) the same design on both sides of the cloth,

whether printed with one or more rollers.

(a.) Not Baised on either side

COTTON PIECE GOODS, YARN-DYED.

COTTON PIECE GOODS, YARN-DYED.	•
Cotton Crape. See above. Cotton Flannel, or Flannelette. See above.	
Stockinet. See above.	
Cotton and Cotton Goods not otherwise enumerated (see also	
Unenumerated Goods)	per cent.
Cotton Piece Goods not otherwise enumerated (see also Unenumer-	
ated Goods)Value	23
COTTON, RAW; COTTON THREAD, COTTON YARN, A	ND
MANUFACTURES OF COTTON.	
Ankle-bands, Plain or DecoratedPicul	4.60
Bags, New (see also Bags, Mats and Matting)Picul	2.00
Blankets, Plain, Printed, or Jacquard (including those with a taped	
or whipped edge of Silk or other material), and Blanket	0.00
Cloth Picul Canvas. See above.	2.00
Crape. See above.	
Counterpanes, Honeycomb or Alhambra:—	
(a.) Not over $2\frac{1}{2}$ yds. long	2.25
(b.) Over $2\frac{1}{2}$ yds. long	per cent.
Embroidered Edging or Insertion, Machine-madeValue	11
Flannelette. See above.	
Handkerchiefs, neither Embroidered nor Initialled:	
(1.) White, Dyed, or Printed, Hemmed (but not with a drawn-	
thread hem):	
(a.) Not over 13 ins. square	0.011
(b.) Over 13 ins. square but not over 18 ins. square Dozen	0.018
(c) Over 18 ins. square but not over 30 ins. square Dozen (2.) White, Dyed, or Printed, with drawn-thread hem:	0.027
(a.) Not over 13 ins. square	0.018
(b.) Over 13 ins. square but not over 18 ins. square Dozen	0.038
(c.) Over 18 ins. square but not over 30 ins. square. Dozen	0.046
(3.) Printed Handkerchiefs, Unhemmed:	
(a.) Not over 18 ins. square	0.01
(b.) Over 18 ins. square but not over 25 ins. square Dozen	0.032
(c.) Over 25 ins. square but not over 29 ins. square Dozen	0.04
(d.) Over 29 ins. square but not over 34 ins. square Dozen	0.052
Knitted Clothing, Raised (including that stitched with Silk	3.70
Thread and with facings of Silk or other material; Picul Raw Cotton	0.80
Singlets or Drawers, not Raised (including those stitched with Silk	.,
Thread and with facings of Silk or other material) Dozen	0.14
Socks and Stockings:	

(1.) Made of Ungassed or Unmercerised ThreadPicul

Name of Article Tariff Unit	t & Duly Hk. Ils.
(2.) Made of Gassed or Mercerised Thread or stitched or embreidered with SilkPicul	
(b.) RaisedValue 5	per cent.
(c.) Others	per cent.
(a). TurkishPicul	2.50
(b.) Honeycomb or Huckaback	2.20
(a.) In balls or skeins:	5.00
6-cord Picul	9.50
(b.) On spools or cops: 2-cord, 50 yards or less	0.000
3-cord Gross	0.029 0.039
3-cord, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,	0.073
(2.) Crochet or Embroidery Cotton, in skeins or balls Picul	4.10
Cotton Waste	0.48
Yarn:— (1.) Grey (irrespective of fold):	
(a.) Counts up to and including 17Picul	1.28
(b.) Counts above 17 and up to and including 23Picul	1.38
(c.) ,, 23 ,, ,, 35Picul (d.) ,, 35 ,, ,, 45Picul	2.18
(e.) ,, 45Value 5 (2.) Dyed, Bleached, Gassed, Mercerised, etcValue 5	per cent.
(2.) Dyed, Bleached, Gassed, Mercerised, etcValue 5	per cent.
HEMP LINEN SILK AND WOOLLEN GOODS	
HEMP, LINEN, SILK, AND WOOLLEN GOODS.	
HEMP, LINEN, SILK, AND WOOLLEN GOODS. FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS.	
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS.	0.42
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS. Gunny Bags, New	per cent.
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS. Gunny Bags, New	per cent. 0.70 0.95
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS. Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bags, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags Old Value 5	0.70 0.95 per cent.
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS. Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bogs, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, Old Value 5 Hessian Cloth Picul Canvas of Hemp or Jute, for Sails, etc. Yard	0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS. Gunny Bags, New	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent.
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS. Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bogs, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, Old Value 5 Hessian Cloth Picul Canvas of Hemp or Jute, for Sails, etc. Yard	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent.
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS. Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bogs, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, Old Value 5 Hessian Cloth Picul Canvas of Hemp or Jute, for Sails, etc. Yard Canvas Linen (elastic), for Tailoring Value 5 Tarpaulin of Hemp or Jute Yard SILK GOODS AND SILK MIXTURES.	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent. 0.011
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS. Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bags, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, Old Value 5 Hessian Cloth Picul Canvas of Hemp or Jute, for Sails, etc. Yard Canvas Linen (elastic), for Tailoring Value 5 Tarpaulin of Hemp or Jute Yard SILK GOODS AND SILK MIXTURES. Silk Piece Goods (all Silk), Plain, Figured, or Brocaded Value 5	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent. 0.011
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS. Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bags, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, Old Value 5 Hessian Cloth Picul Canvas of Hemp or Jute, for Sails, etc. Yard Canvas Linen (elastic), for Tailoring Value 5 Tarpaulin of Hemp or Jute Yard SILK GOODS AND SILK MIXTURES. Silk Piece Goods (all Silk), Plain, Figured, or Brocaded Value 5 Silk Plushes and Silk Velvets, Pure Catty	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent. 0.011
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS. Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bags, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, Old Value 5 Hessian Cloth Picul Canvas of Hemp or Jute, for Sails, etc. Yard Canvas Linen (elastic), for Tailoring Value 5 Tarpaulin of Hemp or Jute Yard SILK GOODS AND SILK MIXTURES. Silk Piece Goods (all Silk), Plain, Figured, or Brocaded Value 5 Silk Plushes and Silk Velvets, Pure Catty Silk Seal, with Cotton back Catty Silk Socks and Stockings, Knitted (including those made of	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent. 0.011 per cent. 0.55 0.15
FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE GOODS. Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bags, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, Old Value 5 Hessian Cloth Picul Canvas of Hemp or Jute, for Sails, etc. Yard Canvas Linen (elastic), for Tailoring Value 5 Tarpaulin of Hemp or Jute Yard SILK GOODS AND SILK MIXTURES. Silk Piece Goods (all Silk), Plain, Figured, or Brocaded Value 5 Silk Plushes and Silk Velvets, Pure Catty Silk Socks and Stockings, Knitted (including those made of Artificial Silk) Catty	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent. 0.011 per cent. 0.55 0.15
Gunny Bags, New	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent. 0.011 per cent. 0.55 0.15
Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bags, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, Old Value 5 Hessian Cloth Picul Canvas of Hemp or Jute, for Sails, etc. Yard Canvas Linen (elastic), for Tailoring Value 5 Tarpaulin of Hemp or Jute Yard SILK GOODS AND SILK MIXTURES. Silk Piece Goods (all Silk). Plain, Figured, or Brocaded Value 5 Silk Plushes and Silk Velvets, Pure Catty Silk Seal, with Cotton back Catty Silk Socks and Stockings, Knitted (including those made of Artificial Silk) Catty Silk Mixture Plushes and Velvets (i.e., made of Silk mixed with other fibrous material, with Cotton back) Catty Silk and Cotton Satins, White or Dved in the Piece —	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent. 0.011 per cent. 0.55 0.15 0.35
Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bags, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, Old Value 5 Hessian Cloth Picul Canvas of Hemp or Jute, for Sails, etc. Yard Canvas Linen (elastic), for Tailoring Value 5 Tarpaulin of Hemp or Jute Yard SILK GOODS AND SILK MIXTURES. Silk Piece Goods (all Silk), Plain, Figured, or Brocaded Value 5 Silk Plushes and Silk Velvets, Pure Catty Silk Seal, with Cotton back Catty Silk Socks and Stockings, Knitted (including those made of Artificial Silk) Silk Mixture Plushes and Velvets (i.e., made of Silk mixed with other fibrous material, with Cotton back) Silk and Cotton Satins, White or Dyed in the Piece— (a.) Plain Catty	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent. 0.011 per cent. 0.55 0.15
Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bags, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, Old Value 5 Hessian Cloth Picul Canvas of Hemp or Jute, for Sails, etc. Yard Canvas Linen (elastic), for Tailoring Value 5 Tarpaulin of Hemp or Jute Yard SILK GOODS AND SILK MIXTURES. Silk Piece Goods (all Silk). Plain, Figured, or Brocaded Value 5 Silk Plushes and Silk Velvets, Pure Catty Silk Seal, with Cotton back Catty Silk Socks and Stockings, Knitted (including those made of Artificial Silk) Silk Mixture Plushes and Velvets (i.e., made of Silk mixed with other fibrous material, with Cotton back) Catty Silk and Cotton Satins, White or Dyed in the Piece— (a.) Plain Catty Silk and Cotton Satins, Dyed in the Yarn Catty	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent. 0.011 per cent. 0.55 0.15 0.35 0.13 0.13 0.16 0.20
Gunny Bags, New Picul Gunny Bags, Old Value 5 Hemp Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags New Picul Hemp or Hessian Bags, Old Value 5 Hessian Cloth Picul Canvas of Hemp or Jute, for Sails, etc. Yard Canvas Linen (elastic), for Tailoring Value 5 Tarpaulin of Hemp or Jute Yard SILK GOODS AND SILK MIXTURES. Silk Piece Goods (all Silk), Plain, Figured, or Brocaded Value 5 Silk Plushes and Silk Velvets, Pure Catty Silk Socks and Stockings, Knitted (including those made of Artificial Silk) Silk Mixture Plushes and Velvets (i.e., made of Silk mixed with other fibrous material, with Cotton back) Catty Silk and Cotton Satins, White or Dyed in the Piece— (a.) Plain Catty (b.) Figured Catty	per cent. 0.70 0.95 per cent. 0.90 0.019 per cent. 0.55 0.15 0.35 0.13 0.13 0.16 0.20 per cent.

WOOL AND COTTON UNIONS.

WOOL AND COTTON UNIONS.	
Name of Article Tariff Unit	d. Dutu
Por F	Ik . TI_8 .
Union Shirtings, not over 33 ins. wide	0.024
Cloth made of remanufactured Wool and Cotton, such as Meltons.	
Vicunas, Beavers, Army Cloths, Union Cloths, Leather Cloths, Presidents (including Cloth containing a small	
Cloths Presidents (including Cloth containing a small	
quantity of new Wool for facing purposes), not over 56	
ins. wideYard	0.04
Italian Cloth, Plain or Figured, Alpacas, Lustres, Orleans, and	0.04
Sicilians	
Signansvarue o p	er cent.
DOOD WITHOUT AME TOOM	
WOOL AND WOOLLEN GOODS.	
Wool, Sheep'sPicul	0.85
Blankets and Rugs Pound	0.028
Blankets and Rugs Pound Bunting, not over 24 ins. by 40 yds. Piece	0.33
Camlets, not over 31 ins. by 62 yds. Piece	0.78
Flannel, not over 33 ins. wide	0.024
Lastings, Plain, Figured, or Crêped, not over 31 ins. by 32	0.024
yds. Piece	0.73
Illama Braid Picul	7.50
Inama praid	
Long Ells, not over 31 ins. by 25 yds	0.33
Russian, Broad, Supernne, Medium, and Habit Cloth, not over	0.076
76 ins. wide	0.076
Spanish Stripes, not over 64 ins. wide	0.032
All Woollen and Worsted Yarn and Cord, including Berlin	
WoolPicul	6.00
Make 1 to 10	
METALS.	
Aluminium Value 5 pe	er cent.
Aluminium	
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pc	er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pc	er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul	er cent. er cent. 0.70
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe	er cent. er cent. 0.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe	er cent. er cent. 0.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe	er cent. er cent. 0.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pe	er cent. 0.70 er cent. 1.50 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pe Ingots Picul	2.50 er cent. 1.50 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pe Ingots Picul Nails Picul	er cent. 0.70 er cent. 1.50 er cent. 1.50 1.80
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pc Antifriction Metal Value 5 pc Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pc Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pc Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pc	er cent. 0.70 er cent. 1.50 er cent. 1.50 1.80 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pc Antifriction Metal Value 5 pc Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pc Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pc Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pc Screws Value 5 pc	er cent. 0.70 er cent. 1.50 er cent. 1.50 1.80 er cent. er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pa Antifriction Metal Value 5 pa Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pa Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pa Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Screws Value 5 pa Sheets and Plates Picul	er cent. 0.70 er cent. 1.50 er cent. 1.80 er cent. er cent. 1.50
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pe Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pe Screws Value 5 pe Screws Picul Tubes Picul	2.40 er cent. 2.70 er cent. 2.50 er cent. 1.50 1.80 er cent. 1.50 2.40
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pe Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pe Screws Value 5 pe Screws Picul Tubes Picul Wire Picul	er cent. 0.70 er cent. 1.50 er cent. 1.80 er cent. er cent. 1.50
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pc Antifriction Metal Value 5 pc Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pc Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pc Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pc Screws Value 5 pc Screws Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tuber Picul Copper:—	1.50 er cent. 1.50 2.40 1.50
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pe Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pe Screws Value 5 pe Screws Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Copper:— Bars and Rods Picul	1.50 er cent. 1.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pe Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pe Screws Value 5 pe Sheets and Plates Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Wire Picul Wire Picul Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers Value 5 pe	1.50 er cent. 1.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Antifriction Metal Antimony Regulus and Refined Antimony Ore Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Ingots Nails Old (fit only for remanufacture) Screws Screws Value 5 per Sheets and Plates Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Wire Copper:— Bars and Rods Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers Picul Value 5 per Sheets Picul	1.50 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pe Ingots Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pe Screws Value 5 pe Screws Value 5 pe Sheets and Plates Picul Tubes Picul	1.50 er cent. 1.50 2.40 1.70 er cent. 1.40 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pe Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pe Screws Value 5 pe Screws Picul Tubes Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pe	1.50 er cent. 1.50 2.40 1.50 1.70 er cent. 1.40 2.40 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Value 5 pe Antifriction Metal Picul Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pe Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pe Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pe Screws Value 5 pe Sheets and Plates Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Old (Sit only for remanufacture) Picul Tubes Picul Old (Sit only for remanufacture) Picul Old (Sit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pe Ingots and Slabs Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pe Sheets and Plates	1.50 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.40 er cent. 1.70
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pa Antifriction Metal Value 5 pa Antifriction Metal Picul Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pa Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pa Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Screws Value 5 pa Sheets and Plates Picul Tubes Picul Wire Picul Wire Picul Wire Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Picul Wire Picul Sheets and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers Value 5 pa Ingots and Slabs Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Sheets and Plates Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Sheets and Plates Picul Tacks Value 5 pa	1.50 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.40 er cent. 1.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Antifriction Metal Antimony Regulus and Refined Antimony Ore Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Ingots Picul Nails Old (fit only for remanufacture) Sheets and Plates Tubes Bars and Rods Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Wire Picul Sheets and Slabs Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers Picul Value 5 pe Ingots and Slabs Picul Nails Pi	1.50 er cent. 1.60 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.40 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pa Antifriction Metal Value 5 pa Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pa Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pa Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Screws Value 5 pa Sheets and Plates Picul Tubes Picul Copper:— Bars and Rods Picul Copper:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers Value 5 pa Ingots and Slabs Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Ingots and Slabs Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Ingots and Plates Picul Tacks Value 5 pa Tubes Value 5 pa	1.50 er cent. 1.50 2.40 er cent. 1.40 er cent. 1.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pa Antifriction Metal Value 5 pa Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pa Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pa Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Screws Value 5 pa Sheets and Plates Picul Tubes Picul Wire Picul Copper:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers Value 5 pa Ingots and Slabs Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Picul Tacks Picul Tacks Value 5 pa Sheets and Plates Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Ingots and Slabs Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Sheets and Plates Picul Tacks Value 5 pa Tubes Value 5 pa Tubes Value 5 pa Wire Picul Wire Cable Value 5 pa	er cent. er cent. 0.70 er cent. 1.50 er cent. 1.50 1.80 er cent. 1.50 2.40 1.50 1.70 er cent. 1.40 2.40 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Antifriction Metal Antimony Regulus and Refined Antimony Ore Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Ingots Picul Nails Old (fit only for remanufacture) Sheets and Plates Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Wire Copper:— Bars and Rods Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 per Sheets and Plates Picul Tubes Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Value 5 per Sheets and Plates Picul Nails Value 5 per Sheets and Plates Picul Tacks Value 5 per Sheets and Plates Picul Tacks Value 5 per Tubes Value 5 per Value	er cent. er cent. 0.70 er cent. 1.50 er cent. 1.50 1.80 er cent. 1.50 2.40 1.50 1.70 er cent. 1.40 2.40 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pa Antifriction Metal Value 5 pa Antifriction Metal Picul Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pa Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pa Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Screws Value 5 pa Sheets and Plates Picul Tubes Picul Wire Picul Wire Picul Wire Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Wire Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Ingots and Slabs Picul Tacks Value 5 pa Tubes Value 5 pa	er cent. er cent. 0.70 er cent. 1.50 er cent. 1.50 1.80 er cent. 1.50 2.40 1.50 1.70 er cent. 1.40 2.40 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Antifriction Metal Antimony Regulus and Refined Antimony Ore Brass and Yellow Metal: Bars and Rods Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 per Ingots Nails Old (fit only for remanufacture) Sheets and Plates Tubes Wire Bars and Rods Picul Tubes Wire Picul Tubes Bars and Rods Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers Picul Tubes Bars and Rods Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers Picul Tubes Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers Picul Nails Picul Value 5 per Sheets and Plates Picul Tubes Value 5 per Sheets Picul Value 5 per Sheets Picul Tubes Value 5 per Tubes	er cent. er cent. 0.70 er cent. 1.50 er cent. 1.50 1.80 er cent. 1.50 2.40 1.50 1.70 er cent. 1.40 2.40 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent.
Aluminium Sheets Value 5 pa Antifriction Metal Value 5 pa Antifriction Metal Picul Antimony Regulus and Refined Picul Antimony Ore Value 5 pa Brass and Yellow Metal:— Bars and Rods Picul Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories Value 5 pa Ingots Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Screws Value 5 pa Sheets and Plates Picul Tubes Picul Wire Picul Wire Picul Wire Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Tubes Picul Wire Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Nails Picul Old (fit only for remanufacture) Value 5 pa Ingots and Slabs Picul Tacks Value 5 pa Tubes Value 5 pa	er cent. er cent. 0.70 er cent. 1.50 er cent. 1.50 1.80 er cent. 1.50 2.40 1.50 1.70 er cent. 1.40 2.40 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent. 1.70 er cent.

	Manus of Antiolo	Tourist Times	C Dudo.
	Name of Article	Tariff Unit	Hk. Tls .
	Bolts, Nuts, and Washers	Value 5	ner cent.
	Castings, Rough	Picul	0.26
	Chains, and Parts of	Picul	0.38
	Cobbles, Wire Shorts, Defective Wire, Bar Cropping.	, and Bar	
	Ends, Galvanized or Ungalvanized	Picul	0.13
	Crossings for Railways	Value 5	per cent.
	Fish-plates and Spikes	Value 5	per cent.
	Hoops	Picul	0.27
	Old (fit only for remanufacture)	Characte	0.10
	Angles, Joists, Girders, and other Structura	1 Sections	
	or Shapes		0.20
	Nails, Wire and Cut		0.30
	Pig and Kentledge	Picul	0.10
	Pipes, Tubes, and Pipe and Tube Fittings	Value 5	per cent.
	Pig and Kentledge Pipes, Tubes, and Pipe and Tube Fittings Plate Cuttings	Picul	0.12
	Rails	Picul	0.16
	Rivets		0.31
	Screws	Value 5	
	Sheets and Plates & of an inch thick or more	Picul	0.20
	Sheets and Plates under # of an inch thick	Picul	0.25 0.45
	Wire		0.45
	Wire Rope, Galvanized or Ungalvanized (with or	r without	0.20
	fibre core)	Picul	0.75
St	eel Tool and Spring -		
	Bamboo Steel	Picul	0.27
	Spring Steel	Picul	0.32
	Tool Steel (including High-speed Steel)	Value 5	per cent.
Ir	on and Steel Galvanized :-		
	Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers Pipes, Tubes, and Tube Fittings Screws Sheets, Corrugated and Plain	Value 5	per cent.
	Pipes, Tubes, and Tube Fittings	Value 5	per cent.
	Screws	Value 5	per cent.
	Wire	Picul	0.37
	Wire Wire Rope (with or without fibre core) (See also abov	Picul	0.30 0.75
	Wire Shorts (see also Cobbles, &c.)	Pioul	0.13
т,,	on and Tin Dross	Pionl	0.13
	ead :—	1 1601	0.00
	Old (fit only for remanufacture)	Value 5	per cent.
	Pigs or Bars		0.45
	Pipe		0.50
	Sheet	Picul	0.59
	Wire	Value 5	per cent.
M	anganese	Value 5	per cent.
	anganese Ferro		
	ickel		3.50
	uicksilver	Picul	6.30
1	in ;— Compound	Value 5	nor cont
	Dross and Refuse	Pionl	0.54
	Ingots and Slabs	Picul	
	Ingots and Slabs	Value 5	per cent.
	Sheet	Picul	2.10
T	inned Tacks	Picul	0.45
T	inned Plates, Decorated	Picul	0.51
T	inned Plates, Plain	Picul	0.39
T	inned Plates, Old	Value 5	per cent.
T	ype Metal	Value 5	per cent

Name of Article	Tariff Unit & Duty
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Per Hk. Tls.
White Metal or German Silver:— Bars, Ingots, and Sheets	Picul 2.70
Wire	
Zinc :	
Power and Spelter	Picul 0.65
Sheets (including Perforated), Plates, and Boiler F	Plates Picul 0.34
500D DDINK AND VEGETABLE AND	
FOOD, DRINK, AND VEGETABLE MEI	_
FISHERY AND SEA PRODUCTS	
Agar-agar	
Awabi, in bulk	Picul 2.70
., not Spiked	Picul 2.00
,, White	Picul 1.00
Cockles, Dried	Picul 0.69
,, Fresh Compoy	Picul 0.06
Crabs' Flesh, Dried	
Fish Bones	Value 5 per cent.
" Cod, Dried	
,, Cuttle	Picul 0.68
,. Dried and Smoked (not including Dried Codfish fish)	and Cuttle- Picul 0.49
,, Fresh	
,. Maws, 1st Quality (i.e., weighing 1 catty or piece)	over per
piece)	Catty 0.25
" Maws, 2nd Quality (i.e., weighing under 1 piece)	catty per
Salmon Delling	Picul 2.80
,, Salt	
, Skin	Picul 0.64
Mussels, Oysters, and Clams, Dried	Picul 0.80
Prawns and Shrimps, Dried, in bulk	
Seaweed, Cut, Long	Picul 0.17
,, Prepared	Picul 1.30
,, Red	Value 5 per cent.
Sharks' Fins, Dorsal and Tail	Picul 4.40
,, ,, Breast ,, ,, Prepared	Picul 1.90 Picul 6.40
,, Skins	Value 5 per cent.
ANIMAL PRODUCTS, CANNED GOODS, AN	D GROCERIES.
Bacon and Hams, in bulk	Picul 1.80
Baking Powder Beef, Corned or Pickled, in Barrels	Value 5 per cent,
Birds Nests, Black (including Clarified Refuse)	Catty 0.15
., ., White	Catty 0.90
Butter	Picul 2.70
Canned Goods:— AsparagusPicul (Incl. weight of immedia	A
AsparagusPicul (Incl. weight of immedia	te packing) 0.88
Cream and Milk Evaporated or Sterilised	Picul 0.65
Fruits, Table and Pie	Picul 0.73
Milk, Condensed	Picul 0.96
Canned Goods, Unenumerated	
Cocoa	
	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,

Coffee	Name of Article Tariff Unit	& Duty
Currants and Raisins, in bulk	Per	
Jams and Jellies Value , Jams and Jellies Value , Lard, in bulk Value , Macaroni and Vermicelli, in bulk Picul 0.46 Margarine Value 5 per cent. Meats. Dried and Salted Value , Pork Rind Value , Value , Pork Rind Value , Picul 0.25 Tea Value Star :— (a.) 1st Quality (value Hk. Tls. 15 and over per picul) . Picul 0.25 AND VEGETABLES. Aniseed, Star :— (a.) 1st Quality (value under Hk. Tls. 15 per picul) . Picul 0.25 Apples. Fresh Picul 0.25 Asafachida Value 5 per cent. Marley, Pearl Value , Value 5 per cent. Marley, Pearl Picul 0.24 Berlent Husk. Dried Picul 0.24 Betelnut Husk. Dried Picul 0.12 Betelnut Husk. Dried Picul 0.12 Betelnut Husk. Dried Picul 0.12 Bran And Flour (including Barley, Maize, Millet, Oats, Paddy, Rice, Wheat, and Flour and Yellow Corn Meal. Rye Flour. and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapica and Tapicas Flour, and Yam Flour). Free. Cambnor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul 1.00 Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardanoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Cardanoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Cardanoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Cardanoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Twigs Picul 0.35 Cardanoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Cardanoms, Inferior P	CoffeeValue	
Jams and Jellies Value , Jams and Jellies Value , Lard, in bulk Value , Macaroni and Vermicelli, in bulk Picul 0.46 Margarine Value 5 per cent. Meats. Dried and Salted Value , Pork Rind Value , Value , Pork Rind Value , Picul 0.25 Tea Value Star :— (a.) 1st Quality (value Hk. Tls. 15 and over per picul) . Picul 0.25 AND VEGETABLES. Aniseed, Star :— (a.) 1st Quality (value under Hk. Tls. 15 per picul) . Picul 0.25 Apples. Fresh Picul 0.25 Asafachida Value 5 per cent. Marley, Pearl Value , Value 5 per cent. Marley, Pearl Picul 0.24 Berlent Husk. Dried Picul 0.24 Betelnut Husk. Dried Picul 0.12 Betelnut Husk. Dried Picul 0.12 Betelnut Husk. Dried Picul 0.12 Bran And Flour (including Barley, Maize, Millet, Oats, Paddy, Rice, Wheat, and Flour and Yellow Corn Meal. Rye Flour. and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapica and Tapicas Flour, and Yam Flour). Free. Cambnor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul 1.00 Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardanoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Cardanoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Cardanoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Cardanoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Twigs Picul 0.35 Cardanoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Cardanoms, Inferior P	Currants and Raisins, in bulk Picul	0.63
Jame and Jellies	Honov Value 5	per cent.
Lard, in bulk		,,
Macaroni and Vermicelli, in bulk	Lard, in bulkValue	**
Meats, Dried and Salted Value Sausages, Dry Value Sausages, Dry </td <td>Macaroni and Vermicelli, in bulk</td> <td>0.46</td>	Macaroni and Vermicelli, in bulk	0.46
Pork Rind Value Sausages, Dry Value Scy Picul O.25 Tea Value 5 per cent. CEREALS, FRUITS, MEDICINAL SUBSTANCES, SEEDS, SPICES, AND VEGETABLES. AND Vegetable Veguta	Margarine Value 5	per cent.
Sausages		2.9
CEREALS, FRUITS, MEDICINAL SUBSTANCES, SEEDS, SPICES, AND VEGETABLES.		,,
CEREALS, FRUITS, MEDICINAL SUBSTANCES, SEEDS, SPICES, AND VEGETABLES. Aniseed, Star :— (a.) 1st Quality (value \(Hk. Tls. 15 \) and over per picul) \(\) Picul \(1.00 \) (b.) 2nd Quality (value under \(Hk. Tls. 15 \) per picul) \(\) Picul \(0.45 \) Asafætida \(Nate = 1 \) Value \(Nate = 1 \) Picul \(0.25 \) Asafætida \(Nate = 1 \) Value \(Nate = 1 \) Picul \(0.25 \) Asafætida \(Nate = 1 \) Value \(Nate = 1 \) Picul \(0.24 \) Beans and Peas \(Nate = 1 \) Value \(Nate = 1 \) Picul \(0.24 \) Betelnut Husk, Dried \(Nate = 1 \) Picul \(0.24 \) Betelnut Husk, Dried \(Nate = 1 \) Picul \(0.24 \) Betelnut Husk, Dried \(Nate = 1 \) Picul \(0.25 \) Cereals and Flour (including Barley, Maize, Millet, Oats, Paddy, Rice, Wheat, and Flour made therefrom; also Buckwheat and Buckwheat Flour; Cornflour and Yellow Corn Meal, Rye Flour, and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour).	Sey Picul	0.25
And Vegetables. Aniseed, Star:— (a.) 1st Quality (value \$Hk\$. \$Tls\$. 15 and over per picul) . Picul		
And Vegetables. Aniseed, Star:— (a.) 1st Quality (value \$Hk\$. \$Tls\$. 15 and over per picul) . Picul	CEREALS, FRUITS, MEDICINAL SUBSTANCES, SEEDS, SI	PICES.
Aniseed, Star:— (a.) 1st Quality (value Hk. Tls. 15 and over per picul)Picul		
(a.) 1st Quality (value \$Hk\$. \$Tls\$. 15 and over per picul) Picul 0.45 Apples. Fresh Picul 0.25 Asafætida Value 5 per cent. Barley, Pearl Value 5 per cent. Barley, Pearl Value 6 per cent. Barley, Pearl Value 7 per cent. Barley, Pearl Value 8 per cent. Barley, Pearl Value 9 per cent. 9 picul 0.24 Betelnut Husk, Dried Picul 0.12 Bran Picul 0.12 Bran Picul 0.12 Bran Picul 0.12 Bran Picul 0.08 Cereals and Flour (including Barley, Maize, Millet, Oats, Paddy, Rice, Wheat, and Flour made therefrom; also Buckwheat and Buckwheat Flour, Cornflour and Yellow Corn Meal. Rye Flour. and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour). Free ded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour). Free 3.30 g., Refuse Value 5 per cent. Capoor Cutchery Value 5 per cent. Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul 10.00 Cassia Lignea and Buds Picul 0.90 g., Twigs Picul 0.18 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 0.70 Ginnamon, in bulk Picul 0.70 Ginseng, Clarified or Cleaned:— 1st Quality (value over \$Hk\$. \$Tls\$. 11 and not over \$Hk\$. \$Tls\$. 11 per catty) Catty 2.80 and Quality (value over \$Hk\$. \$Tls\$. 3 and not over \$Hk\$. \$Tls\$. 11 per catty) Catty 44 Quality (value not over \$Hk\$. \$Tls\$. 3 per catty) Catty 0.36 and Cuttings:—		
(b.) 2nd Quality (value under Hk. Tls. 15 per picul) Picul 0.25 Apples. Fresh Picul 0.25 Asafetida Value 5 per cent. Barley, Pearl Value 5 Beans and Peas Value 5 Betelnuts, Dried Picul 0.24 Betelnut Husk, Dried Picul 0.12 Bran Picul 0.08 Cereals and Flour (including Barley, Maize, Millet, Oats, Paddy, Rice, Wheat, and Flour made therefrom; also Buckwheat and Buckwheat Flour, Cornflour and Yellow Corn Meal, Rye Flour. and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour). Camphor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul 3.30 """, Refuse Value 5 per cent. Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 """, Superior Picul 1.00 Cassia Lignea and Buds Picul 0.90 """, Twigs Picul 0.18 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 0.90 """, Mother Picul 0.90 """, Mother Picul 0.90 """, Mother Picul 0.90 """, Mother Picul 0.90 Gainseng, Clarified or Cleaned:— "" 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 2.80 Ginseng, Clarified or Cleaned:— "" 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls. "" 11 per catty) Catty 3rd Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 6th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 6th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 6th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 6th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 6th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 6th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 6th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 6th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 6th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 6th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 6th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 p		1.00
Apples Fresh	(b.) 2nd Quality (value under Hk. Tls. 15 per picul) Picul	
Barley, Pearl Value Beans and Peas Value Betelnuts, Dried Picul 0.24 Betelnut Husk, Dried Picul 0.12 Bran Picul 0.08 Cereals and Flour (including Barley, Maize, Millet, Oats, Paddy, Rice, Wheat, and Flour made therefrom; also Buckwheat and Buckwheat Flour, Cornflour and Yellow Corn Meal. Rye Flour. and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour). Camphor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul 3.30 "Refuse Value 5 per cent. Capoor Cutchery Value Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Cassia Lignea and Buds Picul 0.90 "Twigs Picul 0.90 "Twigs Picul 0.18 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul 5.00 Cloves, in bulk Picul 5.00 Cloves, in bulk Picul 5.00 Cloves, in bulk Picul 0.90 "Mother Picul 0.90 "Mother Picul 0.90 Cassia Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 2.80 Zand Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 11 and not over Hk. Tls. 11 per catty) Catty 3rd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls. 11 per catty) Catty 4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 0.09 Ginseng, Crude. Beard. Roots, and Cuttings:—	Apples. FreshPicul	
Beans and Peas	Asafœtida Value 5	
Betelnuts, Dried Betelnut Husk, Dried Betelnut Husk, Dried Bran Picul Dran Picul O.08 Cereals and Flour (including Barley, Maize, Millet, Oats, Paddy, Rice, Wheat, and Flour made therefrom; also Buckwheat and Buckwheat Flour, Cornflour and Yellow Corn Meal. Rye Flour, and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour). Camphor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul Refuse Value 5 per cent. Capoor Cutchery Cardamom Husk Picul Cardamoms, Inferior Refuse Picul D.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul D.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul D.36 Cassia Lignea and Buds Picul D.36 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul D.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul D.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul D.70 Cocaine Galangal Picul Cocaine Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul D.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul D.70 Cosaine Galangal Picul Cocaine Sago Flour, Shred- D.70 Catty D.70 Caty D	Barley, Pearl	"
Betelnut Husk, Dried Bran Picul Bran Picul O.08 Cereals and Flour (including Barley, Maize, Millet, Oats, Paddy, Rice, Wheat, and Flour made therefrom; also Buckwheat and Buckwheat Flour, Cornflour and Yellow Corn Meal. Rye Flour. and Hovis Flour; but not including Arnowroot and Arnowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour) Camphor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul Saroos, Clean Saroos, Clean Saroos, Clean Superior Cardamom Husk Picul Cardamom Husk Picul Cardamom, Inferior Superior Picul O.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul O.30 Cassia Lignea and Buds Picul O.90 Twigs Picul O.18 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul O.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul O.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul O.90 Mother Cocainc Value 5 per cent. Calangal Picul O.40 Cocainc	Reteleuts Dried Picul	0.24
Bran Picul Cereals and Flour (including Barley, Maize, Millet, Oats, Paddy, Rice, Wheat, and Flour made therefrom; also Buckwheat and Buckwheat Flour, Cornflour and Yellow Corn Meal. Rye Flour. and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour). Camphor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul 3.30, Refuse Value 5 per cent. Capoor Cutchery Value Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Cassia Lignea and Buds Picul 0.90, Twigs Picul 0.18 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 0.90 " Mother Picul 0.40 Cocaine Value 5 per cent. Galangal Picul 0.90 The control of Clarified or Cleaned:— 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 2.80 2nd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 11 and not over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 2.80 Author Cotaine Catty 1.10 Catty 2.80 Catty 2.80 Catty 3.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Catty 0.36 Auth Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 0.36 Auth Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 0.36 Auth Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 0.36 Catty 0.36 China-cot Catty 0.36 Catty 0.39	Betelnut Husk, Dried Picul	
Rice, Wheat, and Flour made therefrom; also Buckwheat and Buckwheat Flour, Cornflour and Yellow Corn Meal. Rye Flour. and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour). Camphor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul 3.30, Baroos, Clean Catty 3.10, Refuse Value 5 per cent. Capoor Cutchery Value Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 Cassia Lignea and Buds Picul 0.90, Twigs Picul 0.18 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 0.90 ,, Mother Picul 0.40 Cocaine Value 5 per cent. Galangal Picul 0.40 Cocaine Clarified or Cleaned:— 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 2.80 2nd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls. 11 per catty) Catty 0.36 4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 0.36 Ginseng, Crude, Beard, Roots, and Cuttings:—	Bran	0.08
Buckwheat Flour, Cornflour and Yellow Corn Meal. Rye Flour. and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour). Camphor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul 3.30 Baroos, Clean Catty 3.10 Refuse Value 5 per cent. Capoor Cutchery Value Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul 10.00 Cassia Lignea and Buds Picul 0.90 Twigs Picul 0.18 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 0.70 Cloves, in bulk Picul 0.90 Mother Picul 0.90 Mother Picul 0.90 Mother Picul 0.19 Ginseng, Clarified or Cleaned:— 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 2st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 11 and not over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty Ath Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty Ginseng, Crude. Beard, Roots, and Cuttings:—	Cereals and Flour (including Barley, Maize, Millet, Oats, Paddy,	
and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour). Camphor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul 3.30, Baroos, Clean Catty 3.10, Refuse Value 5 per cent. Capoor Cutchery Value Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul 10.00, Superior Picul 10.00 Cassia Lignea and Buds Picul 0.90, Twigs Picul 0.18 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 5.00 Cloves, in bulk Picul 5.00 Cloves, in bulk Picul 0.90 Mother Picul 0.40 Cocaine Value 5 per cent. Galangal Picul 0.19 Ginseng, Clarified or Cleaned:— 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 2.80 2nd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 11 and not over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 1.10 3rd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls. 11 per catty) Catty 0.36 4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 0.09 Ginseng, Crude, Beard, Roots, and Cuttings:—	Rice, Wheat, and Flour made therefrom; also Buckwheat and	
Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour). Camphor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul 3.30 , Baroos, Clean Catty 3.10 , Refuse Value 5 per cent. Capoor Cutchery Value Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul 10.00 Cassia Lignea and Buds Picul 0.90 , Twigs Picul 0.18 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 5.00 Cloves, in bulk Picul 5.00 Cloves, in bulk Picul 0.90 , Mother Picul 0.90 , Mother Picul 0.90 Galangal Picul 0.90 Galangal Picul 0.90 Galangal Picul 0.90 Galangal Clarified or Cleaned:— 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 2.80 2nd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 11 and not over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 1.10 3rd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls. 11 per catty) Catty 0.36 4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 0.09 Ginseng, Crude, Beard, Roots, and Cuttings:—	Buckwheat Flour, Cornflour and Yellow Corn Meal, Rye Flour,	
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ded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour). Free. Camphor, Crude or Refined (including Shaped) Picul 3.30 ., Baroos, Clean Catty 3.10 ., Refuse Value 5 per cent. Capoor Cutchery Value . Cardamom Husk Picul 0.25 Cardamoms, Inferior Picul 1.00 ., Superior Picul 1.00 Cassia Lignea and Buds Picul 0.90 ., Twigs Picul 0.90 ., Twigs Picul 0.70 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 0.70 Cloves, in bulk Picul 0.90 ., Mother Picul 0.40 Cocaine Value 5 per cent. Galangal Picul 0.40 Cocaine Value 5 per cent. Galangal Picul 0.19 Ginseng, Clarified or Cleaned:— 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 11 and not over Hk. Tls. <td< td=""><td>Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shred-</td><td></td></td<>	Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shred-	
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Superior	Cardamoms, Inferior	
Twigs Picul 0.18 Chestnuts Value 5 per cent. China-root Picul 0.70 Cinnamon, in bulk Picul 5.00 Cloves, in bulk Picul 0.90 , Mother Picul 0.40 Cocainc Value 5 per cent. Galangal Picul 0.40 Ginseng, Clarified or Cleaned:— 1st Quality (value over Hk . Tls . 25 per catty) Catty 2.80 2nd Quality (value over Hk . Tls . 11 and not over Hk . Tls . 25 per catty) Catty 1.10 3rd Quality (value over Hk . Tls . 3 and not over Hk . Tls . 11 per catty) Catty 0.36 4th Quality (value not over Hk . Tls . 3 per catty) Catty 0.09 Ginseng, Crude, Beard, Roots, and Cuttings:—	Superior Picul	
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Cloves, in bulk Picul 0.90 ,, Mother Picul 0.40 Cocaine Value 5 per cent. Galangal Picul 0.49 Ginseng, Clarified or Cleaned:— 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 2nd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 11 and not over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) Catty 3rd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls. 11 per catty) Catty 4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty Ginseng, Crude, Beard, Roots, and Cuttings:—	Cinnamon, in bulk	
Galangal Ginseng, Clarified or Cleaned: 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) 2d Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 11 and not over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) 3rd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls. 11 per catty) 4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Ginseng, Crude, Beard, Roots, and Cuttings: Code O.36 Catty Cat	Cloves, in bulk Picul	
Galangal Ginseng, Clarified or Cleaned:— 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) 2nd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 11 and not over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) 3rd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls. 11 per catty) 4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Ginseng, Crude, Beard, Roots, and Cuttings:—	,, MotherPicul	
Ginseng, Clarified or Cleaned:— 1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty)		
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3rd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls. 11 per catty)	1st Quality (value over Hk Tls 25 per catty) Catty	2.80
3rd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls. 11 per catty)	2nd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 11 and not over Hk. Tls.	
4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty)	25 per catty)Catty	1.10
4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty)Catty 0.09 Ginseng, Crude, Beard, Roots, and Cuttings:	3rd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls.	0.76
Ginseng, Crude, Beard, Roots, and Cuttings:	11 per catty)	
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2nd Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty 0.085	1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls 3 per catty) Catty	0.22
	2nd Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty) Catty	0.085

Name of Article Tariff Unit	t de Darta
Per	Hk. 778.
Ginseng, Wild	
Groundnuts, in Shell Picul Shelled Picul	$0.15 \\ 0.23$
Hops Value 5	
Isinglass, VegetablePicul	2.70
Lemons, Fresh	1.50
Lickees, Dried Picul Lily Flowers, Dried Picul	0.53 0.47
Lungngan Pulp Picul	0.65
Lungngans, DriedPicul	0.38
MaltPicul	0.41
Morphia in all forms Value 5 Mushrooms Picul	per cent. 2.40
Nutmegs Picul	1.50
Olives Value 5	per cent.
Opium, Tincture of Value Oranges, Fresh Picul	0.10
Peel, Orange, in bulk Picul	0.18 0.65
Pepper, Black Picul	0.03
., Wł.itePicul	1.60
Potatoes, Fresh	
Putchuck Picul Seed, Apricot Picul	1.90 1.30
Lily Flower (i.e., Lotus-nuts without Husks) Picul	1.00
" LucrabanPicul	0.35
,, MelonPicul	0.55
,, Pine (i.e., Fir-nuts) Picul Sesamum Picul	0.24 0.24
Sugar Cane. See Sugar.	
Vegetables, Dried, Prepared, and SaltedValue 5	per cent.
SUGAR.	
Sugar'' Picul	0.22
,, White, over No. 10 Dutch Standard (including Refined	
Sugar)Picul	0.31
,, White, Cube and Loaf	0.50 0.37
. Cane Picul	0.05
WINES, BEER, SPIRITS, TABLE WATERS, ETC.	
Champagne and any other Wine sold under the label "Champagne"	
Case of 12 botts. or 24 half-botts.	1.00
Sparkling Asti	0.50
Still Wines, Red or White, exclusively the produce of the natural	0.00
fermentation of grapes (not including Vins de Liqueur):—	
(1.) In Bottles Case of 12 botts or 24 half-botts.	0.30
(2.) In bulk	0.035 0.70
bulk Imp. gallon	0.18
Marsala, in Bottles	0.40
,, ,, bulk	0.10
Vins de Liqueur other than Port and Marsala (viz., Madeira, Malaga, Sherry, etc.):—	
(1.) In Bottles	0.50
(2.) In bulk	0.15
Vermouth, Byrrh, and QuinquinaCase of 12 litres	0.29

Name of Article Tariff Unit	d Duty
$\red{\it Per}$. $\it H$	lk. Tls.
Saké, in BarrelsPicul	0.41
,, ,, Bottles	0.10
Ale, Beer, Cider, Perry, and similar Liquors made of Fruits and Berr	
(1.) In Bottles	0.079 0.027
(2.) In Casks	0.027
,, ,, CasksImp. gallon	0.028
Brandy, Cognac, and Whisky, in bulk	0.13
,, and Cognac, in Bottles Case of 12 reputed quarts	0.67
Whisky, in Bottles	0.35
Gin, in Bottles	0.23
,, ,, bulk	0.09
Other Spirits (i.e., Rum, Aquavit, Vodka, Punch, etc.):—	0.00
(1.) In Bottles	0.20
Liqueurs	0.09
Waters, Table, Aerated and Mineral12 bottles or 24 half-bottles	0.07
Spirits of Wine and Rectified Spirits or AlcoholImp. gallon	0.028
1	
TOBACCO.	
Cigarettes, value over Hk. Tls. 4.50 per 1,000 and all Cigarettes	
not bearing a distinctive brand or name on each	0.77
Cigarette	0.33
per 1,000Thousand	0.19
value over Hk. Tls. 1.50 but not over Hk. Tls. 3.00	0.10
per 1,000	0.11
,, value Hk. Tls. 1.50 or less per 1,000Thousand	0.06
Cigars Thousand	0.80
Snuff	er cent.
,, Prepared, in tins or packages under 5 th. each Value 5 p	
,, Prepared, in bulk (not packed in tins or tin-lined	oct court
cases Picul	1.10
,, Stalk Picul	0.28
CHEMICALS AND DYES.	
CHEMICALS.	
	1 50
Acid, Acetic Picul Boracic Picul	1.50
Clarkelia Value 5	
Hydrochloria (i.e. Muristia) Value	
Nitrie Picul	0.71
Sulphuric	0.17
Ammonia, in bulk	1.30
,, Chloride of (i.e. Sal Ammoniac) Picul ,, Sulphate of Picul	0.89
Bleaching Powder (i.e., Chloride of Lime)	0.37
Borax, Crude or Refined	0.58
Calcium, Carbide of	0.37
Copper, Sulphate of Picul	0.60
Glycerine Picul	2.20
Hide Specific	ber cent.
Manure, Animal, Chemical, or Artificial, not otherwise en- umerated	0.15
Naphthalene Picul	0.63
Ziapinia.	

Name of Article	Tariff Uni	t A. Dutu
	Por	Hk. Tls.
Saltpetre	Picul	0.47
Soda Ash	Picul	0.12
"Bicarbonate of, in bulk		0.14
,, Caustic		0.31
,, Crystal		0.13
,, Concentrated	Picul	0.16
,, Nitrate of (Chile Saltpetre)	Picul	0.27
,, Silicate of	Picul	0.18
DYES AND PIGMENTS.		
Aniline Dyes not otherwise enumerated Bark, Mangrove	Value 5	per cent.
Bark, Mangrove	Picul	0.084
,, Plum-tree	Picul	0.16
,, Yellow (for Dyeing) Blue, Paris or Prussian	Picul	0.25
Blue, Paris or Prussian	Picul	1.70
Bronze Powder	Picul	2.60 1.00
Carbon Black (i.e., Lampblack) Carthamin	Walna 5	non cont
Chrome Yellow	Walue 3	per cent.
Cinnabar		4.10
Cobalt, Oxide of		
Cochineal	Value	per com.
Cunao or False Gambier	Picul	0.17
Cutch or Gambier	Picul	0.50
Dyes and Colours, Unclassed	Value 5	per cent.
Gamboge	Picul	2.80
Green, Emerald, Schweinfurt, or Imitation	Picul	1.10
Hartall (Orpiment)	Picul	0.48
Indigo, Dried, Artificial	Picul	6.30
,, ,, Natural	Picul	3.00
,, Liquid or Paste, Artificial	Picul	2.00
,, ,, Natural Indoin	Picul	0.30
	Value 5	
Laka-wood Lead, Red, White, and Yellow	Dioni	0.16 0.51
Logwood Extract	Pioul	0.31
Nutgalls	Picul	1.00
Ochre		0.33
Safflower		0.65
Sapanwood		0.14
Smalt		2.00
Turmeric		0.20
Ultramarine	Picul	0.69
Vermilion	Picul	4.10
,, Artificial	Value 5	
White Zinc	Value	31
Application with the same of t		
CANDLES, GUMS, OILS, SOAP, VARNISHES,	WAX, ET	rc.
Beeswax, Yellow. See Wax.		
Candles		0.63
Candlewick	Picul	3.80
Gasolene, Naphtha, and Benzine, Mineral: (a.) In Case	17	0.10
(a.) In Case	m. gallons	0.18
(b.) In bulk	m. gallons	0.15
Grease, Lubricating, wholly or partly mineral	Picul	0.35
		1.20 0.60
,, Benjamin ,, Copal	Pigul	1.20
,, Copal	Ficul	1.20

	it & Duty
Per	Hk. Tls.
Dragon's-blood	3.00
., Myrrh Picul ,, Olibanum Picul	0.48 0.48
Design	0.46
,, Kesh Picul ,, Shellac Picul	2.00
, Sticklac Picul	0.75
,, TragacanthPicul	0.90
Oil, Castor, Lubricating Picul	0.60
,, Medicinal Value	per cent.
,, CocenutPicul	0.80
,, Kerosene:—	0.44
(a.) In Case	0.11
(b.) In bulk	0.08
	0.01
The second secon	0.06
Lubricating:—	0.00
(a.) Wholly or partly of mineral origin	0.015
(b.) Other kinds, not otherwise enumerated Am. gallon	0.025
(b.) Other kinds, not otherwise enumerated	0.10
Soap, Household and Laundry (including Blue Mottled), in bulk,	
Soap, Household and Laundry (including Blue Mottled), in bulk, Bars, and Doublets: duty to be charged on nominal	
weights, provided that such weights be not less than true	
weights and that a Bar does not weigh less than 7 oz. Picul	0.44
,, Toilet and Fancy	per cent.
Stearine Picul	0.98
Turpentine:— (a.) Mineral	0.03
(b) Vegetable Imp. gallon	0.03
Wax, Bees, Yellow Picul	1.60
,, Paraffin Picul	0.50
,, Vegetable Picul	0.76
,, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
BOOKS, MAPS, PAPER, AND WOOD PULP.	
Paper, Cigarette, on bobbinsPicul (Incl. weight of bobbin.)	2.00
,, Common Printing, Calendered or Uncalendered, Sized or	
,, Common Printing, Calendered or Uncalendered, Sized or Unsized, White or Coloured	0.32
,, Marbled, Enamelled, or Glazed Flint Picul , M.G. Cap, White or Coloured Picul	0.61
M.G. Cap, White or ColouredPicul	0.32
Packing and Wrapping, Brown or ColouredPicul	0.32
Printing Calendered or Uncalendered Sized or Unsized	
White or Coloured (including Simile and M.G. Poster,	
but not including Printing Paper otherwise enumerated). free of Mechanical Wood PulpPicul	0.46
ree of Mechanical Wood Pulp Pleul Strawboard Value 9	0.46
Volum Volum	
Unglazed Tissue and M.G. Bleached Sulphite, free of Me-	**
chanical Wood Puln	0.50
chanical Wood Pulp	
gamvn, and Grease-proof Value	per cent.
Wood Pulp, Chemical Picul	0.30
Wood Pulp, Mechanical:—	
(a.) Dry Picul	0.17
(b.) Wet (not containing less than 40 per cent. moisture) Picul	0.083
Books	Free
Charts and Maps	• •
Newspapers and Periodicals	2.3

ANIMAL SUBSTANCES, RAW AND PREPARED.

HIDES, LEATHER, AND SKINS (FURS).

	HIDES, LEAT	I : Lake,	TICLE GILL.	112 /2 626	:O).	
	Name of A	rticle			Tari# Uni	t & Duty
					\H{Per}	Hk. Tls.
Hides, Buffa	o and Cow				Picul	1.10
Leather Belti	nσ				Value 5	per cent.
., Calf	or Kid, Enam	ielled,	Japanned,	Patent,	and/or	
C	oloured				Picul	15.00
,, Cow	(including that for	or Soles	and Harne	ess)	Picul	2.90
,, ,,	Ènamelled, Japan	ned, an	id Patent .		Picul	9.00
Skins (Furs),	Beaver				Value 5	per cent.
2.7						,,
٠,			• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •			2.1
2.5	,, Arctic, Whit	te			Value	* *
+ 7.9	Legs					, ,
19	., Red					2.2
,,	Goat, Tanned					,,
; ,						* *
2.2	Hare and Rabb					2.1
22 .	Lamb					,,
29						* *
6 22	Land-otter					2.9
: ,	Lynx					2.2
,,	Musquash					27
**	Racceon					J.
27	Sable					"
/2	Sheep, Untanned					,,
"	Sauirrel					2.7
* *						1.7
,,	VV 011				v arue	* *
EONFS, FEA	THERS, HAIR,	HORN	S, SHELL	S, SINE	ws, Tus	SKS, ETC.
D m:						
Bones Tiger					Picul	2.80
Cow Bezoar	Indian				Picul	2.80
Cow Bezoar,	Indian	2			Value 5	per cent.
Cow Bezoar,	Indian	2			Value 5	per cent.
Cow Bezoar,	Indian	2			Value 5	per cent. 3.00 0.18
Cow Bezoar,	Indian	2			Value 5	per cent.
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Ki Feathers, K Backs	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or l agfisher, Whole S ungfisher, Part	s Parts o Skins Skins	f	ngs, T	Value 5 Picul Catty Hundred ails, or Hundred	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Ki Feathers, K Backs	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or l agfisher, Whole S ungfisher, Part	s Parts o Skins Skins	f	ngs, T	Value 5 Picul Catty Hundred ails, or Hundred	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Kin Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe	Indian	s Parts o Skins Skins	f	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Ki Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe Hair, Horse	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or l gfisher, Whole s tngfisher, Part) acock Tails	s Parts o Skins . Skins	f	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPicul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Ki Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe Hair, Horse Horns, Buffa	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or la usks,	s Parts o Skins Skins	f(i.e., Wi	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPicul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Ki Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe Hair, Horse	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or la gfisher, Whole S ingfisher, Part)	s Parts o Skins . Skins	f	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPicul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Kin Feathers, Kin Feathers, Peathers, Peathers, Peathers, Horse Horrs, Buffa , Deer , """	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or l gfisher, Whole s ingfisher, Part) acock Tails lo and Cow	s Parts o Skins Skins	f	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPicul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Ki Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe Hair, Horse Horns, Buffa , Deer	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or l gfisher, Whole s ingfisher, Part) acock Tails lo and Cow	s Parts o Skins Skins	f	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPicul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Ki Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe Hair, Horse ''' ''' ''' ''' ''' ''' ''' ''' ''' '	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or l gfisher, Whole s ingfisher, Part) acock Tails lo and Cow	s Parts o Skins Skins	f	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPicul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe Hair, Horse """ """ "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" ""	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or la usks,	s Parts o Skins Skins	f	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculPiculPiculPairValue 5	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 per cent. 4.00
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Kin Feathers, Kin Feathers, Per Hair, Horse Horns, Buffa Deer """ "" "" Rhine Musk	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or la gfisher, Whole S ingfisher, Part)	s	f	ngs, Te	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculPairValue 5CattyCatty	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe. Hair, Horse ''' Horns, Buffa Deer ''' ''' Rhind Musk Sea-horse Tee	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or l ugfisher, Whole of ugfisher, Part) acock Tails lo and Cow Old Young (Northern Ceros	s Parts o Skins . Skins .	f	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculPiculPiculCattyCattyValue 5	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00 per cent.
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe. Hair, Horse ''' Horns, Buffa Deer ''' ''' Rhind Musk Sea-horse Tee	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or la gfisher, Whole S ingfisher, Part)	s Parts o Skins . Skins .	f	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculPiculPiculCattyCattyValue 5	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe. Hair, Horse ''' Horns, Buffa Deer ''' ''' Rhind Musk Sea-horse Tee	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or l ugfisher, Whole of ugfisher, Part) acock Tails lo and Cow Old Young (Northern Ceros	s Parts o Skins . Skins .	f	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculPiculPiculCattyCattyValue 5	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00 per cent.
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe. Hair, Horse ''' Horns, Buffa Deer ''' ''' Rhind Musk Sea-horse Tee	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or l ugfisher, Whole of ugfisher, Part) acock Tails lo and Cow Old Young (Northern Ceros	s Parts o Skins . Skins .	f (i.e., Wi	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculPiculPiculCattyCattyValue 5	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00 per cent.
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe. Hair, Horse ''' Horns, Buffa Deer ''' ''' Rhind Musk Sea-horse Tee Sinews, Cow	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or l ugfisher, Whole of ugfisher, Part) acock Tails lo and Cow Old Young (Northern Ceros	s Parts o Skins Skins	f (i.e., Wi	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculPiculPiculValue 5CattyCattyValue 5Picul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00 per cent.
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe. Hair, Horse ''' Horns, Buffa Deer ''' ''' Rhind Musk Sea-horse Tee Sinews, Cow	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or lagfisher, Whole of ingfisher, Part) acock Tails lo and Cow Old Young (Northern ,, (Southern ceros th and Deer	s Parts o Skins Skins Skins	f Wi	ngs, T	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculPiculPiculValue 5CattyCattyValue 5Picul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00 per cent.
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe Hair, Horse """ """ """ """ """ """ """ """ "" ""	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or lagfisher, Whole of ingfisher, Part) acock Tails lo and Cow Old Young (Northern ,, (Southern ceros th and Deer	s Parts o Skins Skins Skins Timi	f (i.e., Wi	ngs, Ta	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculPiculValue 5CattyCattyValue 5Picul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00 per cent. 1.00
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe Hair, Horse Horns, Buffa Deer """ "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or lagisher, Whole of ugfisher, Whole of lagisher, Part lacock Tails lo and Cow Old Young (Northern oceros th and Deer IMBER, WCOD	s	f	D RATT	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculPairValue 5CattyCattyValue 5Picul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00 per cent.
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe Hair, Horse Horns, Buffa Deer """ "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" ""	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or ngfisher, Whole of ingfisher, Part) acock Tails lo and Cow Old Young (Northern) occros th and Deer IMBER, WCOD including Teak an	s	f	D RATT	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculPairValue 5CattyCattyValue 5Picul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00 per cent. 1.00
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Ki Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe Hair, Horse """" """" """" """" """ """ """ """ "	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or la gisher, Whole of la gisher, Whole is la l	s Parts o Parts o Skins Skins TIM	f (i.e., Wi	D RATT	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPiculCattyCattyCattyCattyValue 5Picul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00 per cent. 1.00
Cow Bezoar, Crocodile and Elephants' T Feathers, Ki Feathers, K Backs Feathers, Pe Hair, Horse """" """" """" """" """ """ """ """ "	Indian Armadillo Scales usks, Whole or ngfisher, Whole of ingfisher, Part) acock Tails lo and Cow Old Young (Northern) occros th and Deer IMBER, WCOD including Teak an	s	BOOS, AN BER r enumerate	D RATT1,00 d Woods	Value 5PiculCatty Hundred ails, or HundredValue 5PiculPiculPiculPairValue 5CattyCattyCattyValue 5Picul	per cent. 3.00 0.18 0.60 0.40 per cent. 2.10 2.50 0.65 1.70 7.00 2.50 per cent. 4.00 9.00 per cent. 1.00

Name of Article	Tariff Unit	& Duty Hk, Tls.
Ordinary, Sawn :-		
Hardwood 1,000 sup. Softwood 1,000 sup.	ft., B.M.	1.80 1.50
Ordinary, Manufactured (including any process further th	an simple	1.00
sawing), exclusive of Masts and Spars:— Hardwood:		
(a.) Clear, on net measure 1,000 sup. (b.) Merchantable, on net measure 1,000 sup.	ft., B.M.	3.00
(b.) Merchantable, on net measure 1,000 sup. Softwood:	ft., B.M.	2.10
(a.) Clear, on net measure	ft., B.M.	2.50
(b.) Merchantable, on net measure1,000 sup. Ordinary, Masts and Spars	ft., B.M.	1.80
Railway Sleeners	Value 5	per cent.
Teak-wood, Beams and Planks	ft., B.M.	5.7 5
WOOD, BAMBOOS, AND RATTAN	R	
Canes, Bamboo		0.42
Rattan Skin Rattans, Core or Whole		0.75 0.32
,, Split	Picul	0.34
Wood, Camagon ,, Camphor	Picul Value 5 i	0.16 per cent
,, Ebony ,, Fragrant	Value 5	per cent.
,, Fragrant ,, Garoo	Value 5	per cent. 0.12
V	Value 5	per cent.
Wood, Laka. See Dyes. Wood Limmy-vite	Value 5	per cent.
Wood, Lignum-vitee ,. Oil	Value 5	per cent.
,, Puru Red and Rose	*Picul	0.09
,, Puru ,, Red ard Rose ,, Sandal ,, Dust Wood, Sapan. See Dyes.	Picul	0.43
Wood, Savan, See Dyes.	Value 5	per cent.
WOOD, Scale Sticks	1000	0.003
,, Scented Shavings Hinoki	Value 5	per cent.
,, Veneer	Value 5	per cent.
", Shavings, Hinoki ", Veneer In this Tariff, by Softwood is meant the wood of any tree and of all trees with "needle" or spinous le	aves, e.g.,	
Pines, Firs, Spruces, Larches, Cedars, Yews, and Cypresses. The wood of all trees with broad of the control of	Junipers,	
*The unit, given by a clerical error as "Catty" in approved by the Tariff Revision Commission, corrected under authority of the Chinese Govern	the Draft	
corrected under authority of the Chinese Govern	nment.	
COAL, FUEL, PITCH, AND TAR		
Coal	Ton	0.27
,, Briquettes	Ton	0.50 0.05
Charcoal Coke	Ton	0.55 0.73
Liquid Fuel Pitch	Picul	0.24
Tar, Coal	Picul	0.08
CHINAWARE, ENAMELLEDWARE, GLAS		
Basins, Tin China ware	Value 5	0.30 per cent.
Cilinavidio	v teruo o	

	m ' (T7 '	0.70
Name of Article	Tariff Unit	A Duty Hk Tls.
Enamelled Ironware:-	1 4 7	// / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / /
Muos. Cups. Basins, and Bowls, not over 11 centi-	imetres in	
diameter	Dozen	0.05
Basins and Bowls, over 22 centimetres but not over timetres in diameter	er 35 cen-	0.10
Enamelled Ironware, Unenumerated		
Glass and Crystal Ware	Value	**
,, Plate, Silvered, Bevelled or Unbevelled, not over feet, each	5 square	
feet, each	Sq ft.	0.028
,, ,, Silvered, Bevelled or Unbevelled, over 5 seach	quare reet	0.042
,, ,, Unsilvered	Value 5	per cent.
", Unsilvered", Window, Common, not over 32 oz. in weight p	er square	
foot	100 sq.ft.	0.25
,, ,, Coloured Mirrors (see also under Sundry)	Value 5	0.60
anifold (see also anaer (senary)	v arue o	per cent.
#Milling plays accounted const		
PRECIOUS STONES, STONE, AND MANUFACTUR	RES DE EA	RTH
Amber		
Cement		0.045
Corai Beads	Catty	0.80
Cornelian Beads	Value 5	
,, Stones, Rough	Hundred	0.30 0.19
Corundum Sand	Picul	0.13
Emery-cloth and Sand-paper (sheet not over 144 squa	re inches)	3120
(see also under Sundry)	Ream	0.25
Fire bricks		
Fireclay Flints (including Flint Pehbles)	Picul	0.001
Flints (including Flint Pebbles) Tiles	Value 5	per cent.
	2117	
	0.000	77 12
##100 mil 1 a 1 m a 110	- A	10 C
MISCELLANEOUS.	0 20	
MISCELLANEOUS. ASBESTOS.	112 121	IA S
ASBESTOS.	a similar	. □ 0.18
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition	Picut	AR 0.1 8 3.20
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition ,, Fibre and Metallic Packing ,, Millboard	Picut Picul Picul	3.20 0.40
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition Fibre and Metallic Packing Millboard Sheets and Packing	Picul Picul Picul Picul	3.20 0.40 2.20
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition	Picul Picul Picul Picul	3.20 0.40
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition Fibre and Metallic Packing Millboard Sheets and Packing	Picul Picul Picul Picul	3.20 0.40 2.20
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition ,, Fibre and Metallic Packing ,, Millboard ,, Sheets and Packing ,, Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING.	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition ,, Fibre and Metallic Packing ,, Millboard ,, Sheets and Packing ,, Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING.	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition ,, Fibre and Metallic Packing ,, Millboard ,, Sheets and Packing ,, Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING.	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition ,, Fibre and Metallic Packing ,, Millboard ,, Sheets and Packing ,, Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING.	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition , Fibre and Metallic Packing , Millboard , Sheets and Packing , Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING. Bags, Cotton, New , Gunny, New (see also under Flax, &c.) , Old (see also under Flax, &c.) , Hemp or Hessian, New (see also under Flax, &c.) , Old (see also under Flax, &c.)	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Value 5	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00 2.00 0.42 per cent. 0.95 per cent.
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition , Fibre and Metallic Packing , Millboard , Sheets and Packing , Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING. Bags, Cotton, New , Gunny, New (see also under Flax, &c.) , Old (see also under Flax, &c.) , Hemp or Hessian, New (see also under Flax, &c.) , Straw and Grass Mats. Coir (Door)	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Value 5 Thousand Dozen	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00 2.00 0.42 per cent. 0.95 per cent. 1.50 0.40
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition ,, Fibre and Metallic Packing ,, Millboard ,, Sheets and Packing ,, Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING. Bags, Cotton, New , Gunny, New (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Old (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Hemp or Hessian, New (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Straw and Grass Mats, Coir (Door) , Fancy	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Value 5 Picul Value 5 Picul Value 5	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00 2.00 0.42 per cent. 1.50 0.40 per cent.
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition ,, Fibre and Metallic Packing ,, Millboard ,, Sheets and Packing ,, Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING. Bags, Cotton, New , Gunny, New (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Old (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Hemp or Hessian, New (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Straw and Grass Mats, Coir (Door) , Fancy	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Value 5 Picul Value 5 Picul Value 5	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00 2.00 0.42 per cent. 1.50 0.40 per cent.
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition ,, Fibre and Metallic Packing ,, Millboard ,, Sheets and Packing ,, Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING. Bags, Cotton, New , Gunny, New (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Old (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Hemp or Hessian, New (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Old (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Faray ,, Formosa Grass (Bed) ,, Rattan	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Value 5 Picul Value 5 Thousand Dozen Vatue 5 Each	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00 2.00 0.42 per cent. 1.50 0.40 per cent. 0.24 per cent.
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition ,, Fibre and Metallic Packing ,, Millboard ,, Sheets and Packing ,, Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING. Bags, Cotton, New , Gunny, New (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Old (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Hemp or Hessian, New (see also under Flax, &c.) ,, Straw and Grass Mats, Coir (Door) , Fancy	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Value 5 Picul Value 5 Thousand Dozen Vatue 5 Leach Value 5	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00 2.00 0.42 per cent. 1.50 0.40 per cent.
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition , Fibre and Metallic Packing , Millboard , Sheets and Packing , Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING. Bags, Cotton, New , Gunny, New (see also under Flax, &c.) , Old (see also under Flax, &c.) , Hemp or Hessian, New (see also under Flax, &c.) , Old (see also under Flax, &c.) , Thempore Hessian, New (see also under Flax, &c.) , Faray , Straw and Grass Mats, Coir (Door) , Fancy , Formosa Grass (Bed) , Rattan , Rush , Straw , Tatami	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Value 5 Picul Value 5 Thousand Dozen Value 5 Hundred Hundred Lach	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00 2.00 2.00 2.00 2.00 0.42 per cent. 1.50 0.40 per cent. 0.24 per cent. 3.60 0.26 0.016
ASBESTOS. Asbestos Boiler Composition , Fibre and Metallic Packing , Millboard , Sheets and Packing , Yarn BAGS, AND MATTING. Bags, Cotton, New , Gunny, New (see also under Flax, &c.) , Old (see also under Flax, &c.) , Hemp or Hessian, New (see also under Flax, &c.) , Straw and Grass Mats, Coir (Door) , Fancy , Formosa Grass (Bed) , Rattan , Rush , Straw	Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Picul Value 5 Picul Value 5 Picul Value 5 Hundred Hundred Each	3.20 0.40 2.20 2.00 2.00 2.00 2.00 0.42 per cent. 1.50 0.40 per cent. 0.24 per cent. 3.60 0.26

BUTTONS.

Name of Article Tariff Uni	t & Duty
	T X 7
Metal (not including those made of Precious Metals or	_
plated with Precious Metals) Gross ,, Porcelain 12 gross	0.017
,, ShellGross	0.021
FANS, UMBRELLAS, AND SUNSHADES.	0.75
Fans, Palm-leaf, Coarse Thousand	0.35 1.00
,, ,, Fine, ,,	0.60 2.40
,, Silk	
Umbrellas and Sunshades:— With Handles wholly or partly of Precious Metals, Ivory, Mother-of-Pearl, Tortoiseshell, Agate, etc., or Jewel-	
led Value h	per cent.
With all other Handles, all Cotton: (a.) Length of rib not over 17	per cent.
(b.) ,, ,, over 17 ins. Each With all other Handles, Mixtures, not Silk Each ,, ,, Silk and Silk Mixtures Each	0.022
,, ,, Silk and Silk MixturesEach	0.065
FILES AND NEEDLES.	
Files of all kinds:	0.065
Filing surface only, not over 4 ins. long	0.065 0.14
,, over 9 ins. but not over 14 ins. long Dozen	0.25 0.60
Needles, Nos. 7/0 and 6/0	2.70
,, Nos. 3/0 and 2/0, Assorted (not including 7/0),	2.50
MATCHES AND MATCH-MAKING MATERIALS.	
Matches, Wood, Safety or other:—	0.00
Small, in boxes not over 2 ins. by $1\frac{3}{3}$ in. by $\frac{5}{3}$ in200 gross box Large, in boxes not over $2\frac{1}{2}$ ins. by $1\frac{1}{2}$ ins. by $\frac{3}{4}$ in 50 gross box	0.92 0.80
In boxes over above sizes	per cent.
Match-making Materials:— Chlorate of Potash	1.80
Chlorate of Potash Picul Emery and Glass Powder Picul "Labels Value 5	0.12 per cent.
Phogphomia	3.30
Wax, Paraffin (see also Candles, &c.)	0.50 0.11
Wax, Paraffin (see also Candles, &c.) Picul Wood Shavings Picul Splints Picul	0.10
METAL THREADS AND FOIL.	
Thread, Gold, Imitation, on Cotton	0.15
,, Silver ,,	per cent.
Tinfoil Picul	3.20
SUNDRY.	
Bamboo Baskets, Bamboo Blinds, and other Bamboo Ware Value 5	per cent.
Bent-wood Chairs ,, Coir Yarn ,,	••
Cordage and Twine	**

Name of Article	Tariff Unit & Duty
	Per Hk. Tls.
Emery-cloth and Sand-paper (sheet not over 144	square in-
ches)	Ream 0.25
Furniture and other Woodware	Value 5 per cent.
Glue (not including Fish Glue)	Picul 1.00
,, Cow, Refuse	Picul 1.00
,, Fish	Picul 3.80
,, Fish India-rubber and Gutta-percha, Crude	Value 5 per cent.
,, Old or Waste	,,
Inks of all kinds	,, ,,
Insect Powder	,, ,,
Insect Powder Lampwick	Picul 2.70
Leather Purses	Gross 0.56
Machines, Sewing and Knitting	Value 5 per cent.
Mirrors	Value ,,
Moulding, Picture	
Oakum	Picul 0.63
Rope	Value 5 per cent.
Shoes and Boots	Value ,,
Starch	Value
Sulphur	
Tinder	
Worm Tablets, in Bottles, not over 60 pieces	Dozen 0.037

UNENUMERATED GOODS.

RULES.

RULE I.

Imports unenumerated in this Tariff will pay Duty at the rate of 5 per cent. ad valorem; and the value upon which Duty is to be calculated shall be the wholesale market value of the goods in local currency. This market value when converted into Haikwan Taels shall be considered to be 12 per cent, higher than the amount upon which Duty is to be calculated.

If the goods have been sold before presentation to the Customs of the Application to pay Duty, the gross amount of the bona fide contract will be accepted as evidence of the market value. Should the goods have been sold on c. f. and i. terms, that is to say, without inclusion in the price of Duty and other charges, such c. f. and i. price shall be taken as the value for Duty-paying purposes without the deduction mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

If the goods have not been sold before presentation to the Customs of the Application to pay Duty, and should a dispute arise between Customs and importer regarding the value or classification of goods, the case will be referred

to a Board of Arbitration composed as follows :-

An official of the Customs;

A merchant selected by the Consul of the importer; and

A merchant, differing in nationality from the importer, selected by the Senior Consul.

Questions regarding procedure, etc., which may arise during the sittings of the Board shall be decided by the majority. The final finding of the majority of the Board, which must be announced within fifteen days of the reference (not including holidays), will be binding upon both parties. Each of the two merchants on the Board will be entitled to a fee of Ten Haikwan Taels. Should the Board sustain the Customs valuation, or, in the event of not sustaining that valuation, should it decide that the goods have been undervalued by the importer to the extent of not less than $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, the importer will pay the fees; if otherwise, the fees will be paid by the Customs. Should the Board decide that the correct value of the goods is

20 per cent. (or more) higher than that upon which the importer originally claimed to pay Duty, the Customs authorities may retain possession of the goods until full Duty has been paid and may levy an additional Duty equal to four times the Duty sought to be evaded.

In all cases invoices, when available, must be produced if required by the

Customs.

RULE II

The following will not be liable to Import Duty: Foreign Rice, Cereals, and Flour; Gold and Silver, both Bullion and Coin; Printed Books, Charts, Maps, Periodicals, and Newspapers.

A freight or part freight of Duty-free commodities (Gold and Silver Bullion and Foreign Coins excepted) will render the vessel carrying them,

though no other cargo be on board, liable to Tonnage Dues.

Drawbacks will be issued for Ships' Stores and Bunker Coal when taken on board.

RULE III.

Except at the requisition of the Chinese Government, or for sale to Chinese duly authorised to purchase them, Import trade is prohibited in all Arms, Ammunition, and Munitions of War of every description. No Permit to land them will be issued until the Customs have proof that the necessary authority has been given to the importer. Infraction of this rule will be punishable by confiscation of all the goods concerned. The import of Salt is absolutely prohibited.

RULE IV.

The importation of Opium and Poppy Seeds is absolutely prohibited. The importation of the following articles is prohibited except under bond by qualified medical practitioners, druggists, and chemists: Morphia and Cocaine and Hypodermic Syringes; Anti-Opium Pills containing Morphia, Opium, or Cocaine; Novocaine, Stovaine, Heroin, Thebaine, Ghanja, Hashish, Bhang, Cannabis Indica, Tincture of Opium, Laudanum, Codeine, Dionin, and all other derivatives of Opium and Cocaine

N.B.—Article IV of the Rules appended to this Tariff will not become effective until it is accepted by all the Treaty Powers, the majority

of which have already signified their acceptance.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE CHINESE GOVERNMENT.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The following brief historical sketch of the Chinese Republic may assist

the reader to understand political conditions in China to-day.

The Manchu Dynasty was overthrown as the result of a Revolution which broke out in Wuchang in October 1911, following a revolt in Western China against the railway nationalization project sanctioned in the Hukuang Railway Loan contract. The Manchu Emperor abdicated on February 12, 1912, being guaranteed favourable treatment and a pension of four million dollars per annum, by the Republic. At that time a Provisional Republican Government, of which Dr. Sun Yat-sen was President, was functioning in Nanking. On the Manchu abdication Sun Yat-sen resigned in favour of Yuan Shih-kai, who accepted the Provisional Constitution drawn up by the National Council at Nanking. This body was then transferred to Peking to act as the Legislature until the inauguration of the new, two-Chamber National Assembly. There was considerable friction between the Provisional President (Yuan Shih-kai) and the National Council, and the National Assembly was formally inaugurated in Peking, in April 1913, in an electrical atmosphere. It declined even to permit the reading of the President's inaugural message. Hostility towards Yuan Shih-kai was aggravated by the conclusion, in face of Parliamentary opposition, of the Reorganization Loan. Yuan Shih kai had no sympathy or patience with the "puerile chattering" of the Legislators, and the latter went far towards alienating public support by their profligate lives, notorious corruption, and keenness for excessive salaries. The so-called "Second Revolution," instigated by the Kuomintang Leaders, broke out in July 1913. It was suppressed, without difficulty by the Northern Armies, and the President's political opponents were so overawed by its failure that he was elected formal President of the Republic by the requisite majority, on October 6, 1913. General Li Yuan-hung was elected Vice-President at the first ballot. Foreign recognition of the Republic by the Treaty Powers followed, and the Diplomatic Corps attended President Yuan's formal inauguration.

He was no sooner formally installed as President than he proscribed the Kuomintang as a seditious organization, and unseated all members of the two Houses belonging to that Party, thereby depriving the Legislature of a legal quorum. In January, 1914, the National Assembly was dissolved by Presidential Mandate, and a new Advisory body was created to act in its stead, filled with the President's nominees. Two years of absolute rule by Yuan Shih-kai followed, and then his monarchical project was launched with the support-political and financial-of Liang Shih-yi and others. The Japanese and other Foreign Ministers warned Yuan Shih-kai against mounting the Throne, and in December 1915 a revolt, organized by Tsai Ao, broke out in Yuunan. Other Southern Provinces joined in the retellion, and Yuan Shih-kai, too late, recognized that the fulfilment of his ambitions was impossible. He revoked the Monarchical scheme, and died in June 1916, being succeeded, in accordance with the Constitution, by General Li Yuan-hung. Feng Kuo-chang became Vice-President. The new President reconvoked the old Parliament, which pursued a desultory and ineffective existence until June 1917. Its dissolution was then demanded on various grounds, chiefly connected with the question of China's entry into the war, by the Northern militarists. The actual reason given for its dissolution was the draft of the new Constitution, to which the militarists took

strong exception. General Chang Hsun, who had come up to the Capital from Hsuchow, to "mediate" attempted to restore the Manchu Emperor in August, 1917. Although there is little doubt that his fellow-militarists were aware of his intentions, the Northern forces, led by Tuan Chi-jui attacked Peking and overthrew Chang Hsun, who took refuge in the Dutch Legation. President Li Yuan-hung, who had sought refuge in the Legation Quarter during the coup, refused to resume office, and was succeeded by Feng Kuo-chang The Northern Militarists then created a new Parliament composed of their own creatures, many of whom would not have dared to show their faces in the Provinces they were supposed to represent, and this, the "Bogus" or "Tuchuns" Parliament assembled in August 1918. and elected Hsu Shih-ch'ang, the bosom-friend of Yuan Shih-kai, as President. Owing to jealousies among the militarists the office of Vice-President has remained vacant to this day.

Meanwhile the members of the original Parliament, which had twice been dissolved, and whose terms of office had, in most instances, expired, pursued a peripatetic existence, claiming wherever they met to be the sole repository of "constitutional" government. The Southern leaders, who had mobilized to oust Chang Hsun, distrusted Tuan Chi-jui, declined to recognize his authority, and denounced the Tuchuns' Parliament and all its deeds, as illegal. A new "Government" in which Sun Yat-sen, Tang Shaoyi and Wu Ting-fang took the leading roles, was formed at Canton, whither the ex-Parliamentarians proceeded, to re-establish "constitutionalism." one time most of the Southern and South-Western Provinces were in revolt against Peking, and in sympathy with Canton. Soon, however, quarrels occurred among the Southern leaders. Sun Yat-sen and his associates were ousted from power by the Kwangsi faction under General Lu Yungting, and his nominee, Mo Jung-hsin, assumed control of Kwangtung. ex-Parliamentarians were invited to Yunnan by Tang Chi-yao, the Yunnan Tuchun, but before they could assemble there their new patron had also established himself in Szechuan, and named Chungking as the new seat of the Legislature. They had not actually met there when fresh developments caused them to retrace their steps to Canton. General Ch'en Ch'iung-ming, with the slogan "Kwangtung for the Kwangtungese" attacked, and after a brief struggle, drove out the Kwangsi faction. This success of the socalled constitutionalists was offset by the discomfiture of Tang Chi-yao. the ambitious Yunnan Tuchun, who was driven out of Szechuan and subsequently compelled to leave Yunnan itself. Sun Yat-sen, Tang Shao-yi and Wu Ting-fang, who had sought refuge in the Foreign Settlement at Shanghai returned to Canton, and re-established their so-called "Constitutional" Government. And in April, 1921, Sun Yat-sen was elected "President of the Chinese Republic" by 213 of a total of 222 votes. Even if the term of office of the old Parliament had not expired, this election could scarcely be regarded as constitutional, as, according to the Constitution the election of a President requires the attendance of two thirds of the total membership of both Houses, and a majority of three fourths of those present. The total membership of the two Houses was 870. An attendance of 580 was therefore necessary for a legal quorum, of whom at least 435 must vote for the successful candidate.

While Sun Yat-sen's fortunes had been waxing and waning in the South the Government of North China had remained in the hands of a clique of Northern Militarists, presided over by Tuan Chi-jui. It was able to retain office chiefly as the result of a series of Japanese Loans, which were concluded regardless of—in fact in open defiance of—public opinion. Public hostility to the Government found expression, in May 1919, in the students' demonstrations in Peking, which led to the resignation of Tsao Ju-lin, who was held responsible for many of these unpopular transactions. In 1920, however, Tuan Chi-jui and his so-called "Anfu" protegés were still in power, among them the notorious Hsu Shu-tseng, who had command of the North-Western Frontier Defence Force. The Chihli and Fengtien Tuchuns took advantage of public hostility towards the faction in power to

force matters to an issue. The dismissal of "Little" Hsu was demanded by General Wu Pei-fu and General Tsao Kun, the Chihli Tuchun. The President yielded Then, as the result of the opposition of the "Tuchuns" Parliament and of the Anfu leaders, he dismissed Wu Pei-fu and censured Tsao Kun These Generals accepted the challenge, and in co-operation with General Chang Tso-lin, the Fengtien Tuchun, undertook "to support the Government" by the forcible removal of the Anfu Party. The power of the Anfu leaders collapsed after a few engagements in which the only real fighting was done by General Wu Pei-fu's forces. The Anfu leaders sought refuge in the Japanese Legation, and the control of the administration shifted from Tuan Chi-jui (who went into retirement) to Chang Tsoin and Tsao Kun. These Generals, commonly known as "Super-Tuchuns" because of their assumption of the title of "High Inspecting Commissioner" over various Provinces adjoining their own, now dominate Peking. After their victory the "Tuchuns" Parliament was dissolved, and the President proclaimed the reunion of the nation, and ordered a fresh General Election. Little progress has been made towards the realization of this programme. The authority of the Peking Government does not extend beyond the walls of the Capital. The real power rests with the Super-Tuchuns, who in April and May 1921 met and conferred at Tientsin and Peking, summoned the Hupeh Tuchun (Wang Chan-yuan) to their conferences, and proceeded to reconstruct the Cabinet and to dictate their wishes-especially in the matter of financial subsidies-to the Peking Government . Wang Chan-yuan, who became a "Super-Tuchun" by virtue of his association upon equal terms with the two Northern War Lords, was confronted on his return to Wuchang with serious difficulties as a result of the mutiny of portions of his forces at Wuchang and Ichang, and at the moment of writing it is expected that he will be superseded.

When this work went to Press at the end of June 1921 the situation in China was this: Sun Yat-sen's Government at Canton had just opened hostilities with Kwangsi, in anticipation of a Kwangsi offensive against Kwangtung, backed by the Northern militarists. While the other Southern Provinces were not openly in revolt against Peking, neither did they recognize its authority. A movement for Provincial Home-Rule was making considerable headway, among its supporters (so it was alleged) being the Chekiang Tuckun. The Yangtze Valley was in a state of uncertainty and apprehension as the result of the mutinies of the Hupeh Tuchun's troops. In North China General Wu Pei-fu and General Feng Yu-hsiang were cooperating in an attempt to oust the Shensi Tuchun. General Chen Shu-fan, whose removal had been decreed by Peking. General Yen Hsiang-wen had been nominated to succeed him, but Chen Shu-fan appeared determined not to yield without a struggle. Still further North Chang Tso-lin, having secured for himself the additional title of High Commissioner for Mongolia, was bombarding Peking with demands for large sums of money to finance the expedition by which Outer Mongolia was to be reconquered. In Peking itself the search for a Finance Minister was still in progress. Mr Li Shih-wei, the Super-Tuchuns' nominee Laving persistently refused to take up the post. No real improvement in the political situation can be anticipated until the power of the militarists has been broken. It only needs a reference to the official Customs Reports for 1920 to reveal what foreigners and Chinese suffer as a result of constant political strife and

military excesses.

THE CHINESE GOVERNMENT.

The following description of the Chinese Government is reproduced from Mr. Raymond P. Tenney's article in Vol. II of the Commercial Handbook of China, published by the U. S. Department of Commerce. It should, however be noted that in many instances it describes what the administration is in theory—not in fact.

Following is a list of the different independent departments of the Chinese Government, based on the List of Officials (Chih Yuan Lu), an official publication of the Cabinet, for the third quarter of 1918:

Presidency (Ta Tsung T'ung). Vice-Presidency (Fu Tsung T'ung). Senate (Ts'an I Yüan). 2.

House of Representatives (Chung I Yüan).

5. Cabinet (Kuo Wu Yüan). 6.

Chiang Chün Fu. Audit Department (Shen Chi Yüan).

8. Nine Ministries (Pu).

9. Peking Gendarmerie (Pu Chun T'ung Ling Ya Men).

Central Salt Administration (Yen Wu Shu). 10.

11. Revenue Council (Shui Wu Ch'u). 12. General Staff (Ts'an Mou Pen Pu). 13. Supreme Court (Ta Li Yüan).

Department of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs (Meng Tsang Yüan).

Administrative Court (P'ing Cheng Yüan).

Government of the Metropolitian District (Ching Chao). 14.

15.

16.

17. Government of the Provinces (Sheng).

PRESIDENCY (TA TSUNG T'UNG FU 大總統府).

The President is elected in accordance with the terms of the presidential election law of October 5, 1913, which forms the only part of the permanent constitution that has been passed and put into force. Article I provides that "a native of China over 40 years of age, possessing citizen's rights complete and unimpaired, who has lived in the country for upward of 10 years, is eligible for the Presidency of the Republic." Election is by an electoral college composed of the two Houses of the National Assembly sitting together. The term of office is five years subject to one reelection.

The duties of the President, until the permanent Constitution is promulgated, are as set forth in the Provisional Constitution of March 15, 1912. That instrument provides that the President is the source of all executive powers. He promulgates the laws and issues orders for their execution. He appoints and removes all civil and military officials on his own responsibility, except in the case of the appointment of members of the Cabinet, ambassadors and ministers, when the concurrence of the legislature is necessary. With the concurrence of the legislature he can also declare war and conclude treaties. He can introduce bills and veto legislation, but his veto may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the legislature.

The President may be impeached by the legislature for high treason after a majority vote of three-fourths of a quorum consisting of more than

four-fifths of the total number of the members.

VICE PRESIDENCY (FU TSUNG T'UNG FU副總統府)

The office of Vice President is also provided for in the election law of October 5, 1913. The election is held at the same time as that for President. Article 5 prevides that the Vice President succeeds to the Presidency, in case the post is vacated, and serves to the end of the President's term."

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY (KUO HUI 國會).

The National Assembly, the legislative branch of the Government. is made up of a senate (Ts'an I Yüan) 參議院 and a House of Representatives (Chung I Yuan) 衆議院 . The powers of the National Assembly are laid down in the Provisional Constitution, but, in fact, this body is still in an experimental stage, the Government having been carried on since the Republic was established in 1912 for the most part without a legislature, the law-making power being exercised by the executive.

^{*}There has been no Vice-President since August, 1917, when the late General Feng Kuo chang became Acting President following the resignation of President Li Yuan-hung.

CABINET (KUO WU YUAN 國務院).

The Cabinet is composed of a Premier (Kuo Wu Tsung Li) and the Ministers of the nine executive departments, or Ministries (Pu), of Foreign Affairs (Wai Chiao), Interior (Nei Wu), Finance (Ts'ai Cheng), War (Lu Chün), Marine (Hai Chün), Justice (Ssu Fa), Education (Chiao Yü), Agriculture and Commerce (Nung Shang), and Communications (Chiao Tung).

The members of the Cabinet are provided for in Chapter V of the Provisional Constitution, which states that they shall assist the President in assuming responsibilities and shall countersign all bills introduced and

all laws and orders issued by the President.

Eight Councillors (Ts'an I) are attached to the Cabinet Office. There is also a secretariat (Mi Shu T'ing), made up of a chief secretary (Mi Shu Chang), and a number of secretaries (Mi Shu), senior clerks (Ch'ien Shih),

and junior clerks (Chu Shih).

A number of semi-independent bureaus are connected with the Cabinet, chief among them being the Bureau of Laws (Fa Chih Chü), the Civil Service Bureau (Ch'ün Hsü Chü), the Bureau of Statistics, (T'ung Chi Chü) the Bureau of Printing (Yin Chu Chü), the Overseas Labour Bureau (Ch'iao Kung Shih Wu Chü), and the National Conservancy Bureau (Ch'uan Kuo Shui Li Chü).

AUDIT DEFARTMENT (SHEN CHI YUAN 審計院).

A system of auditing the Government accounts is provided by a law dated October 3, 1914. All Government offices throughout the country are obliged to submit monthly reports of their receipts and expenditures to the Audit Department at Peking for inspection and verification. The department is also entrusted with the work of auditing the accounts of the whole country for the fiscal year and submitting suggestions to the President.

MINISTRIES (PU 部).

The organizations of the nine ministries are similar. Each has a general office (Tsung Wu T'ing), which is entrusted with the keeping of the archives, the management of accounts, and other matters relating to the internal affairs of the ministry. Each has a number of departments (Ssu), varying in number of between three and eight, which divides the routine work of the ministry.

In each ministry there is one Minister (Tsung Chang) and at least one Vice Minister (Tz'u Chang). The Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Marine, Justice, Education, and Agriculture and Commerce each has one Vice

Minister, the other ministries having two each.

The officials next in rank to the Vice Ministers are the councillors (Ts'an Shih), of whom each ministry has four, except the Ministry of Education, which has three. Their duties consist of drafting laws, orders, and documents, under the direction of their superior officers.

Next in rank are the chiefs of departments (Ssu Chang), the secretaries (Mi Shu), the senior clerks (Ch'ien Shih), and junior clerks, (Chu Shih).

(a) The Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Wai Chiao Pu) 外交路 conducts the foreign relations of the country and has charge of its consular and diplomatic services. It maintains representatives—the special envoys for foreign affairs—in the different Provinces to attend to the local relations with foreigners residing within the country. Tsinghua College, the institution founded at Peking with Boxer indemnity funds that were returned by the United States to China, is under the management of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

(b) The Ministry of the Interior (Nei Wu Pu) 內容部 exercises a general supervision over the administration of local government, elections, charities and philanthropies, relief work, local improvements, policing, and matters relating to copyright and publications, ceremonial and religious observances, public works, and public health. The compilation of various kinds of statistics, including the census figures, also forms part of its work.

(c) The Ministry of Finance (Ts'ai Cheng Pu) 財政部 is entrusted with the collection of the national revenues, except the maritime customs and salt taxes, which are collected by separate departments. The ministry is the custodian of the National Treasury and has charge of the expenditures and accounts of the Government and of matters relating to the national currency. The negotiation of Government loans is part of the work of the Ministry of Finance. The following institutions are under the direct control of the ministry: The Bank of China; the Government Mints; the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. The powers of the ministry are exercised in the Provinces through the provincial departments of finance.

(d) The Ministry of War (Lu Chün Pu) 陸軍部 has charge of the Chinese Army, including the military schools, arsenals, etc., connected

therewith.

(e) The Ministry of Marine (Hai Chün Pu) 海軍部 has charge of the Navy and all departments connected therewith.

(f) The Ministry of Justice (Ssu Fa Pu) 司法部 has charge of the

national system of law courts and prisons

(g) The Ministry of Education (Chiao Yii Pu) 教育部 is entrusted with the management of the educational affairs of the country, exercising its authority through the provincial departments of education. Control is also exercised directly over the higher educational institutions, such as the Peking Government University, the Peking Higher Normal College, etc., which are located in the capital. The Astronomical Observatory at Peking

is also under the management of the ministry.

(h) The Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce (Nung Shang Pu) 医笛部 has charge of all governmental activities relating to agriculture, forestry, fisheries, stock raising, industry, commerce, and mining. Attached to the ministry are a geological survey department, experiment stations for forestry, agriculture, cotton, tea, stock raising, and sugar, and also an office for fixing weights and measures. The ministry works in the Provinces through the provincial departments of industry.

(i) The Ministry of Communications (Chiao T'ung Pu) 交通部 has

the direction of the national railways, posts, telegraphs, and shipping.

PEKING GENDARMERIE (PU CHUN T'UNG LING YA MEN). 步軍統領衙門

The Peking Gendarmerie is an armed police force (with an organization distinct from either the regular police or the army) designed for the defence and policing of the capital.

CENTRAL SALT ADMINISTRATION (YEN WU SHU). 隨務署

The Central Salt Administration is constituted in accordance with the terms of Article 5 of the Chinese Government Reorganization Loan Agreement of April 21, 1913 While independent of the Ministry of Finance, it is closely associated with it by reason of the fact that the post of Director General (Tu Pan) must always be held by the Minister of Finance, while that of Chief of Administration (Shu Chang) has always been occupied by one of the Vice-Ministers of Finance. Within the administration a chief inspectorate has been organized, as provided in the article of agreement above mentioned, which reads in part as follows:

"This Central Salt Administration will comprise a chief inspectorate of salt revenues (Chi Ho Tsung So) under a Chinese chief inspector (Tsung Fan), and a foreign associate chief inspector (Hui Pan), who will constitute the chief authority for the superintendence of the issue of licenses and the compilation of reports and returns of revenues. In each salt-producing district there will be a branch office of the inspectorate (Chi Ho Fen So), under one Chinese and one foreign district inspector (So Chang) who shall be jointly responsible for the collection and deposit of the salt revenues. The engagement and dismissal of these Chinese and foreign district inspec-

tors, and of the necessary Chinese and foreign staff at the chief and branch inspectorates, will be decided jointly by the Chinese and foreign chief inspectors, with the approval of the Minister of Finance.

REVENUE COUNCIL (SHUI WU CH'U). 稅務處

The Revenue Council was created by an edict dated May 9, 1906, to take charge of the maritime customs. Supervision over the customs is exercised through the foreign Inspectorate General of Customs at Peking and the Chinese superintendents of customs (Hai Kuan Chien Tu), who are stationed at the different ports. The principal officials of the Revenue Council are the comptroller general (Tu Pan), the associate comptroller general (Hui Pan), a proctor (Ti Tiao), and an assistant proctor (Pang T'i Tiao).

GENERAL STAFF (TS'AN MOU PEN PU). 参謀本部

The General Staff of the Chinese Army is organized on the same basis as a ministry, under a Chief of Staff and an Assistant Chief of Staff.

SUPREME COURT (TA LI YUAN). 大理院

The Supreme Court is the highest judicial tribunal in the country. It is made up of a Chief Justice and a number of justices, who are apportioned to three civil and two criminal divisions, and five of whom sitting together constitute a court. The Supreme Court stands at the head of the national judicial system, consisting of district courts, located in the different districts (hsien) throughout the country, and higher courts, one of which is established in each Province (Sheng). The jurisdiction of the Supreme Court is both appellate and original, appellate in the case of appeals brought from the higher courts and original in the case of offences against the State and the international relations of the State, for which the punishment is imprisonment for three or more years, and in the case of impeachment of the President by the National Assembly.

DEPARTMENT OF MONGOLIAN AND TIBETAN AFFAIRS (MENG TSANG YUAN). 崇藏院

This department, as its name indicates, has charge of the affairs of the outlying possessions of China, in Mongolia and Tibet. The principal officers are a Director General and an Associate Director General, both of whom are Mongols.

ADMINISTRATIVE COURT (P'ING CHENG YUAN). 平政院

The Administrative Court was organized for the purpose of trying impeachment of officials. Deliberations take place before one of the three divisions into which it is divided. The principal officials of the Administrative Court are the chief of the Court (Yuan Chang), who exercises supervisory control over the affairs of the whole court, and 15 judges (P'ing Shih).

METROPOLITAN DISTRICT (CHING CHAO). 京兆

The Metropolitan District, the "District of Columbia" of China, comprises an area of about 100 miles square, centering around Peking and including 20 districts (hsien). The chief official, the governor (Ching Chao Yin), whose seat is at Peking, is independent of the provincial authorities and responsible only to the central Government. Within his jurisdiction his functions correspond to those of a governor of a Province.

GOVERNMENT OF THE TWENTY-TWO PROVINCES OF CHINA.

(a) The Military Governor (Tu Chün) 督軍 is the highest ranking official in each Province Except in times of disturbance, when military law is proclaimed, his authority extends only over military matters, which he directs subject to the orders of the President, the Ministry of War, and the General Staff at Peking.

(b) The Governor, or Civil Governor (Sheng Chang), 省長 is the chief civil authority in each Province. All governmental activities in the Province, except those of a military nature, come within the scope of his authority. In matters relating to foreign affairs, finance, education, industries, and justice, he acts in close touch with the central government

at Peking and in consultation with its provincial representatives.

The governor exercises a direct control over the lesser territorial officials in the Province, the taoyins and district magistrates, the latter being appointed or dismissed subject to his recommendation. The governor may issue provincial orders and may suspend the orders issued by the taoyins and district magistrates. He controls the provincial militia and, in case of necessity, may request the co-operation of the regular military establishment.

(c) Bureau of Foreign Affairs (Chiao She Shu). 交涉使 A special envoy for foreign affairs (Wai Chiao Pu T'e P'ai Chiao She Yüan) is stationed in each Province to conduct the relations with foreigners. He acts under the orders of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs at Peking and in consultation with the governor of the Province.

Branch offices of the bureau of foreign affairs, presided over by commissioners of foreign affairs (Chiao She Yuan) are established in the different

treaty ports.

(d) Department of Finance (Ts'ai Cheng Ting),實業廳 The chief of the department of finance, subject to the orders of the Ministry of Finance at Peking, and acting in consultation with the governor, has charge of the collection of taxes in the Province. He supervises the activities of the various tax-collecting officials in the Province, including such district magistrates as are empowered to collect taxes.

(e) Department of Education (Chiao Yü T'ing). 教育廳 The chief of this department acts under the joint direction of the Ministry of Education and the governor and has charge of the educational affairs of the

Province.

(f) The Department of Industry (Shih Yeh T'ing) 財政廳 has charge of all governmental activities connected with industrial matters throughout the Province, subject to the joint direction of the Ministry of Agriculture

and Commerce and the governor.

(g) Higher Court (Kno Teng Shen P'an Ting) 高等審判廳 The chief judge of this court is the principal judicial authority in the Province. He exercises a supervision over the provincial judiciary, subject to the joint direction of the Ministry of Justice and the governor. The higher court is the highest court of appeal in the Province.

(h) Taoyin. 道尹 Each Province is divided into a number of large divisions, varying netween two and seven, called "tao," each under the

jurisdiction of an official called a "taoyin."

The taoyin acts under the supervision of the governor of the Province, and within his jurisdiction his powers are similar to those of the governor. He exercises general supervision over all acts of the district magistrates within his jurisdiction. He may issue orders and may cancel orders issued by the district magistrates under him. He may submit recommendations to the governor for the appointment, reward, or punishment of the district magistrates and he may, in case a vacancy occurs, fill it by a temporary appointment.

Like the governor, the taoyin is also given authority to use the militia in his jurisdiction and to apply to the regular military forces for aid when occasion therefor arises. In doing this last, however, except under extraordinary circumstances, he must send his application through the governor.

Finally, the taoyin has the right, in matters of great urgency or importance, to petition the President direct, in which case he must report

his action to the governor.

(i) District Magistrate (Hsien Chih Shih) 縣知事 The district magistrate is the chief civil authority in the third and smallest division of the

Province—the district (hsien). The number of districts in each tao varies greatly. The typical district consists of a walled town and its surround-

ing country.

The duties of a district magistrate are varied. Except in the important centres he is usually the principal judge in the district, exercising his funccentres he is usually the principal judge in the district, exercising in a tune-tions under the supervision of the taoyin, the governor, and the higher court. He is also usually the chief tax-collecting official in his district, acting under the supervision of the taoyin, the governor, and the provincial department of finance. Within the scope of his authority he may issue orders. Educational and industrial affairs are under his charge.

The district magistrate is the principal police officer of his district, whether the police force is irregular and of the old style or whether a modern district police station has been established. In the latter case he

occupies the position of chief of the district police station.

In matters of importance the district magistrate has the right to petition the governor direct, in which case he must report his action to

Like the governor and the taoyin the district magistrate is given control over the militia in his district, and he may request the co-operation

of the regular military forces

- (i) Local Police Departments (Ti Fang Ching Ch'a T'ing.) 地方警 Will Under the terms of a presidential mandate issued in August, 1914, it is provided that local police departments shall be established in each of the provincial capitals and commercial centres, to take charge of matters relating to policing, public health, and fire prevention. The chief of a local police department directs the affairs of his office subject to the supervision of the taoyin and the governor.
- (k) District Police Stations (Hsien Chin Ch'a So). 縣警察所 These may be established in the districts or else the districts may rely for their police force on the local train bands. Where a district police station has been established the district magistrate is the chief of the station.

CENTRAL (PEKING) GOVERNMENT.

President Vice-President Hsu Shih-ch'ang 徐世昌

(Vacant)

The Cabinet.

	Ministers	Vice-Ministers	
Premier	Chin Yun-peng	靳雲鵬	
Interior	Chi-Yao-shan	產耀ⅢYu Pao-fan	于保藩
Foreign Affairs	Yen-Hui-ching,	重惠慶Liu Shih-hsun	劉式訓
	(Dr. W. W. Yen		
Com. & Agricul-	Wang Nai-pin	干硒斌Kao Ning-yu	高凌蔚
ture			
Education	Fan Yuan-lien	范源濂Wang Chang-ku	王章祜
Communications	Chang Chi-tan	張志潭Hsu-Shih-chang	徐世章
War	Tsai Cheng-hsun	蔡成動Chin Shao-tseng	金紹曾
Navy	Li Ting-hsin	李盟新Chen Tse-fu	陳子復
Justice	Tung Kang	畫 康Chang Yi-pang	張一鵬
Finance	Li-Shih-wei	李士偉Wang Shih-yuan	汪士元
	Pan Fu (Acting)	Chang IIu	張弧
General Staff	Chang Huai-chih	張懷芝Chiang Yen-heng	蔣雁行

PROVINCIAL OFFICIALS.

Province	Tuchuns	Civil Governors	
Fengtien	Chang Tso-lin	張作霖Chang Tso-lin	兼
Heilungkiang	Wu Chun-sing	吳俊陞Wu Chun-sing	金
Kirin	Sun Lieh-chen	孫烈臣Sun Lieh chen	兼
Chihli	Tsao Kun	曹 銀Tsao Jui	曹銳
Shantung	Tien Chung-yu	田中玉Tien Chung-yu	兼
Shansi	Yen Shih-shan	图记山Yen Shih-shan	釜
Sinkiang	Yang Tseng-hsin	楊增新Yang Tseng hsin	爭
Kansu		(Acting) Chen Ning	陳誾
Shensi	Yen Hsiang-wen	闊相文Liu Chen-hua	劉鎮華
Yunnan	Ku Ping-chen	顧品珍Chou Chung-yueh	周宗嶽
Kweichow	Lu Tao	盧 壽Jen Ko-cheng	仟可澄
	(Hsiung K'o-wu	熊克武Yang Shu-kan	楊庶堪
Szechuan	Liu Tsun-hou	劉存厚	120 ample
	Lu Chiao	呂超	
Hunan	Chao-Heng-tih	趙恒惕Lin Tze-yu	林支宇
Hupeh	Wang-Chan-yuan	干占元Liu Cheng-en	劉承恩
Kiangsi	Chen Kuang-yuan	陳光遠Yang Ching-chun	楊慶鋆
Anhui	Chang Wen-sheng	張文生Nieh Hsien-fan	聶憲藩
Kiangsu	Chi Hsieh-yuan	齊變元Wang Hu	王瑚
Chekiang	Lu Yung-hsiang	盧永祥Shen Chin-chien	沈金鑑
Kwangtung	Chen Chiung-ming		兼
Kwangsi	Tan Hao-ming	譚浩明Li Chen-cheng	李靜誠
Fukien	Li Hou-chi	李厚基Li Hou-chi	争
Honan	Chao Ti	趙 偶Chang Feng-tai	張鳳台
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Tartar Generals

Jehol	Chiang Kwei-ti	姜桂題
Chahar	Chang Ching-hui	張景惠
Suiyuan	Ma Fu-hsiang	馬福祥

Sun Yat-sen, Fifth President,

LIST OF HIGHER OFFICIALS OF THE CANTON GOVERNMENT.

	7次人也 114	
Wu Ting-fang,	伍廷芳	Minister of Foreign Affairs,
Tang Shao-yi,	唐紹儀	Minister of Finance,
Chen Chiung-ming,	陳烱明	Minister of Interior,
Chen Chiung-ming,	陳烱明	Concurrent Minister of War,
Tang Ting-kwang,	湯廷光	Minister of Navy,
Lı Lieh-chun,	李烈釣	Chief of General Staff,
Hsu Chien,	徐謙	Chief Justice of Supreme Court,
Wu Chao-chu,	伍朝樞	Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs,
Liao Chung-kai,	廖仲愷	Vice-Minister of Finance,
Lu Chi-yi,	呂志伊	Vice-Minister of Interior,
Chen Chien,	程潛	Vice-Minister of War,
	1	

Lin Yung-mu,	林永謨	Vice-Minister of Navy,
Chiang Tseng-kwei,	蔣曾篡	Vice-Chief of General-Staff,
Ma Chun-wu,	馬君武	Chief Secretary to the President.
Hsu Shao-cheng,	徐紹楨	Chief Aide-de-camp.
Sun Hung-yi,	孫洪伊	Councillors,
Hu Han-min,	胡漢民	22
Chang Chi,	張機	22
Wang Pei-chun,	王伯羣	22
Chu Cheng,	居 正	27
Hsieh Chi,	謝持	22
Lin Siu-mei,	林修梅	22
Li Chung-huang,	李宗黃	22
Tan Cheng,	覃正	22
Quo Tai-chi,	郭泰祺	33
Chen Chiung-ming.	陳烱明	Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Kwang-
	DK VIN 193	tung forces,
Koo Yin-fin,	古應芬	Chief of Bureau of Political Affairs.
Teng Keng,	鄧鏗	Chief of Staff and Commander of 1st
	All RE	Division.
Hsu Chung-chi,	許崇智	Commander of 2nd Army Corps,
Tsao Lu,		Salt Commissioner of the two Kwang
2249	鄒 書	Provinces.
Huang Chiang,	黄 强	Superintendent of Canton Customs,
Frank W. Lee,		Commissioner for Foreign Affairs,
Sun Fo,	李錦綸	Mayor of Canton.
Buil FO,	孫科	magor of cuncon.

CHINA'S DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE.

MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

Waichiaopu, (外交部)

Minister: Yen Hui Ching (Dr. W. W. Yen,) 顏惠慶

Vice Minister: Liu Shih Hsun, 劉式訓

Councilors: Tiao Tso Chien (Philip K. C. Tyau), 기作謙

Yueh Chao Yi,岳昭橋Wang Ching Chi,王景岐Tang Tsai Chang唐在章Chang Yu Chuan,張煜全

Administration Centrale (總務廳)

Chiefs of Bureaus: Sun Chang Hsuan, 孫昌垣 Chung Ho Nien, 宗鶴年 Chao Hang Nien, 趙沅年 Wu Pao Hsien, 吳葆誠 Chung Yu, 崇 鈺 Hsieh Yung Hsin, 謝永炘

Direction des Affaires Politiques (政務司).

Director: Shih Shao Chang, 施紹常

Chiefs of Bureaus: Chang Wei (Showbin W. Chang), 張瑋

Chiang Hua Pen, Fan Hsu Liang, Huang Cheng Shou, Chu Shou Peng, Ou Hui,

Direction des Affaires Commerciales, (通商司).

Chiefs of Bureaus: Wang Y1, 注 毅 Kuan Chi, 關 壽

Chen Hai Ch'ao, Chang Chao Fen, Fu Yang Hsien, Hsü T'ung Hsin 許同莘

Direction du Protocole, (交際司).

Director: Chen En Hou, 陳恩厚

Chiefs of Bureaus: Yu Teh Chun, 于德濬 Wu Tai, 男 会

Wu Tai, Liu Nai Fan, Wi Yai, Yi Yai,

Service du Chiffre (Telegraph Department) (雷報處).

Superintendent: Tiao Tso Chien (Philip K. C. Tyau), 기作謙

Service de Traduction (Translation Department), (編譯處)

Chief: Chang Yu Chuan, 張煜全

Commission for the Study of Peace Treaties, (和約研究會).

President: Wang Cheng Ting (Dr. C. T. Wang), 王正廷

Vice Presidents: Liu Ching Jen, 劉鏡人

Shen Jui Lin, 沈瑞麟

General Secretary: Tiao Tso Chien (Philip K. C. Tyau), 기作謙

Members: Shih Shao Chang, 施紹常

Chow Chuan Ching, 周傳經 Wang Ching Chi, 王景峻 Hsu Chao Hsiung, Hsiung Kai, 熊 垓 Chien Tai 錢 泰 Tang Tsai Chang, 唐在章

Tang Tsai Chang, 唐在章 Hsia Ching Yi, 夏清語 Chang Yun Hsiang, 張潤翔

Li Chien Pu, Chu Ho Luan, 朱鶴鑾

Kuo Yun Kuan, 郭雲觀 :Secretæries: Liu Chia Yu, 劉家愉

Lu Chen, 陸 震 Li Shih Sung, 李時嵩

Tang Yueh Liang, 唐悅良 Chang Shou Mo, 章守默 Commission for the Study of Russian Affairs. (俄事委員會)

President: Liu Ching Jen, 劉鏡人

Tiao Tso Chien (Philip K. C. Tyau), Members:

Shih Shao Chang, 施紹常 Chow Chuan Ching, 周傳經

Chien Tai,

錢 泰 Chu Ho Hsiang, 朱鶴翔 Huang Tsung Fa, 黄宗法 Fan Hsu Liang, 范緒良

Chi Ching,

General Secretary: Chu Ho Hsiang,

Secretaries: Wang Yi,

汪 毅 Huang Tsung Lin, 黃宗麟 Chang Wen Huan, 張文煥 Shen Tsu Teh, 沈祖德

CHINESE LEGATIONS AND CONSULATES ABROAD.

朱鶴翔

Great Britain.

Legation: Ku Wei Chun (Vi Kyuin Wellington Koo), 顧維對 Envoy Extra-ordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Chu Chao Hsin 朱兆茎 Councillor.

Wei Wen Pin 魏文彬 Second Secretary.

Sun Tsu Lieh 孫祖烈 Third Secretary.

Hsu Ting 徐鼎 Third Secretary.

Cheng Wan Yi 程萬里 $Attach\acute{e}.$

Yang Yung Ching 楊永清 Attaché.

Meng Hsien Cheng 孟憲承 Chancellor.

Wu Shan Kun 伍善焜 Student-attaché.

Mao Ching Wei 目景瑋 Student-attaché.

Consulate General at Singapore:

Wu Huang 石蜡 Consul General. Chin Ju Chin 秦汝欽 Vice-Consul. Cheng Hua Ming 程華銘 Assistant.

Li Kung Yuan 李拱垣 Chancellor.

Consulate General at Ottawa, Canada:

Yang Shu Wen 楊書雯 Consul General.

Chao Chung Tan 趙宗壇 Vice-Consul.

Chen Chia Chuan 陳家傳

Hsu Tsan Hua 徐替化 Chancellor.

Consulate General at Melbourne, Australia:

Wei Tzu Ching 魏子京 Consul General.

Shih Shao Tseng 施紹會 Vice-Consul.

Kao Yu 高與 Assistant.

Liang Chang P'ei 梁長培 Chancellor. Consulate General at North Borneo:

Li Fang 李方 Consul General. Liang Chih Hsun 梁治荀 Assistant.

Consulate General at London:

Lo Chang 羅昌 Consul General. Lo Chung Cheng 羅忠誠 Vice-Consul. Chen Cheng Tai 陳成泰 Assistant. Chen Teng Kao 陳登線 Chancellor.

Consulate General at Johannesburg, Transvaal: Liu Yi 劉毅 Consul General.

Wang Teng Yung 王登庸 Assistant. Chao Ju Chen 趙儒珍 Chancellor.

Consulate at Rangoon:

Chang Kuo Wei 張國威 Consul. Yang Chen Chang 楊鎮昌 Assistant. Wang Hsien Wen 干先文 Chancellor.

Consulate at Vancouver:

Chen Wei Cheng 陳維城 Consul. Sun Chi Hsiang 孫麒祥 Assistant. Chen Wei Min 陳維敏 Chancellor.

Consulate at New Zealand :

Lin Shih Yuan 林軾垣 Consul. Shao T'ing 邵挺 Assistant. Yu En Ho 余恩和 Chancellor.

Consulate at Penang :

Tai P'ei Yuan 戴培元 Consul. Hu Chieh 胡木 Secretary.

Consulate at Apia, Samoa:

Pang Cheng Fu 潘承福 Consul, Acting. Lin Tse Chun 林則茎 Chancellor.

France.

Legation:

Chen Lu (Tcheng Loh) 陳籙 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Wang Tseng Sze 王曾思 Councillor. Shen Chin Yi 沈覲扆 Second Secreta Tai Ming Fu 戴明輔 Third Secretary. Second Secretary. Wang Lai Chi 王賚祺 Third Secretary. Lin Ping Chen 林炳琛 $Attach \acute{e}$. Lo Huai 羅懷 Attaché. Chen Chung Chun 陳忠鈞 Chancellor. Jen Chia Feng 任家豐 Student-attaché. Chen Chen 陳振 Student-attaché.

Consulate-General at Paris :

Liao Shih Kung 廖冊功 Consul General.

Li Tsun 李駿 Vice-Consul.

Liu Wen Pin 劉文彬 Assistant.

Liu Tseng Yuan 劉會元 Chancellor.

Italy.

Legation:

Tang Tsai Fu 唐在復 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Huang Shu Kan 黃書淦 Second Secretary. Chu Pao Lun 朱保倫 Third Secretary. Wang Hsiao Tsung 王孝總 Attaché. Sun Chih Yu 茶智輿 Chancellor.

Consulate at Trieste:

Chen Hung Hsin 陳鴻鑫 Consul.
Chu Ying 朱英 Assistant.
Shen Chung Su 沈重素 Chancellor.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Legation:

Shih Chao Chi (Sao Ki Alfred Sze) 旋筆基 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Jung Kuei 容揆 Councillor.

Shih Pin 施斌 Second Secretary.

Pi Ming Yu 畢鳴玉 Third Secretary.

Lao Wei Hsiu 勞維秀 Third Secretary.

Hsia Pang Fu 夏邦輔 Attaché.

Tang Kang Nien 唐康年 Chancellor.

Chin Wen Sze 金問泗 Representative and Candidate-Consu.

Hsu Mo 徐謨 Student-Attaché.

Shih Chao Kuei 施肇夔 Student-attaché.

Consulate-General at San Francisco:

Yeh Ke Liang 葉可樑 Consul General. Wang Huai Fen 王懷份 Vice-Consul. Chou Hsi Chi 周熙岐 Assistant. Li T'i Chien 李體乾 Chancellor.

Consulate-General at Manila:

Chou Kuo Hsien 周國資 Consul General. Li Chao Sung 李照松 Vice-Consul. Chu Chih Ching 居之敬 Assistant. Yeh Ke Chang 葉可樟 Chancellor.

Consulate at New York:

Shih Yu Ming 史悠明 Consul. Chien Kuang Hsi 錢廣禧 Assistant. T'u Ju Su 屠汝涑 Chancellor. Tan Hsueh Hsu 譚學徐 Consul. Li Chia Hsiang 李家驤 Assistant. Cheng Hsun Yin 鄭訓寅 Chancellor.

Consulate-General at Panama:

Wu P'ei Kuang 吳佩洸 Consul General. Chou Chung Yueh 周鍾岳 Vice-Consul. Lu Yen Shen 呂彥深 Assistant. Fan Yu Tai 范煜泰 Chancellor.

Japan.

Legation:

Hu Wei Teh 胡惟德 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Wang Hung Nien 王鴻年 Councillor.
Chang Yuan Chieh 張元節 First Secretary.
Ching Hung Chieh 江洪木 Second Secretary.
Su Jui Chao 蘇銳釗 Third Secretary.
Chu Shao Lien 朱紹濂 Third Secretary.
Chang Hung Pin 章鴻寶 Chancellor.
Ling Man Shou 凌昊壽 Chancellor.
Yang Hsueh Lun 楊雪倫 Student-attaché.
Chen Yi Yi 陳以益 Student-attaché.
Wen Chung Shu 文宗淑 Student-attaché.

Consulate-General at Yokohama:

Hsu Shan Ching 徐善慶 Consul General.
Chiang Tao Nan 蔣道南 Vice-Consul.
Li Kuang Heng 李光亨 Assistant.
Hsieh Hsiang 謝湘 Chancellor.

Consulate at Kobe:

Ke Hung Lieh 柯鴻烈 Consul. Li Chia Sze 李家駟 Assistant. Huang Chih Hsin 黃枝欣 Chancellor.

$Consulate\ at\ Nagosaki:$

Kuo Tse Chi 郭則濟 Consul. Wang Wan Nien 王萬年 Vice-Consul. Shen Chin Chueh 沈觀慤 Chancellor.

Consulate-General at Seoul:

Ma T'ing Liang 馬亮廷 Consul General.
Chien Cheng Chi 錢承棨 Vice-Consul.
Chang Tien Yuan 張天元 Assistant.
Pan Chung Chi 潘宗濟 Chancellor.

Consulate at Chemulpo:

Hsu Tung Fan 許同范 Consul.
Chin Ching Chang 金慶章 Assistant.
Cheng Chi Sheng 鄭政盛 Chancellor.

Consulate at Fusan:

Li Shih Tzu 李實慈 Consul.

Ma Chang Liang 馬長亮 Assistant.

Hsu Ho Ling 徐鶴齡 Chancellor.

Consulate at Shingishu:

Hu Hsiang 胡襄 Consul.

Chang Nan 張柟 Assistant.

Liu Pen Chao 劉本創 Chancellor.

Sub-Consulate at Gensan:

Ma Yung Fa 馬永馨 Vice-Consul.

Yang Yu 楊佑 Assistant.

Chang Hsiang 張相 Chancellor.

Sub-Consulate at Chinnampo:

Chen Chien 陳経 Vice-Consul.

Chen Ping Kun 陳秉焜 Assistant.

Ho Wei Ta 何維達 Chancellor.

Spain.

Legation:

Liu Chung Chieh 劉崇傑 Encoy Extraordinary and Minister
Plenipotentiary.

Sung Shan Liang 宋善良 Second Secretary.

Kung Hsiang 龍湘 Third Secretary.

Liu Pin Yeh 劉聘業 Attaché.

Wang Chung Yi 王崇燦 Chancellor.

Portugal.

Legation:

Liu Chung Chieh 劉崇傑 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Kuo Chia Chi 郭家驩 Chargé d'Affaires and Second Secretary.

Huo Chien 霍欧 Attaché.

Kao Huai 高懷 Chancecllor.

Netherlands.

Legation :

Wang Kuang Chi 王廣圻 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plentitipotentiary.

Li Shih Chung 李世中 Second Secretary.

Shu Nai Chien 徐乃謙 Third Secretary

Hsieh Wei Lin 謝維縣 Attaché.

Lei Ping Yang 雷炳揚 Chancellor.

Chiao Chi Chung 在機管 Student-attaché.

Consulate-General at Batavia :

Ou-Yang Chi 歐陽祖 Consul General.

Chen Hsi Chang 陳錫璋 Vice-Consul.

Pao Chun Kao 保君皥 Assistant.

Sun Ying Huan 孫應蹟 Chancellor.

Consulate at Sourabaya:

Chia Wen Yen 賈文燕 Consul. Huang Chang Huai 黃昌懷 Assistant.

Yu Ying Lin 俞應霖 Chancellor.

Consulate at Padang:

Chen Yi Fu 陳以復 Consul. Lai Chi 賴機 Assistant. Li Jen 李仁 Chancellor.

Consulate at Medan :

Chang Pu Ching 張步青 Consul.

Austria.

Legation:

Huang Yung Liang 黃榮良 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Lin Piao 林彪 Second Secretary.
Chang Heng 張蘅 Third Secretary.
Wang Yi Chih 王一之 Attaché.
Huang Chung Lun 黃宗倫 Chancellor.

Belgium.

Legation:

Wei Chen Tsu 魏宸組 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Hsu Hsiung Chang 許熊章 Second Secretary.
Liu Hsueh Pien 劉學作 Third Secretary.
Chen Su 陳榮 Third Secretary.
Wang Teh Yen 王德炎 Chancellor.

Consulate at Antwerp :

Chao Yi Shu 趙詒璹 Consul. Chu Shih Pin 朱士彬 Assistant. Huang Chu Wu 黃祖武 Chancellor.

Denmark.

Legation :

($\Gamma a can t$).

Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Tsao Yun Hsiang 曹雲祥 Chargé d'Affaires and First Secretary.
Chang Yun Kai 張允愷 Second Secretary.
Li Ching T'ao 李經濤 Third Secretary.
Hsu Nien Tseng 許念會 Attaché.
Hsia Lei 夏雷 Chancellor.

Sweden.

Legation:

Chang Chu Shen 章祖申 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Hsia Hsun Kun 頁循坤 Second Secretary.

Huang Kang Nien 黃康年 Attaché. Chen Chien 陳騫 Uhancellor.

Norway.

Legation:

Chang Chu Shen 章祖中 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Chu Sung Han 朱誦韓 Chargé d'Affaires and First Secretary. Chiang Chung Chien 将崇謙 Attaché. Yu Chun 锸鋆 Chancellor.

Switzerland.

Legation :

Wang Jung Pao 汪榮寶 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Hsiao Chi Jung 蕭繼榮 Second Secretary.
Tsou Chia Ying 鄒嘉譽 Third Secretary.
Chu Hsuan Chih 瞿宣治 Attaché.
Keng Chia Chi 耿嘉基 Attaché.

Brazil.

Legation:

Hsia Yi T'ing 夏詒霆 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Wu Chin Hsun 吳勤訓 Second Secretary. T'ung Te Chien 童德乾 Third Secretary.

Peru.

Legation :

Hsia Yi T'ing 夏詒霆 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister
Plenipotentiary.

Lo Chung Yi 羅忠語 Chargé d'Affaires and Councillor. Hsueh Te Chiung 薛德烱 Chancellor.

Mexico.

Wang Chi Tseng 王繼會 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Chou Yi T'ung 周易通 Second Secretary. ●
T'ao Lu Chien 陶履謙 Third Secretary.

Lei Hsiao Min 雷孝敏 Attaché.

Kao Chan Ting 高贊鼎 Chancellor.

Consulate at Sonora:

Li Hsiang Hsien 李向瀛 Consul. Chen Ming 陳明 Assistant. Feng Chih Cheng 馮執正 Chancellor.

Cuba.

Legation :

Wang Chi Tseng 王総會 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Wu Ke Cho 吳克倬 Chargé d'Affaires, First Secretary and Consul-General.

Lo Tse Chi 羅則琦 Third Secretary and Vice-Consul. Chen Po Nien 陳柏年 Attaché. Liu Nai Chun 劉迺銓 Chancellor.

Russia.

Legation:

Chen Yen Hsi 鄭延禧 First Secretary. Li Yu Hua 李毓 雄 Attaché.

Consulate-General at Vladivostock:

Fan Chi Kuang 范其光 Consul General Chung Tso Lin 中作霖 Vice-Consul.
Pi Shu Chi 畢庶吉 Assistant.
Tuan Chi Tang 段憩棠 Assistant.
Lu Chin P'eng 陸欽彭 Chancellor.
An Shou Yi 安壽爾 Chancellor.

Consulate at Nikolsk :

Pi Wen Chi 畢文啓 Consul. Kuan Yu En 關裕恩 Assistant. Han Yung Chen 韓永鏡 Chancellor.

Sub-Consulate at Harbarovsk :

Chuan Shih En 權世恩 Vice-Consul.
Lo Chung Wen 羅忠文 Assistant
Wang K'en 王 侃 Chancellor.
Chu Te Hsing 朱德馨 Chancellor.

Consulate at Irkutsk:

Chu Chao Yang 朱紹陽 Consul.
Hsuch Jung 薛 鏞 Assistant.
Huang Cheng 黃 澂 Chancellor.

${\it Consulate-General \ at \ Blagovestchensk:}$

Cheng Fu Ching 程福慶 Consul General.
Chao Kuei Lung 趙夔龍 Assistant.
Hsu Chien Hsun 徐建動 Assistant.
Liu Kuei Pin 劉貴斌 Chancellor.
Wu Ke Wei 吳克偉 Chancellor.

Consulate-General at Chita:

Chen Chung Hsun 沈景勳 Consal General. Yao Yi 葆 毅 Assistant. Chancellor.

Chile.

Legation:

On-Yang Keng 歐陽庚 Charge d'Affaires and First Secretary.

STAFF OF THE CHINESE MARITIME CUSTOMS. INSPECTORATE GENERAL.

PEKING:

Inspector General: Sir F. A. Aglen. Chief Secretary: C. A. V. Bowra.

Non Departmental Secretary: J. W. Richardson.

Staff Secretary: L. de Luca.

Acting Chinese Secretary: H. Kishimoto.
Acting Audit Secretary: J. H. Cubbon. Revenue Chief Accountant: J. W. Stephenson Assistant Audit Secretary: S. F. Wright.

Acting Assistant Secretary: J. M. H. Osborne.
Acting Pensions Chief Accountant: A. S. Campbell.
Acting Assistant Chinese Secretary: K. E. Jordan.
Acting Assistant Staff Secretary: S. W. Bradley. Acting Service Chief Accountant: Y. H. J. Cloarec.

Private Secretary to Inspector General: B. Phillips-Denham.

Assistants: A. S. Baines, G. Stinglhamber, F. de Carcer, M. H. R. Brault.

Chinese Assistants: Leung Pui Hang, Tu Ping Ho, Tsao Lin, Wang' Yu Lin, Ting Kuei-tang, Ying Hsin Tsi, C. Leung, Tao Loo Chuen. Stenotypist: (Miss) M. Buchholz.

Acting Transport Officer: C. J. Burge.

SHANGHAI:

Statistical Department:

Statistical Secretary: J. W. H. Ferguson. Acting Deputy Commissioner: R. S. Campbell.

Acting Assistant Statistical Secretary: Ting I-hsien.

Chinese Assistants: Tai Tien-tsoi, Wong Tsoo-bah, Hong Dzoe Dziang, Stenotypist: (Miss) A. Gubbay.

LONDON:

Non-President Secretary: G. F. H. Acheson. Assistants: A. G. Wallas, C. A. Pouncey.

STAFF AT THE TREATY PORTS.

HARBIN:

Commissioner: R. C. L. d'Anjou.

Acting Deputy Commissioner: W. R. Myers.

Assistants: E. A. MacDonald, S. A. Konovaloff, G. Boezi, J. Javrotsky, N. V. Jiejim, S. A. Klubien, E. E. Borissoff, C. de Montpellier, P. M. Crockett, C. S. Gibbes, T. M. Rozoff.

Chinese Assistants: Pu Lü Chung, Yu Shao Wu, Yeh Yuan Chang. Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: H. Abrahamsen.

HUNCHUN AND DISTRICT: (INCLUDING LUNGCHINGTSUN).

Acting Commissioner: U. Marconi. Assistants: P. B. Joly, M. Itoh. Chinese Assistants: Zia Tzu Wai.

MUKDEN:

Commissioner: L. Sandercock.

Assistants: S. Momikura, A. Sevier, R. M. P. Bairnsfather, S. Toscani.

ANTUNG :

Commissioner: E. Gilchrist.

Assistants: J. Fukumoto, U. Theodoli, K. B. Surh. Chinese Assistants: Fong Kün Chiu, Shen Tsan Hsueh. Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: J. E. Enright.

DATREN

Commissioner: T. Ebara.

Acting Deputy Commissioner: T. Tsuda.

Assistants: P. W. A. Scott, G. Tsunashima, K. Kakihana, U. Matsubara.

Chinese Assistant: Woo Loh Sung. Acting Tidesurveyor: M. Hamada.

NEWCHWANG:

Commissioner: W. R. M. D. Parr.

Assistants: U. Masho, C. A. de Bodisco, A. M. Maltchenko.

Chinese Assistants: Lam Kwok To.

Acting Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: R. Bland.

CHINWANGTAO:

Commissioner: R. H. R Wade.

Acting Deputy Commissioner: C. A. R. Cabral.

Chinese Assistant · Lo Ch'i Ming.

TIENTSIN:

Commissioner: R. H. R. Wade.

Deputy Commissioner: E. B. Howell. (Native Customs).

Acting Deputy Commissioner: L. Peel.

Assistants: Y. Akatani, E. T. Williams, B. E. F. Hall, J. M. A. Fay,

A. Nakashima, M. C. D. Drummond.

Chinese Assistants: Leung Joo Mong, Tang Tsung Mün, Tang Wing Fat, Ma Gee Shien, Shirh Mai Fong, Lai Tsu Mon.

Acting Harbour Master: R. O. Rutherfurd. Chief Tidesurveyor: T. Wright.

LUNGKOW:

Commissioner: A. H. Sugden.

Acting Deputy Commissioner: H. G. MacEwan.

CHEFOO:

Commissioner: A. H. Sugden.

Assistants: R. Ketels, K. Ishii, J. M. Newmarch.

Chinese Assistants: Ooong Zur Tsung, Hya Song-van, Wang I Tso, Kung Fu-tze, Wang Ki Ming.

Acting Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: H. P. Leaver.

KIAOCHAO:

Acting Commissioner: H. Otakı

Acting Deputy Commissioner: R. Inokuma.

Assistants: S. Sakaki, T. Aida, N. Yamaguchi, C. Ogiwara. Chinese Assistant: Wang T'ung Kwan.

Acting Tidesurveyor: R. Yada.

CHUNGKING:

Acting Commissioner: J. Klubien.

Assistants: E. J. Schjöth, J. J. Palmer.

Chinese Assistants: Tong Chi Ta, Tong Ziao-han, Shuen Te Ching.

Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: D. Macleman

WANHSIEN:

Acting Commissioner. J. Klubien.

Acting Deputy Commissioner: C. G. C. Asker.

ICHANG:

Commissioner: J. H. W. Houstoun

Assistant: H. B. Hawkins.

Chinese Assistants: Miu Ying-Shan, Tang Hsi Ch'ing

Acting Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master. G. E. Sherman.

SHASI:

Acting Commissioner: H. Dawson-Grone.

Chinese Assistant: Chen Tso-chü.

Acting Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: W. McF. Robb.

CHANGSHA:

Commissioner: W. M. Andrew.

Assistants: T. Yamamoto, E. Bathurst.

Chinese Assistant: Chao Ju Yung.

Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: J. R. Hamilton.

Commissioner: 'K. H. von Lindholm.

Chinese Assistants: Oong Kwae Sung, Sung Ko Cheng, Lei Chung Pin. Acting Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: J. A. Karkatzky.

HANKOW:

Commissioner: R. A. Currie.

Acting Deputy Commissioner: J. Steinberg.

Assistants: C. Bos, J. Warry, P. N. Shone, E. J. R. F. Cousturier. Chinese Assistants: Hu Fu-sen, Au Shih She, Yoh Sen Wen, Lo Tze Chüan, Wu Ming Chou.

Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: W. E. Clark. Acting District River Inspector: G. R. G. Worcester.

Commissioner: J. W. Loureiro.

Acting Deputy Commissioner: H. St. J. Wilding.

Assistants: W. H. S. Davis, D. H. Mothersole.

Chinese Assistants: Tsien Chung How, Chang Wai Sung, Tung Wen

Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: N. A. A. Nielsen. Acting River Inspector: W. D. Fraser.

WUHU:

Commissioner: W. H. C. Weippert. Deputy Commissioner: A. J. Basto.
Assistants: A. J. Hope, G. N. Gawler.

Chinese Assistants: Che Te-piao, Chan Pak Hong, Shih Ching, Hu Yu Ching.

Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: J. M. Nisbet.

NANKING :

Commissioner: R. C. Guernier.

Assistants: R. C. Grierson, S. Hopstock.

Chinese Assistants: Woo Sih Yung, T. Manuel Wong, Liu Ping I. Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: Y. M. Mudés.

CHINKIANG:

Commissioner: F. J. Mayers.

Assistants: R. A. May, J. F. Philippot. Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: W. B. Andrews.

SHANGHAI:

Commissioner: E. G. Lowder.

Deputy Commissioners: R. L. Warren, Shanghai District Accountant, J. Nolasco da Silva, In charge of Shanghai Native Customs.

A. C. E. Braud: In charge of Appraising Department.

C. N. Holwill: In charge of General Office.

Assistants: A. J. de S. Basto, A. J. Commijs, A. H. H. Abel, P. G. S. Barentzen, Y. Kurematsu, S. Ishida, K. Yufu, P. L. O. Hill, E. N. Ensor, S. Nishigori, H. W. Hosking, A. Feragen, H. C. Morgan, E. J. Ohrnberger, L. N. Mackinnon, G. Yoshida.

Chinese Assistants: Lau Hon Chi. Nga Ung Ping, Chung Kwok Chun,

Wong Yun Za, Wong Ching Yuen, Nga Ung Ming, Tsu Yun Wang, Leung Shih Nam, Huang Lang Chuen, Woo Chien Son, Chen Chi Ting, Ling Boo Ying, Ching Wen Ping, Wang Tse Lan, Li Kway Yoong, K. F. Fung, Wu Chin Chih, Cheong Tak Chün, Ho Hing Cheu, Chang Pai Leb, Liu Zeng Fah, Chiu Tso Chi. Ciwang Tseh Tsong, Pan Shiao Yü, Li Tung Wha, Yao Tchi. Weng Shih Sze. Acting Chief Tidesurveyor: C. B. V. Golding.

MARINE DEPARTMENT:

Coast Inspector: T. J. Eldridge.

Deputy Coast Inspector: H. E. Hillman.

HARBOUR DEPARTMENT:

Harbour Master: H. G. Myhre.

Acting Assistant Harbour Master: J. A. Samples

WORKS DEPARTMENT:

Engineer-in-Chief: L. T. Stodart.

Engineer: J. Oswald.

Assistant Engineer: J. T. Scarlett. Architect: L. W. C. Lorden (on leave).

Assistant Architects: G. H. A. Perriam, W. R. Davison, W. J. Leahy.

SOOCHOW:

Commissioner: J. H. Macoun Assistant: M. F. Hubert. Chinese Assistant: H. Wong. Tidesurveyor: J. R. Heard.

HANGCHOW:

Commissioner: W. MacDonald

Acting Deputy Commissioner: N. H. Schregardus (at Kashing). Chinese Assistants: Ho Chee Fai, Hsia Ting Yao, Yang Chen Fong.

NINGPO :

Commissioner: F. W. Carey.

Assistants: R. Watanabe, E. Bernadsky. Chinese Assistants: Chen Tze Heng, Chü Kam Po. Acting Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: S. Otani

Wenchow:

Commissioner: E. Alabaster. Assistant: K. Hirano.

Chinese Assistant: Wong Haiu Geng.

Acting Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: H. J. Christophersen.

SANTUAO:

Acting Commissioner: J. E. Hartshorn.

Chinese Assistant: Leung Im.

FOOCHOW:

Commissioner: P. R. Walsham.

Acting Deputy Commissioner in charge of Native Customs: F. H. Maas

Assistants: T. Jissoji, K. Ashdowne.

Chinese Assistants: Lu Shou Wen, Lu Ping, Ling Gun Ong, Chan Leung Sing, Lu Yueh Po.

Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: J. Power.

Commissioner: A. H. Harris.

Deputy Commissioner: F. R. C. Surplice.
Assistants: Y. Hara, W. J. H. Courtis.
Chinese Assistants: Tan Woon Chai, Lim Chin-chick. Acting Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: W. A. Skuse.

Acting Inspector of Lights: C. S. F. Lloyd.

SWATOW:

Commissioner: C. E. S. Wakefield.

Acting Deputy Commissioner in charge of Native Customs: R. M. Talbot.

Assistants: E. Miyamura, V. Muling. Chinese Assistants: Yang Ming Hsin, Liang Chun Yen. Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: C. S. C. Davies.

CANTON:

Commissioner: A Wilson

Acting Deputy Commissioner: R. T. Nelson.

Acting Deputy Commissioner in charge of Native Customs:

Morimoto.

Assistants: A. N. Chesshire, I. Ando, A. L. Newman, J. H. L. Turner Chinese Assistants: Hü Ping-fai, Tai T'in Chak, Chung Sam, Wang Hin-wa, Chan Shiu-ping, Fan Sik-tsun, Chen Yü-kuan.

Acting Chief Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: F. Huber.

KOWLOON:

Commissioner: W. G. Lay.

Acting Deputy Commissioner: C. B. W. Moore.

Chinese Assistants: Chiu Ho-ping, Wong Iu-on, Ng Shiu-hung.

Acting Commissioner: F. H. Bell.

Assistants: H. G. Lowder, H. J. de Garcia.

Chinese Assistants: Cheung Yuk-tong, Leung Cum-chiu.

Tidesurveyer: O. H. Schmitto.

KONGMOON:

Acting Commissioner: H. D. Hilliard, Assistant: A. C. H. Lay.

Chinese Assistants: Huo Ch'ih Ch'ien, Cheung Iu Shang, Li Fuk Tong. Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: T. H. Smith.

Acting Commissioner: P. P. P. M. Kremer.

Assistant: C. M. Powell.

Acting Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: H. M. Andersson

WUCHOW:

Commissioner: C. Thorne

Assistants: N. I. Sopp, A. Gherady.

Chinese Assistants: Hsieh Yu Chun, Leung Shi Wai.

Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: C. H. Hardy

NANNING:

Acting Commissioner: C. F. Johnston.

Chinese Assistant: Woo Kuang Chun.

KIUNGCHOW:

Acting Commissioner: T. A. M. Castle.

Assistant: T. C. Germain.

Chinese Assistant: Han King Son.

Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: A. K. Tellefsen.

Acting Commissioner: H. L. Russell..

Chinese Assistant: Chan Ki.

Acting Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master: H. Tjomsland.

LUNGCHOW:

Acting Commissioner: M. Cupelli.

Acting Commissioner: A. G. Bethell.

Assistants: G. Bocher, E. A. Pritchard, J. P. Laucournet, J. F. A. Masure.

Chinese Assistants: Chen Shao, Li Ting Yuan.

SZEMAO:

Assistant-in charge: A. Casati.

TENGYUEH :

Acting Commissioner: H G Fletcher

Assistant: E. G. Smith.

THE SALT REVENUE ADMINISTRATION.

THE FOREIGN STAFF, 1921.

CHIEF INSPECTORATE.

Associate Chief Inspector. (on leave) Sir Reginald A. Gamble, Kt. W. R. Strickland C. H. Lauru P. Loureiro Officiating Associate Chief Inspector Financial Secretary Assistant Financial Secretary A. de B. Giolma J. M. Barnard Assistant English Secretary F. A. Robinson (on leave) P. E. Vaes Assistant Secretary A. Fulconis Assistant C. G. G. Pearson W. M. Palmer Travelling Inspector

J. Parsons Launch Inspector (Hongkong) A. R. Luckie District Inspector temporarily attached to Chief Inspectorate

District Inspector on special duty Assistant District Inspector. (on leave) R. M. C. Ruxton A. Waignein

FENGTIEN DISTRICT. T. Koizumi Acting District Inspector A. C. Tweedie Assistant District Inspector at Newchwang.

CHANGLU DISTRICT. Nagamasa Tei District Inspector A. C. R. Portway Assistant District Inspector at Shihpei N. A Andersen Assistant District Inspector at Tangku

SHANTUNG DISTRICT. A. Bilger District Inspector K. Katou Assistant District Inspector at Tung

An HOTUNG DISTRICT.

District Inspector (vacant) LIANGCHEH DISTRICT.

K. Tanabe District Inspector A. Bookless Assistant District Inspector at Ningpo (on leave)

Assistant District Inspector at Ningpo E. Parisse FUKIEN DISTRICT.

T. I. Diedrichsen District Inspector O. K. Berg W. T. Timbrell Assistant District Inspector at Amoy Preventive Officer and Assistant District Inspector

KWANGTUNG DISTRICT. District Inspector Assistant District Inspector at Swatow

Assistant District Inspector at Pingnankuei

YUNNAN DISTRICT. District Inspector Assistant District Inspector at Tali Assistant District Inspector at Moheiching

HUMIPEL DISTRICT. Acting District Inspector Assistant District Inspector at Ching

J. J. M. Beauvais A. Archangelsky (vacant)

A. de Broc A. Padovani W. N. Fergusson

A. C. B. By Umeo Tei

YANGCHOW DISTRICT. T. Takasu District Inspector Boris Reiss Assistant District Inspector at Taichow SUNGKIANG DISTRICT. R. L. P. Baude District Inspector Assistant District Inspector at Yeh F. Funatsu Hsieh J. C. E. Rye Preventive Officer and Assistant District Inspector CHUANPEI DISTRICT. M. Guseo District Inspector (on leave) E. B. Vardon Assistant District Inspector at Shepeng CHUANNAN DISTRICT. District Inspector Assistant District Inspector at Wu-G. Baldwin A. G. Clements tungchiao A. S. Baskett Auditor on Special Duty at Chungking HANKOW AUDITORATE. E. M. Gale Auditor CHANGCHUN AUDITORATE. E. G. Byers Assistant District Inspector CHANGSHA AUDITORATE. R. D. Wolcott Acting Auditor TATUNG AUDITORATE. L. H. Drakeford Acting Auditor NANCHANG AUDITORATE. Charles Lee Auditor HUATING COLLECTORATE. R. Geerts Collector DOLONOR COLLECTORATE.

A. F. Evans

C. Gimbel

W. Kelly

Chief Inspectors' Deputy

Collector

ICHANG A. D. I. OFFICE.

CHINPEI COLLECTORATE.

Assistant District Inspector

STAFF OF THE POSTAL ADMINISTRATION.

Directorate General of Posts.

DIRECTOR GENERAL.

H. E. Hsü Shih Chang, Vice Minister of Communications.

CO-DIRECTOR GENERAL.

Mons H. Picard-Destelan, Officier de la Legion d'Honneur.

DEPUTY DIRECTOR GENERAL.

W. W. Homer Wong

CHIEF SECRETARY.

J. M. C. Rousse

GENERAL CORRESPONDENCE DEPARTMENT.

J. M. C. Rousse, Secretary, Commissioner.

T. S. Kingham, Assistant Secretary, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

PRIVATE SECRETARIAT.

E. Caretti, Private Secretary, Commissioner.

H. A. Reeks, Assistant Private Secretary, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

CHINESE DEPARTMENT

L. C. Arlington, Chinese Secretary, Acting Commissioner.

Wên Hsün, Deputy Commissioner.

AUDIT DEPARTMENT.

G. E. Osland-Hill, Audit Secretary, Commissioner

A. Evde, Service Accountant, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

F. G. I. Kendall, Assistant Audit Secretary, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

Chu Chang Sing, Deputy Commissioner.

G. E. Baker, Superintendent of Stamps, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

An Yün Nung, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

DOMESTIC DEVELOPMENT DEPARTMENT.

H. D. Summers, Secretary, Commissioner.

T. H. Gwynne, Assistant Secretary, Deputy Commissioner.

UNION DEPARTMENT.

F. Merrien, Union Secretary, Acting Commissioner.

POSTAL SUPPLY DEPARTMENT.

V. Chieri, Secretary, Acting Commissioner.

Ho Joo Yum, Deputy Commissioner.

A M. Chapelain, Assistant Secretary, Acting Deputy Commissioner
PROVINCIAL.

CHIHLI DISTRICT.

F. B. Tolliday, Commissioner.

Teng Wei-p'ing, Deputy Commissioner.

E. Cammiade, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

PEKING DISTRICT.

L. D. Henry, Commissioner.

P. J. Keating, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

SOUTH MANCHURIA DISTRICT.

D. McLorn, Commissioner.

E. Rose, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

Sun Tzu-hsi, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

NORTH MANCHURIA DISTRICT.

W. W. Ritchie, Commissioner.

E. Nordstrom, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

SHANTUNG DISTRICT.

N. J. Blix, Commissioner.

Dzing Hsien Sung, Deputy Commissioner.

H. S. Kierkegaard, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

SHANSI DISTRICT.

J. Ross, Acting Commissioner.

HONAN DISTRICT.

W. A. Stursberg, Commissioner.

SHENSI DISTRICT

E.F.S. Newman, Acting Commissioner.

KANSU DISTRICT.

Chan Bût To, Commissioner.

SINKIANG DISTRICT.

F. Guaita, Acting Commissioner.

HUPEH DISTRICT.

O. H. Hulme, Commissioner. J. C. Parkin, Deputy Commissioner.

Ma Wen-chih, Acting Deputy Commissioner

SZECHUAN DISTRICT.

V. Smith, Acting Commissioner.

E. A. Cavalière, Acting Deputy Commissioner. Hu Chen-hao, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

HUNAN DISTRICT.

O. Mellows, Acting Commissioner. Cheung Man-ling, Deputy Commissioner.

KIANGSU DISTRICT.

E. Tollefsen, Commissioner.

V. W. Stapleton-Cotton, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

Sia Oi Ling, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

SHANGHAI DISTRICT.

C. H. Shields, Commissioner.

F. L. Smith, Deputy Commissioner. Woo Yih Ching, Deputy Commissioner.

KIANGSI DISTRICT.

J. L. McDowall, Commissioner.

ANHUI DISTRICT.

P. Petersen, Acting Commissioner.

CHEKIANG DISTRICT.

D. Mullen, Acting Commissioner.

Huang Nai-shu, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

KWANGTUNG DISTRICT.

G. Tudhope, Acting Commissioner.

Kwok Shiu-chun, Deputy Commissioner.

A. Bottu, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

FUKIEN DISTRICT.

J. A. Greenfield, Commissioner.

Li Yung Fuk, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

YUNNAN DISTRICT.

P. Filippini, Acting Commissioner.

KWEICHOW DISTRICT.

Liu Snu-tan, Commissioner.

XWANGSI DISTRICT.

T. N. Manners, Acting Commissioner.

Loo Yuk Shuen, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

SAVINGS BANK DEPARTMENT.

E. D. de Sigalas, Secretary, Commissioner.

Tong Hon-sing, Assistant Secretary, Acting Deputy Commissioner.

DIRECTORATE UNATTACHED LIST (On Jeave).

A. H. Hyland, Commissioner.

J. Stirling, Commissioner.

N. B. Doodha, Commissioner.

H. V. Pouliain, Commissioner.

F. Polletti, Commissioner.

H. S. Parnell, Commissioner.

F A. Nixon, Commissioner.

A. Ortolani, Deputy Commissioner.

C.M.R.A. de' Jaurias, Deputy Commissioner,

CHAPTER XXXI.

WHO'S WHO.

- AMUERHLINGKUEI (阿穆爾曼圭).—Mongol. Prince of First Order, December, 1891. Great-grandson of Prince Seng-ko-lin-ch'in. Lieutenant-General of Bordered White Chinese Banner, January, 1910. Superintendent of Peking Octroi. February, 1912. Member for Mongolia of the National Council until 1920.
- BIEN, Z. S., see Pien Shou Sun.
- CHANG CHEN-FANG (張鏡芳).—Honan. A cousin of ex-President Yuan Shih-kai. Tientsin Taotai, December, 1907. Salt Commissioner at Tientsin, February, 1918. Seconded to assist Ministry of Finance in connection with the Patrictic Loan, January, 1920. Was appointed Acting Tutuh of Chihli in February, 1912, where he was denounced by the gentry. Acting Tutuh of Honan, March, 1912. Subs. do., October 28, 1912. Director-General of the Coal Mining Co. of Liuhokou, Honan. Appointed to the Council of Regency on the abortive restoration of the Mancha dynasty, July 1917.
- CHANG CHENG-HSUN.—Member of Tsanchengyuan. Organiser of motor-bus service in Peking.
- CHANG CHI-HSU (民繼点).—Hupeh. Born 1877. Studied in Hupeh Literary School and graduated from a college in Japan in pedagogics. Departmental Chief, Ministry of Education, since 1917. Author and translator of various books on History of Education of China, of Europe, etc. Third class Chiaho decoration.
- CHANG CH'I-KUANG, (民程光).—Honan. Born Aug. 23, 1863. Sccretary, Ministry of Communications since April 29, 1918. In the Manchu regime, was member of Board of Education. After formation of the Republic, has been Superintendent of Customs, Changsha and Taoyin in Kwangsi Second class Chiaho decoration.
- CHANG CHIEN (張謇).—Kiangsu. A noted Hanlin scholar (Optimus), who declined to take office (except that of Adviser to the Board of Commerce, 1904) in order to devote his energies to the fostering of industry and commerce. Appointed "Pacificator" in Kiangsu, November, 1911. He was offered, but refused, the post of Minister of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry in Yuan Shih-kai's November (1911) Cabinet. He is also reported to have been offered, and to have refused, the Premiership, after l'ang Shao-yi's resignation. During 1911 he was engaged upon schemes for the promotion of commerce in Manchuria, and the formation of Sino-American commercial enterprises. Director-General Huaiho Conservancy, March 13, 1913. Minister of Industry and Commerce and temporary Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, September 11, 1913. Director-General of the National Conservancy Bureau, 1915. Member of the Tsanchengyuan. 1915. "Friend of Sungshan" (see Hsu Shih-ch'ang). Now devotes himself to commercial enterprises at Nantungchow, his native place.
- Снанс Снін (張志).—Szechuan. President, High Court of Justice, Ankui.
- CHANG CHIH-HSIANG.—Szechuan. A graduate of a Law College in Tokio.

 A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Joined Tungmenghui, 1906. Attempt-

- ed to raise revolution in Chengtu, but was arrested when the attempt failed, 1908; and when the independence of Szechuan was declared he was released and appointed as delegate for the amalgamation of the War Offices of Chengtu and Chungking, and then Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs, Szechuan. Resigned 1913, when elected as member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- CHANG CHIH-TAN. 误志语).—Chihli. Was a Chujen and a member of the Board of Army in the late Ching dynasty. Was successively Tao-yin of Sui Yuan, Vice-Minister of Interior; Chief Secretary of the Cabinet; Vice-Minister of War; Superintendent of Peking Municipal Bureau. In the Chin Cabinet of 1920, Chang was Minister of Interior. Was Superintendent of National Famine Relief Bureau, 1920-21. Transferred to the Ministry of Communications, May 1921.
- CHANG CHING-HUI. (張景惠).—Fengtien. Born 1872. Studied in the Chiang Wu Military School. Major-General in the Army. Commanding General of the First Division of Fengtien Army. Tutung of Charhar, 1920.
- CHANG CHING-YAO (張敬堯).—General. Tuchun of Hunan, 1917. Driven inte exile in 1920.
- Chang Ch'un Nien. (張椿年).—Hupeh. Born 1861. Studied in the Police Training School of Kiangsi. Vice-Chairman, Wuchang General Chamber of Commerce. Sixth class Chiaho decoration.
- CHANG EN-SHOU.—Chihli Born 1880. A Graduate of a University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan Member of various committees in Chinputang. At the end of Ching Dynasty he was a clerk in the Yuchuanpu. During the Revolution he organized the Pao An Hui in Tientsin. In August, 1912, he was appointed Director of the Law School, Tientsin, and under his management until January, 1913, there was an increase of students from 400 to 1200. Translated several Japanese books into Chinese.
- CHANG FENG-TAI, (張鳳臺).—Head of Finance Department, Honan, January 19, 1913. Civil Governor for Honan, July 5, 1913. Again 1920.
- CHANG FU-YUAN.—Chekiang. Born 1878. Graduate of Japanese University.

 After returning from Japan he was teacher to several Law Schools in

 Chekiang. During Revolution he was made Chief of the Civil Department and Acting Chief of the Department of Justice, 1912. A member of the Tsan Yi Yuan. Editor of certain periodicals and a lawyer.

 Chinputang.
- CHANG, H. W., see Chang Hsin Wu.
- CHANG HSI-LUAN, (民民).—Henan. Formerly Taotai at Mukden. Acting Commissioner of Finance, Mukden, August, 1907. Substantive Commissioner of Finance, January, 1908. Governor of Shansi, November, 1911. From March to August, 1912, was Tutuh of Chihli. In August was appointed Commissioner for the Pacification of Western Forntier of Manchuria. Appointed Acting Tutuh of Fengtien, November 3, on the resignation of Chao Erh-hsün Substantive ditto, November 16, 1912. Additional Acting Tutuh of Kirin, June 13, 1913. Chiangchun of Hupeh, 1915. Field-Marshal, December, 1915.
- CHANG HSIN-WU, (H. W. Chang), (張新吾).—Kiangsu. Born Dec. 14, 1879. Graduated from the Peiyang University, Tientsin. Councillor, Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce. Acting Vice-Minister in 1912 and 1914 Second class Tashou Chiaho decoration.

- CHANG HSIU-SHENG, (張秀升).—Shansi. Born 1880. Studied in the Normal School Department of the Imperial Peking University. Was once Dear of Faculty, Imperial Shansi University. Principal, First Provincial Normal School of Shansi in 1912, Vice-Chairman, Shansi Provincial Educational Association since 1912. Fifth class Chiaho decoration.
- CHANG HSUEH-LIANG, (張學良).—Fengtien. Studied in the Chiang Wu T'ang of Eastern Three Provinces. Adviser to Tuchun of Kirin, Oct. 1919. Officer, President's Body Guard, May, 1920. Brigade-Gen eral. Third class Wenhu decoration.
- CHANG HSUN, (混動).—Kiangsi. An old-type military officer. Brigade-General, Ningyuanta, Szechuan, 1904. Commander-in-Chief, Yuman, February, 1908, but did not proceed. Commander-in-Chief, Kansu, September, 1908. Commander-in-Chief of the Kiangpan forces, 1911, with headquarters at Nanking, and permission to wear the Yellow Jacket. Was in command at Nanking when that city was attacked by the revolutionary forces, and effected a masterly retreat to the northern bank of the river, although he had no warships at his disposal. Thereafter he commandeered practically all the available rolling stock of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway, using it as a portable camp for his forces. Though barbarously severe, he won universal admiration by the manner in which he preserved discipline among his forces, and peace and order in the neighbourhood in which he encamped. He was made Viceroy of the Liang-Kiang provinces as an inducement to reconquer them for the Imperial family. He continued to occupy important points upon the Tientsin Pukow Railway for months after the abdication of the Manchus, although offered commands in Tibet and elsewhere. Full General, July 17, 1913. Pacificator of Kiangsu, July 19, 1913. Recaptured Nanking, September 1. Appointed Tutuh of Kiangsu. Owing to the outrages of his troops had to apologize to Japanese Consul at Nanking. Succeeded by Feng Kuo-chang. Appointed Field Marshal and High Inspector of the Yangtze provinces, 1915. Summoned by President Li Yuan-hung to Peking in June. 1917, he insisted on the dissolution of Parliament, and subsequently proclaimed the restoration of the Manchu dynasty. His troops were immediately overwhelmed. Chang Hsun took refuge in the Dutch Legation (July 12), where he remained until he was pardoned by President Hsu Shih-chang, Oct. 23, 1918. Appointed Commissioner of Forestry and Agriculture for Jehol. 1921.
- CHANG HU, (JEM).—Salt Commissioner, Changlu (Chihli). May. 1912. Salt Commissioner, Liang Huai, November 14, 1912. Vice-Minister of Finance, September 14, 1913,. Chief of Central Salt Administration. Dismissed June 21, 1915. Reappointed Vice-Minister of Finance and Chief of Central Salt Administration, in 1920
- CHANG HUAI-CHIH, (張懷芝).—Shantung. Was a petty military officer in his own province during the last dynasty. Since the Republic, Chang has been successively Defence Commissioner of Tientsin and of Paotingfu, Tartar General of Charhar. Holds the title of Chi Wu Chiang Chun, Tuchun of Shantung. Chief of General Staff, at present time.
- CHANG HUNG CH'UAN.—Hunan. Born 1878. A Graduate of the Normal School of Hunan and studied in a Normal School in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. After graduating in Hunan Normal School was appointed by Mr. Hsiung Hsi-ling to manage educational affairs in the west of Hunan. After returning from Japan was appointed by the Viceroy Chao of Fengtien to become sectional chief of the Agriculture Experiment Department in Fengtien, and then was sent to investigate the agricultural and other conditions of the three pro-

- vinces A member of the Committee of Chinputang. Author of the Result of the Investigation of the Cultivation of the Three Eastern Provinces.
- CHANG I-ou.—Kiangsu. Born 1880. A Graduate of a University in Japan and a University in Belgium. Was once Chief of the Department of Mineralogy of the Ministry of Industry and Commerce.
- CHANG I-PENG, (張一鵬).—Kiangsu. Vice-Minister of Justice. May, 1918.
 Again Aug. 1926. Resigned February, 1921.
- CH'ANG JU-CHING.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Tarbagatai, April 25th, 1913.
- CHANG JUI-CHI, (張端璞).—Shansi. Born 1871. A Chinshih of the late Dynasty, and was an official in Shensi. In the time of the Revolution was appointed Councillor to the Shensi Army and Chief Adviser of Civil Affairs. Returned to Shansi, spring of 1912, when he was made Chief of Finance Department. In January, 1913, was appointed Chief Civil Administrator, but refused to accept the post. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Author of The Poetry and other Literary Work of Loheng. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Chang Ziang-ling, (張祥蔵).—Shanghai, Age 31, Educated at St. John's University, Shanghai, and Columbia University, New York. Secretary of the Cabinet Office since 1917. Has been Acting Director of the Translation Bureau of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Associate Councillor of the Ministry of Interior, Associate Secretary of the Ministry of Communications, Secretary of the Bureau for the Custody of Enemy Property, Attache to the Chinese Legation in Washington, D.C., Assistant Editor of the Peking Daily Nws, Member of the American Society of International law, etc. Awarded Third class Chiaho Decoration in January 1920.
- CHANG KUANG-CHIEN, (張廣建).—Acting Provincial Treasurer, Shantung, November, 1911. Acting Governor, January, 1912. Summoned to Peking, March, 1912. Governor of Shuntienfu, December 24, 1912. Frontier Commissioner, Shensi and Kansu. September 19, 1913. Was once Acting Tuchun and Civil Governor of Kansu.
- CHANG KUO-KAN, (張國淦).—Hupeh. Assistant in the Bureau of Estimates. Cabinet, June, 1911. Retired January, 1912. Head of Civil Service Department of Cabinet, May, 1912. Secretary to Cabinet, October 6, 1912. Was Minister of Commerce, July, 1917.
- CHANG LIEN.—Deputy Lieutenant-General, Ninghsia, June, 1911. Tartar General Ninghsia, July 29, 1912.
- CHANG LIEN-KUEI.—Shansi. Born 1880. A Graduate of the University at Tokio. Chujen of the late Dynasty. In the first year of Republic was a Director of the High Agriculture and Forestry College in Shansi, then a member of the Provisional National Council, and a member of the Is'an Yi Yuan. Chengyuhui.
- CHANG LU-CH'UAN.—Shantung. Born 1880. Graduate of a High School in Shantung and the Agricultural School in Paoting. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Has been engaged in an enterprise in the colonization and cultivation of Fengtien Province. After having graduated he was engaged in an investigation into agricultural conditions of several places. During the Revolution he led an army and captured Kaomi and Chucheng, and when the Manchu abdication took place he came to Tsinan and organized the Provisional Provincial Assembly. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

- CHANG MIN-CHEN.—Compiler, Commission for Codification of Laws. July 26, 1912. Councillor, Department of Legislation. Cabinet, August 31, 1912. Deputy for Organization of National Assembly, September 10, 1912.
- CHANG MING-CHI, (張原岐).—Shantung. Acting Financial Commissioner, Kwangsi, July, 1905. Acting Governor, December, 1906. Governor of Kwangsi, June, 1907. Acting Viceroy of Liangkiang provinces, October, 1910, and substantive Viceroy, April, 1911, until the Revolution. Chief Civil Administrator, Kwangsi, October 24, 1913. Civil Governor of Kwangtung, 1914. Was Governor of Kwangsi, 1915. Retired.
- CHANG PEI-CHIEH.—Civil Administrator of Szechuan, July. 1912, to September 24, 1913.
- CHANG PING-LIN, (章炳麟).—Chekiang Born 1867. Noted for his literary accomplishment and his intense interest in Politics. When the Nanking Republican Government was established, Chang was asked to be High Adviser to the Cabinet. Leader of the Tungyi party. Appointed Political adviser to the Government in Peking.
- CHANG PO-LIEH.—Hupeh. Studied law in Japan. A strenuous opponent of the nationalisation of the railways by the Manchu Government. A Hupeh member of the House of Representatives.
- CHANG PO-LING. (張伯苓).— Chihli. Born April 5. 1876. Studied in the Naval College, Tientsin. Later attended Teachers' College, Columbia University, (U. S. A.) President, Nankai College and President of the Tientsin Y.M.C.A.
- CHANG SHAO-PAL.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Sinking, April 25, 1913.
- Chang Shao-tseng, (長紹會)—Councillor to President, April 19. 1912. Military Governor of Suiyuancheng, October 12, 1912. Deputy Military Commissioner and Assistant-Resident at Kiackta, 1915.
- CHANG SHI-YU.—Secretary of the General Department at the Headquarters of the Generalissimo of the Army and Navy, 1915.
- CHANG SHOU-LING, (民壽齡).—Kiangsu. Chinshih. Studied in Japan. Served in financial affairs in Shantung and Chihli and had been Magistrate of Tientsin and other places in Chihli during the late Ching Dynasty. Held several positions in Manchuria under Viceroy Chao. Chief Secretary to Tutuh of Kiangsu and concurrently Chief of the Revenue Buréau of Kiangsu. Vice-Minister of Finance. February. 1914. Adviser to the late President Feng Kuo-chang. Appointed Director-General, National Wine and Tobacco Administration, which post he holds to date.
- CHANG SHAO-PO, (張紹伯).—Fengtien. Born 1869. Studied in the College of Russian Language. Appointed Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for Sinkiang since April 25, 1913. Second class Chiaho decoration.
- CHANG SHU-YUAN. (張樹元).—Shantung. Born 1878. Graduated from a Military Officers Training School in Japan. Commander of the 5th Army Division. Tuchun of Shantung, and concurrently acting Civil Governor. Participated in the Anfu and Chihli political struggle. Cashiered all the ranks, decorations. Now in exile.
- CHANG TA-YI.—Yunnan. Born 1883. Graduate of a Law School in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was editor of Yunnan Charchih, and Yunnan Colloquial Newspaper. A member of the Committee of Tung Meng Hui. He was one of those who captured Shanghai. He organized a regiment to attack Nanking. Chief Secretary of the Ministry of the Interior in the Nanking Government. After the removal

- of the Republican capital from Nanking to Peking he was made investigator of the Bureau of Merits, for the Yunnan section. Was appointed Chief of the High Court of Yunnan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- CHANG TIEN-YAO, (張典美).—Shensi. Born 1881. President, Si-an Y.M.C.A. since March, 1918.
- CHANG TSO-HAN, (張佐漢).—Chihli. Born Nov. 19, 1876. Studied and graduated from the Normal Department of a university in Japan. Chujen. Chairman, Chihli Provincial Educational Association, since July, 1919. Author of Psychology, Ethics, etc. Formerly of Kuomintang. Second class Chiaho decoration.
- CHANG TSO-HSIANG, (張作相).—Fengtien. Has been Brigadier General of the 54th Brigade of the 27th. Army Division. Now Commanding General of the 27th. Concurrently Chief of Staff of the Inspecting-General of Manchuria.
- CHANG TSO-LIN, (民作家).—Mukden. General Chang is under fifty years of age. He received no education in his youth. Fought on the side of Japan, during the Russo-Japanese War. After the war, General Chang surrendered to the Chinese Government at request of Japan. He and his Hunghutze were taken into the Chinese Government service and received quick promotion on account of their bravery. Appointed Military Governor of Fengtien in 1911 which position he is still holding. He first commanded the 27th Army Division and now has under his control over 100,000 men scattered all over the country. Some of them are "occupying" Hunan. He served ex-President Yuan faithfully until the collapse of the latter's monarchical movement in 1916. When General Chang Hsun made his coup d'etat in 1917, he assisted General Tuan Chi-jui in restoring the Republic. Was appointed Inspecting-General of the Three Eastern Previnces in 1918. Jointly with General Tsao Kun, led an expeditionary force to disband the Anfu political club in the summer of 1920. Attended the "Super-Tuchuns' Conference" at Tientsin in May 1921.
- CHANG TSU-YIN, (張祖蔭).—Yunnan. Born 1891. Graduated from Agriculture College, Peking. President, Yunnan Provincial Educational Association since July, 1920.
- CHANG TSUNG-HSIANG, (章宗祥).—Chekiang. Graduate of a Law College in Japan, Superintendent of Police at Peking, 1908-10. Deputy Commissioner of Constitutional Department of the Cabinet, June, 1911. Retired, January, 1912. Chief of Law Department of Cabinet, April, 1912. Chief Justice of Supreme Court, June, 1912, and President of the Commission for the Codification of Laws. Was Minister in Tokio, 1916-1919.
- CHANG TSUNG-YUAN, (章宗元).—Chekiang. Graduated in Commerce from University of California, U.S.A. Acting Vice-Minister of Finance, June, 1912. Vice-Minister, August, 1912. Financial Commissioner Abroad, November 6, 1912. For sometime President, Tangshan Engineering College.
- CHANG WEN-SHENG, (張文生).—Kiangsu. Lt. General in the Army. Has been in military service in Kiangsu since the Ching regime. Was Defence Commissioner of Suchow and Haichow, Ku., before he was appointed Tuchun of Anhui to succeed Ni Shih Chung, 1920.
- CHANG YAO-CHENG, (張耀曾).—Yunnan. Born 1884. Graduate of a University in Japan. When the Nanking Government was organized be

- was the representative of Yunnan. Was a member of both the Advisory Council of Nanking and Provisional Council in Peking. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan and the Constitutional Drafting Committee. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913. Minister of Justice, 1916.
- CHANG YI-CHU.—Hunan. Born 1885. Studied in France. Appointed by the Nanking Government Representative to France, and resigned third month of the same year. In the sixth month he was appointed Commissioner of Foreign Affairs of Yunnan, and was appointed in the fourth month of the second year special Delegate for Foreign Affairs. Supervisor of the Tengyueh Customs, 1915.
- CHANG YI-LIN, (張一慶).—Kiangsu. Hanlin. Was Secretary to ex-President Yuan and once Minister of Education. Adviser to President Hsu since 1918.
- CHANG YIN-TANG, (張蔭棠).—Kwangtung. Accompanied Mr. Tang Shaoyi to Calcutta, 1904. Special Commissioner to investigate Tibetan affairs, 1905. Assistant Resident, Tibet, December, 1906. Negotiated Trade Regulations, 1907-8. Senior Councilor, Waiwupu, January, 1909. Chinese Minister at Washington, August, 1909. Retired.
- CHANG YING-CHU, (張映竹).—Shantung. Born Oct. 1, 1875. Educated in Japan. Presiding Judge, Kirin Higher Procurator's Court. Second class Chiaho decoration.
- CHANG YING-HUA. (張英華).—Chihli. Born 1888. Studied in Manchester. England. Salt Commissioner for Szechuan since Jan. 1919. Fourth class Chiaho decoration.
- CHANG YU-CHUAN, (民姓全).—Kwangtung. Graduated from Pei Yang University, Tientsin, and Studied in Japan, America and Germany. Secretary, Waichiaopu, August 16, 1912. Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Kiangsu, June 26, 1913. Acting Superintendent of Customs, Wuhu, October 13, 1913; also Delegate for Foreign Affairs for Anhui.
- CHANG YU-CHUN. -Military Adviser to the President, April, 1912.
- CHANG YU-HAI, (張育海).—Kiangsi. Born 1889. Bachelor of Law. Graduated from Department of Political Science, Imperial University of Tokio, Japan. Departmental Chief, Ministry of Finance, Military Government, April, 10, 1920.
- CHANG YU-KENG.—Shantung. Borr. 1870. Graduate of a Japanese Normal School. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was several years a teacher to various schools. Chinputang.
- CHANG YU-TUNG.—Kweichow. Born 1881. A Graduate of a Japanese University. A Councillor of the Ministry of Interior, and one of the delegates for the Preparation of the National Assembly. Was a member of the Tung Meng Hui. Author of The Principle of the Constitution.
- CHANG YUAN-CH'I, (現民元奇).—Fukien. Born 1860. Chin-shih 1886. Hochow Prefect and Vice-Minister of Education in Ching Dynasty. Vice-Minister of Interior, 1912. Civil Governor for Fukien, 1913. Head Civil Service Bureau, 1914. Later became Civil Governor for Fengtien. Censor, 1916. Member of Parliament, 1919. Chief, Financial Investigation Commission, 1920. Author of Poetical Works. First class Chiaho decoration
- CHANG YUAN-SHAN, (Yuan Shan Djang), (章元善).—Kiangsu. Born October, 1892. Prepared at Kiangnan Provincial College. Nanking. and

- Tsinghua College, Peking. Graduated in 1915 from Cornell University, U.S.A. B.A. Chemist to the Peiyang Sanitary Department since September 1915. For three years was also chemist of the Chihli Provincial Industrial Laboratory. Was lecturer in Sanitary Chemistry, Government University, Peking and teacher in the Chihli First Midle School. Appointed General Secretary, Anti-Narcotic Society winter, 1918. Served as General Secretary of the North China International Society of Famine Relief since its formation in September, 1920.
- CHAO CH'ING.—Yunnan. Born 1871 A Graduate of Law School in Yunnan. Was a teacher of both Normal School and Middle School in Yunnan. Established more than forty primary schools in Yunnan. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1915.
- CHAO CHING-HUA, (趙慶華).—Chekiang. Born 1872. Graduated from the Diocesan School. (Hongkong), and Telegraph College, Canton. Adviser to the President. Managing-Director, Canton Kowloon Railway, 1911-13; Tientsin-Pukow Railway, 1913-16; Shanghai-Nanking Railway and Shanghai-Ningpo-Hangchow Railway since 1916. Third class Wenhu and Chiaho decorations.
- Chao Ch'un-nien, (前棒年).—Kiangsu. Born 1867. Chingsu of the late Dynasty. Vice-Minister of Finance, October, 1912, and Vice-Director of Shui Wu Chu, April, 1913. After obtaining the degree of Chin-shih, he was appointed magistrate of Kiangsi, where he held several responsible posts, and was ordered to Peking by special edict to fill several important posts as director of various Bureaux. Was a member of the late Tsuchengyuan, and Councillor of both the Ministries of Industry and Commerce and Finance. Kuomintang. Retired, October 13, 1913. Accountant of Bank of China, 1915. Appointed Joint Investigator of the Likin System. Supervisor of the Collection of Taxes in Peking, Dec., 1916. Vice-Director, Audit Bureau.
- CHAO CHUN-TING, (趙春霆).—Hunan. Commissioner of Pacification, Kweichow, July 29, 1912. Military Governor of South Hunan, 1917.
- CHAO CHUNG-CH'I. (進益書).—Yunnan. Born 1879. Graduated from Engineering Department, Army Officers' Training School, Japan. Brigadier-General in the Army. Chief of Staff to the Tuchun of Yunnan, 1914. Joined the Military Government and appointed Chief of Staff to the Tuchun of Szechuan, 1917. Taoyin of Yung Ning, Szechuan since 1918. Third Order of Merit, Second class Wenhu Decoration.
- Chao Erithsun, (上海里).—Chinese Bannerman. Prefect of Kweiyang, 1893. Judicial Commissioner of Anhui, April, 1895, and of Shansi, July, 1893. Financial Commissioner, New Dominion, November, 1898, and of Shansi, 1902. Governor, Hunan, January, 1903. Acting President of Board of Revenue, August, 1904. Tartar General, Mukden, May, 1905. Viceroy, Szechuan, May, 1907, but did not proceed. Viceroy, Hu-Kuang, September, 1907. Viceroy, Szechuan, March, 1908, where he remained until recalled to take up the post of Viceroy of Manchuria in April, 1911. He held this post until a Bill was passed placing him upon an equal footing with the Tutuhs of Kirin and Shengking. As Tutuh of Fengtien, however, he was virtually given supreme control of military and diplomatic affairs in the three Manchurian provinces. Resigned post of Tutuh of Fengtien, November 3, 1953. "Friend of Sungshan" (see Hsu Shih-ch'ang). Director, Ching History Compilation Bureau.

- CHAO HENG-CHIN .- Consul-General at Vladivostok.
- CHAO HENG-TI, (趙恒惕).—Honan. Born 1880. Studied in Japan. Graduated from a Japanese Military school. Was in service in Kwangsi and then in Hunan, before he became the Commanding Officer of the First Hunan Army Division. Now in Command of Hunan Army, although he is without the title of Tuchun.
- Chao Ping-Lin. (追讽族)—Kwangsi. Born 1874. Hanlin Compiler and Censor in the late Ching Dynasty. A member of Chung Yi Yuan. Director of Mining Affairs in Kwangsi. Adviser to the President. Commissioner of Industries for Shansi. Author of Memorials of the Censorate, The Poetry and Essays of Po-Yen, Events of Kwang-Hsu and Hsuan Tung, Mining in Shansi. Kuomintang. Second class Tashou Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- Chao Shih-ch'in.—Szechuan. Born 1877. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Most of his time was engaged in teaching-work, and was editor of Szechuan Daily News and Hsi-su Hsin Wen. Kunghotang.
- CHAO, T. L., see Chao Tien-lin.
- CH'AO T'I, (趙倜).—Honan. Born 1870. Studied in the Peiyang Military Academy. Tuchun of Honan since June 1916. Teh Wu Chiang Chun. First class Wenhu and Tashou Pao-Kuang Chiaho decorations.
- Chao Tientin, (T. L. Chao), (趙天麟).—Tientsin. Born 1887. Studied in Pei Yang University, Tientsin, and in America. President of Pei Yang University till 1919. Served in the Kailan Mining Administration.
- Chao Tseng-Fang.—Supervisor of the Changsha Customs, and later of the Canton Customs, 1915.
- Chao Tsung-fan, (趙從著).—Kiangsi. Chinshih. Industrial Taotai. Kiangsi, February, 1911. Supervisor of Finance, Anhui, June. 1911. Secretary of Ministry of Finance, September, 1912. Acting Chief Civil Administrator, Kiangsu, March, 1913. Director of the Gold Mining Bureau, 1915. Acting Vice-Minister of Finance and Superintendent of Tientsin Customs 1916-20. In Salt Revenue Service in Chekiang. 1920. Appointed Civil Governor of Kiangsi, 1921.
- Chao Wei-hsi.—Kiangsi. Literary Chancellor of Kweichow, spring, 1901. Law Commissioner, Kansu, November, 1911. Acting Viceroy of Shensi and Kansu, March, 1912. Tutuh of Kansu, March, 1912. Deputy Commissioner for Pacification of Kiangsi, July 17, 1913.
- Снло Yu-ке, (趙玉珂).—Chihli. Chief of Staff of the Tuchun of Chihli and concurrently Defence Commissioner of Tientsin.
- CHEN AN-LIANG. Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Hunan.
- CHEN CHAO-CH'ANG, (陳昭常).—Kwangtung. Associated with Jeme Tienyu in the construction of the Peking-Kalgan Railway. Junior Councillor of Ministry of Communications, December, 1906. Removed from office, January, 1907. Acting Deputy Lieutenant-General of Hunch'un, December, 1907. Acting Governor of Kirin, August, 1908. Governor of Kirin, July, 1910. Tutuh of Kirin, 1912. Member of the Kunghotang. Resigned position of Tutuh and Chief Civil Administrator of Kirin, June 13, 1913. Appointed Civil Administrator of Kwangtung, June 14, 1913. Did not take up duties.
- Ch'en Chen-hsien.—Kwangtung. Born 1876. Graduate of the University of California. Became a Christian at 19 years of age. Was attaché to the Chinese Legation at Washington, and an interpreter of the Chinese Consulate in California. When returned to China obtained

the title of Chinshih, 1907, and Hanlin Compiler, 1908. Was five years Chief of the Department for the Agricultural Experiments, and Director of the Agricultural School at Fengtien. Sent to Europe and America by Viceroy Chao of Mukden to study the system of cultivation and colonization, 1911. Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, May, 1912. Minister of the same Ministry, July, 1912. Acting Minister of Education, March, 1913, and resigned the post of Minister of Education. May, 1913. Resigned the post of Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, September. 1913. Author of Ten Rules Governing the Use of Variant Tones in Cantonese, One View of the Integral Calculus, etc., etc.

- CH'EN CH'ENG-HSIU. (陳承修).—Kiangsu. Born 1886. Educated at Nanyang College, Shanghai, and Technical College, Osaka, Japan. Chief of Department of Labour and Commerce, Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, since 1917. Second class Wenhu, Paokuang Chiaho decorations.
- CHEN CHI-VIN.—Councillor, Ministry of Industry and Commerce, September 5, 1912.
- CH'EN CH'I-YUAN, (陳其賽).—Kwangtung. Born 1887. Graduated from the Mining Department of Imperial Peking University. Vice-President, Canton Y.M.C.A Since Dec. 31, 1919. Author of Notes on Philippine Islands and of "Metallurgy". Fourth class Chiaho decoration.
- CHEN CHIN-T'AO. (陳錦濤).—Nanhai. Kwangtung. Born 1871. M.A. Ph.D. Graduated from Queen's College, Hongkong; Columbia University, New York, U.S.A.; Yale University, New Haven, U.S.A. One of China's best known financial experts. Former Manager of the Taching Government Bank. Chief, Department of Budgets, Ministry Organizer and Vice-Director, Bureau of Printing and Engraving Chairman, Currency Reform Commission. Member, Tzu Cheng Yuan. Vice-Minister of Finance in Yuan Shih-kai's Cabinet. Minister of Finance, Nanking Provincial Government, 1911. Representative to the International Conference of Chambers of Commerce, Boston, Auditor-General, Central Audit Bureau. Financial Commissioner to Europe. November, 1913 Minister of Finance and Acting Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1916. Minister of Finance, Canton Military Government, 1920. Author of Distribution of Wealth, Public Schools in Four Countries, etc. Non-partisan. Second class Pao Kuang Ta Shou Chiaho Decoration.
- CHEN CHIUNG-MING, (陳炯明).—Kwangtung. Tutuh of Kwangtung, June 1913. Drove out the Kwangsi Tuchun Mo Yung-hsin in 1920 and was appointed Civil Governor. Concerned in the Yunnan revolt, 1915-16
- Ch'en En-tao, (陳恩壽).—Fukien. Born 1860. Educated at Naval College, Foochow and in a naval school in England. Major General. Department Chief, Ministry of Navy since 1918 Third class Chiaho, Paokuang Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- CHEN ER-NGAN.—Governor, Szechuan, 1915
- CHEN HSIA-LING. (陳遐齡).—Military Commissioner of the Szechuan Marshes.
- CHEN HUAN.—General. Deputy Chief of the General Staff, January, 1915.
- CHEN HUAN-CHANG (陳煥章).—Kwangtung. Born 1881. Is a pupil of Kang Yu Wei and advocates that Confucianism be made China's State religion. Editor of "Chinese Reformer," 1899-1900. Professor of Chin-

ese, Shih Ming High School, 1902. Promoted to be Principal of the same institution in the following year. Chinshih, 1905. On a government scholarship, Dr. Chen proceeded to America to secure a modern education. After completing the preparatory courses, he entered Columbia University 1907. Ph.D. 1911. Returned to China, January, 1911. Formed the National Confucian Association. Was its President since its founding in 1911. Made Legal Adviser to the President, 1913. At the same time, he became editor of "Confucian Association Monthly."

- CH'EN HUAN-NAN.—Hunan. Born 1881. Graduate of Middle School at Hupeh, and a returned student from Japan. After returning from abroad was engaged as teacher in Government schools, and established forty-eight Primary schools in his native town. Was four years agitating for Revolution in Kwangsi; afterwards fled from his native place to evade arrest. Rendered valuable services in winning Kwangsi to the revolutionary cause. Was clerk to the Military Department in Kwangsi Tutuh's Yamen; Military Adviser of the 3rd Army Division. Political Adviser to the Tutuh of Hunan; member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- CHEN HUI-TEH.—Native of Chinkiang. Graduated in America. At one time Manager of Bank of Kiangsu. Chief Manager of the Commercial Savings Bank, 1915.
- CHEN I-FAN (Ivan Chen).—Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, Kiangsu, April 13, 1913. Commissioner for Pacification of Tibet, June 14, 1913. Chinese Delegate to Simla Conference.
- CH'EN KUANG-YUAN, (陳光遠).—Chibli. Lieut.-General, Commanding General, 12th Division of Army. Commissioner of Occupation, Chihfeng, July 21, 1913. Tuchun of Kiangsi.
- CHEN KUO-CHI.—Supervisor of the Chungking Customs, 1915.
- CHEN KUO-HSIANG.—Kweichow. Member of the Chung Yi-Yuan, Vice-Speaker, ditto, 1913.
- CH'EN Lu, (Tcheng Loh), (陳黛).—Fukien. Born 1876. Graduated from Hupeh Tsu Ch'iang College and from La Faculté de Droit de Paris. Licencié en Droit. Chief, Department of Foreign Affairs. Ministry of Foreign Affairs. April, 1912. Interpreter to the five Commissioners sent to Europe, 1906. Attaché to the Chinese Legation. Paris. Delegate to the Second Peace Conference at The Hague. Teacher, Law Department, Government University, Peking. Chinshih; Hanlin. Minister to Mexico. High Military Commissioner and Resident-General at Urga, 1915. Appointed vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs. May 4, 1918. In charge of the Ministry Nov. 10, 1918 to 1920. Minister to France, 1921 Author of historical works on Mongolia and Types of French Documents, etc. First class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations. Second class Paokuang Tashou Chiaho Decoration. Wearer of medals from the Russian, Japanese, Belgian, Swedish governments.
- CH'EN MAO-TING.—Fukien. Acting Junior Secretary and Acting Senior Secretary of Waichiaopu. 1909. Councillor of Privy Council, August, 1911. Councillor of Waichiaopu, April, 1912.
- CH'EN PAO-CH'EN.—Fukien. Sub-Chancellor of Grand Secretariat, with rank of a Vice-President of Board of Ceremonies, April, 1910. Governor of Shansi, June, 1911. Tutor to the Emperor, July, 1911. Advisory Minister to Privy Council, August, 1911. Vice-President Imperial Historiography Department, February, 1912. Appointed to the Council of Regency in the abortive restoration of the Manchu Dynasty, July, 1917.

- CH'EN P'EI-K'UN, (陳培起).—Fukien. Hanlin. Superintendent, Provincial College, Agriculture College, Fukien. Taoyin in Fukien and Police Superintendent of Foochow. Shameen Taoyin since Nov. 1918. Second class Chiaho and Third class Wenhu decorations.
- CHEN PIH.—Councillor of Tsangchengyuan.
- Chen Ping-K'un, (陳炳焜).—Kwangsi. Born 1861. Was Associate Director of Kwangsi Martial Court. General of the 1st Army Division, and concurrently Defence Commissioner of Kweilin. Holds the rank of Major General in the Army. Civil and Military Governor of Kwangsi and Military Governor of Kwangsung.
- Ch'en Shao-t'ang, (陳紹唐).—Kwangsi. Born 1889. Studied in the University of Pennsylvania, U.S.A Teacher, Kwangsi Provincial College, Hydraulic Engineering College. General Secretary, Nanking Y.M.C.A. Translated Gettell's work on politics. Eighth class Chiaho decoration. Chen, T. C., see Ch'en T'ung Chi.
- Ch'en Teng-shan, (陳登山).—Hupeh. Born Nov. 9, 1864. Graduated in Normal and law courses in colleges in Japan. Provincial Republican Government, 1912. Councillor, Ministry of Army, Peking, July 1912. Appointed to that post, February, 1920. Author of notes on finance, prison, local government, etc. Fourth class Wenhu and Chiaho decorations.
- Ch'en Tien-chi, (陳天祺).—Chekiang. Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Soochow, April 15, 1913.
- Ch'en T'ung-chi. (T. C. Chen), (陳同紀).—Kwangtung. Born Dec. 9, 1885. Studied in Japan. Member, Ministry of Finance, 1912. Superintendent of Customs, Chungking since April 11, 1915. Fourth class Chiaho decoration.
- CH'EN WEI.—Head of Department of Ministry of Finance, November 10, 1912 Acting Chief Director of Bank of China, July 5, 1913.
- CHEN WEI-KENG.—Director of the Salt Transport Office in Kirin and Heilungkiang, 1915.
- CHEN WEN-TSAO.—Finance Secretary of Shensi, 1915.
- CH'EN YI, (陳毅).—Hunan. Senior Secretary, Ministry of Communications, January. 1912. Councillor, Bureau for Mongolia and Tibet, August. 1912. Deputy for Organization of National Assembly, September, 1912. Secretary, Ministry of Communications, December 18, 1912 Chiang-chün of Szechuan. 1915. Resident Commissioner at the Court of the Hutukhtu, Urga, 1917. Again, 1920. Cashiered April, 1921.
- Ch'en Yu, (陳鈺).—Shansi. For many years, a magistrate in Chihli. Chief of Financial Department, Shansi, February, 1913. Chief Civil Administrator, Shansi. June 4, 1913.
- Chen Yu.-Chung. -Kiangsu. Born 1873. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang. Chairman of the Peking Chamber of Commerce, 1918.
- CH'EN YUNG-SHAN .- Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Swatow. April 25, 1913.
- CHENG CHIA-HAO.—Hupeh. Born 1881. Educated in Jih Hsin College of Wuchang, and a college in Japan. One of the representatives in the negotiations between the North and the South. Was Councillor of the Tutuh's Yamen of Hupeh, and the examiner of the high officials of I:upeh. Adviser to the Right Wing of the Northern Expeditionary Army. Was proprietor of Hupeh Daily News. Member of the Tsan Yi Yuan. Established Te-yu-hui in Wuchang to plan for Revolution; this

- hui was reorganized and became Minhsia, which was finally amalgamated into Kunghotang. Kunghotang.
- CHENG CH'IEN, (知識).—Kiangsu. Graduated in Japan. Administrative Secretary of Kwangtung, 1915.
- CHENG CH'IN, (真族).—Skantung. Born 1868. Studied in Normal School, Shantung and Graduated from a Japanese College. Chairman, Shantung Provincial Assembly since Sept. 1, 1918 Fifth Class Chiaho decoration.
- CHENG MOU-TING .- Member of the Tsanchengyuan (Council of State).
- CH'ENG SHIH-CHI, (程世濟).—Kiangsi. Born 1876. Educated in Chen Tan College, Shanghai, and a Graduate of Law School at Peking. Was secretary to a railway company, and other yamens; two years as a teacher of a Railway College at Shanhaikwan; attaché to the Chinese Legation at Paris for four years; three years a clerk in the Railway Department of the Ministry of Communications. Director of Tao-Ching Railway Company, appointed in October, 1911.
- CH'ENG TE-CH'UAN, (程德全).—Szechuan. Acting Tartar General of Heilungkiang in the winter of 1906 Acting Governor of Heilungkiang, May, 1907. Resigned, March, 1908. Acting Governor of Fengtien, May, 1909. Governor of Fengtien, July, 1909. Governor of Kiangsu, April, 1910. Appointed Tutuh of Kiangsu on April 13, 1912. Belongs to no party. Superseded during the Rebellion, 1913.
- CH'ENG To.—Kiangsi. Born 1884. Graduate of a University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. After returning from Japan started a Law College in Kiangsi. During the time of Revolution he with a few friends organized the War Office in Kiangsi. and became Chief of the Bureau of Foreign Affairs. Then was elected as member of the Provisional Assembly of Kiangsi. He was appointed Magistrate of Chi An, which post he refused to accept, but was engaged as teacher and director of several law colleges. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- CHENG YUAN-LIANG, (鄭元良).—Shantung. Born 1880. Commissioner of Police for Kansu and Superintendent of Police, Lanchow, since 1917. Second class Chiaho, third class Wenhu decorations.
- CHENTUNG LIANG CR'ENG (SIR).—Kwangtung. Educated in U.S.A. On the staff of the Queen Victoria Jubilee Mission, on which occasion he received a K.C.M.G. First Secretary of Prince Chün's mission to Germany, 1901. Chinese Minister to America and Peru, October, 1902-7. Director of Canton Section of Canton-Hankow Railway, 1907. Chinese Minister to Germany, March, 1910. Retired.
- CHI-CHIN-CHUN, (波金純).—Fengtien. Born 1877. Commanding General of the 28th. Army Division. Holds the rank of the Lieutenant-General in the Army.
- Ch'i Chung-chia.—Kirin. Born 1863. Hanlin Compiler, and a Taotai of Kweichow. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. In Tangyuenhsien, Kirin, he started an immigration enterprise, and within the space of a few years he has succeeded in sending several thousands of families to colorize several thousands of "chings" of waste land Chinputang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- CHI HSIEH-YUAN, (齊獎元).—Chihli. Was Defence Commissioner of Nanking and concurrently Commanding General of the Sixtl. Army Division. Appointed Acting Tuchun of Kiangsu at the death of Li Shun, 1920.

- Ch'i Ko-T'an.--Outer Mongolia. Born 1888. Graduate of the Police College, Peking. Prince of the 4th Order of Ko-er-ko; member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan for Outer Mongolia. Chinputang.
- CHI YANG, (成場).—Chekiang. Born 1861. A Hanlin scholar in the Manchu Court. Has been magistrate of many hisens in Fukien, Kiangsi, Kiangsu and Chekiang. At the time of revolution, Chi was made Secretary in charge of Domestic Affairs for Kiangsi. Was Civil Governor of Kiangsi till Spring, 1921
- CH'I YUEH CHUN, (齊耀君).—Kirin. Born June 1877. Commissioner of Finance, Kirin since Dec. 8, 1919. Second class Chiaho decoration.
- CH'I YUEH-LIN, (齊耀琳).—Kirin. Yung-ting-ho Tao Chihli, February, 1908. Tientsin Tao, April, 1908. Jud. Comm., Chihli, January, 1910. Provincial Treasurer, Honan, November, 1911. Governor, Honan, December, 1911; resigned, April, 1912. Chief Civil Administrator, Kirin, June 13, 1913. Civil Governor of Kiangsu, August, 1915-1919.
- Chia Chi-Ch'uan, (賈濟川).—Honan. Born 1883. Studied in the Provincial school of Honan. Kuanchung Taoyin, Shensi and Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Shensi, since July 11, 1918. Member of Parliament. Third class Chiaho, Sixth class Wenhu decorations.
- CHIA PIN-CHING.—Acting Deputy Lieutenant-Governor, Kweihuacheng. June 16, 1913.
- CHIANG CHAO-CHUNG, (江野宗).—Acting Commander of Gendarmerie, July 14, 1912. Deputy Lieutenant-General, Bordered Red Chinese Banner. August 19, 1912. In June, 1917, he accepted the post of Acting Premier in order to countersign Li Yuan-hung's mandate dissolving Parliament.
- CHIANG HSI-MING.—Hupeh. Born 1877. A Graduate of a University in Japan. Delegate for the preparation of the establishment of the Bank of China. Was a teacher in the Government University in Peking. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Author of Self Government, Taxes, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- CHIANG KO-CH'ING.—Chief Administrative Secretary, Fukien.
- CHIANG KUEI-TI, (姜桂題).—Anhui. A General who is over seventy years of age. He was cashiered for the loss of Port Arthur to the Japanese, but his rank was subsequently restored to him with a title for bravery. Commander-in-Chief, Kansu, February, 1901. In command of Imperial Guards at Peking (July, 1901-February, 1908). On special service in Kiangnan, February, 1908. Commander-in-Chief, Chihli, September, 1908. Summoned to Peking to take charge of the defence of the capital on the outbreak of the Revolution. His old-style troops (the bulk of them, known as the Wu Wei-chun, are generally stationed at Tungchow, near Peking) rendered signal service in preserving order in the capital both during and after the Revolution, and remained loyal when the Third Division mutinied at Peking. General Chiang was appointed Lieut.-General at Jehol on April 26, 1912. His troops at Tungchow mutinied and looted the town in August, 1912, and he is reported to have ordered the execution of his own grandson. Chief of Chiangchunfu, 1920.
- CHIANG P'EI-HUA, (蔣培華).—Fukien. Born 1874. Studied in the Ying Hua and Fu Ying Academies. President, Foochow Y.M.C.A. since 1913.

- CHIANG TIEN TO, (江天鐸).—Kwangtung. Born 1879. Graduated from Waseda University, Japan. Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, summer, 1917. In charge of the Ministry, 1920. Chairman of various commissions of food supply, etc. Second class Tashou Chiaho, First class Tashou Chiaho, First class Wenhu Decorations.
- CHIANG TSENG-WEI.—Sent as Pacification Commissioner to Yunnan, December, 1915.
- CHIANG TSO-PIN, (蔣作賓).—Hupeh. Born 1883. After graduation in a Middle School he studied in Japan, and is a Graduate of the Training School for Military Officers in Japan. Chujen of the late Ching Dynasty. Played a prominent part in the late Revolution, for which he agitated for a long time. Is Lieutenant-General of the Army, and was the Vice-President of the Ministry of War, appointed on January 4, 1912. Was a member of Tung Meng Hui, but resigned the membership.
- CHIANG TSUN-I, (T. Y. Tsiang), (蔣寶禕).—Chekiang. Born Nov. 15, 1877. Chujen and Chinshih. Member of Ministry of Communications since 1908. Director of Chinese Government Telegraph systems since 1918. Second class Tashou Chiaho and second class Wenhu decorations. Also received medals of merit from Denmark and Japan.
- CHIANG WEI-CH'IAO, (蔣維喬).—Kiangsu. Born 1872. Educated in the High School of Nanking. Councillor to the Ministry of Education. Chief Secretary to the Ministry of Education at Nanking, May, 1912. Director of Ai-kuɔ Girls' School at Shanghai, and was one of the editors of the Commercial Press at Shanghai. Non-partisan. Author of several Chinese Readers for the primary schools.
- CHIANG WEN-HSI, (姜文熙).—Kiangsu. Born 1875. Graduated from the Peiyang Medical College, M.D. Councillor, Medical Department, Ministry of Army since 1917. Second class Wenhu and Chiaho decorations.
- CHING YFN-HSING, (海雁行).—Judicial Commissioner, Chiang Huai, July 5, 1913. Defence Commissioner, Kiang Pei, August 27, 1913.
- CHIANG YUNG, (江唐)—Szechuan. Born April 29, 1878. Graduated from the Political Science Department of Waseda University, Japan. Chujen. Judge, Supreme Court 1905. Chief Justice, Higher Court. Peking, 1912. Vice-Minister of Justice, 1914. Acting Minister of Justice, 1917. Director of Students studying in Japan, 1918. Appointed Chief, Law Codification Bureau July 29, 1920. Second class Tashou Chiaho, First class Tashou Chiaho decorations.
- CHIEN NUNG-HSUN, (登記訓).—Chekiang. Born 1870, Chujen and Chinshih. Member, Board of Justice in Ching Dynasty. Was once Commissioner of Justice for Shensi and Acting Governor of that province. Secretary of State 1915. Chief of Administrative Court 1917. Minister of the Interior, 1918. Appointed Prime Minister, February, 1918. Resigned 1919. President of Commercial and Industrial Bank of China.
- Chien Shan.—Yunnan. Born 1877. Censor. Graduate of Yunnan Law School. Established Primary schools for boys and girls in his native town, and opened an Industrial Institute for those who were unemployed. Organized Tien Hsueh Hui, a revolutionary organ. Was member of the Tza Yi Chu of Yunnan. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan and member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Has been connected with some enterprises in cultivation of waste land, cattle raising, and salt business. Chinputang. Author of Historical Essays. Explana-

- tion on some Difficult Parts of Olden Poems, The Principles of Law,. How to develop Yunnan, and The Future of China.
- CH'IEN T'AI. (Dr. Tsien Tai), (錢素).—Kiashai. Born April 5, 1888. LL.D., University of Paris. Councillor, Ministry of Justice since Dec. 25, 1915. Wrote several books on legal subjects in French. Third class Chiaho, Wenhu decorations.
- CH'IEN, Y. M., see Ch'ien Yung Ming.
- CH'IEN YUNG-MUNG, (Y. M. Ch'ien), (袋水銘).—Kiangsu. Graduated in a Commercial College in Japan. Manager, Bank of Communications, Shanghai branch.
- CHIN CHAC-YEN.—Chekiang. Born 1878. A Graduate of the Government University in Peking. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan and the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Was Director of the Middle School in Chinhwafu; a teacher of various other schools; the Magistrate of Yungchia Hsien. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- CHIN PANG CHENG, (P. C. King), (金邦正).—Anhui. Born June, 1886. Studied in the Nankai Middle School, Tientsin and the Customs College, Peking. Graduated from Cornell University, (U.S.A.) B.A. M.A. (in forestry). Principal, First Provincial Forestry College of Anhui, Dec. 1914; Director, Forestry Bureau, Jan., 1915; Principal, Agriculture College, Peking, Oct., 1917; Director, Tsing Hua College since Sept., 1920.
- CHIN PANC-PING, (全邦平).—Anhui. Joint Examiner, with Wu Chao-hsu, an American adviser and a Japanese adviser, of students who have graduated abroad. Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, March, 1915, Minister April 23, 1915, till June, 6. Director-General of the National Conservancy Board January, 1916.
- Chin Yun-p'eng (斯雲鵬).—Shantung. Born 1877 Graduated from the Pei Yang Military Academy and upon graduation was appointed to command only a few soldiers. Was made a military officer in Chekiang and promoted to the post of Commander-in-Chief of Chekiang troops. Was given the rank of Lieutenant-General during the revolution of 1911 when he was with General Tuan Chi-jui, Commander-in-Chief of Imperial Army. Appointed Military Governor of Shantung in 1913. When Chang Huai-chih was to be appointed Tuchun of Shantung, General Chin was "promoted" to the Chiangchunfu in June, 1916. Sent to Japar with Chu Tung-feng in November 1917 to witness the manoeuvres. Appointed to the War Participation Bureau and there acted on behalf of his Chief, General Tuan Chi-jui. Appointed Minister of War, June 11, 1919. This position he held till May 1921. Appointed Prime Minister, winter 1919 to date.
 - CHIN YUNG, (金永).—Chekiang Governor of Shansi, 1914-15.
- CHIU KUAN-FEN.—Kiangsi. Born 1885. A Graduate of a University in Japan. Was a Chujen and a Magistrate in Shensi, in the late Dynasty. During the Revolution he was made Chief of Finance Department in the War Office, and was a sectional chief in the Finance Department of the Province. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- CHIU TUN-YU Chekiang. Jud. Com. and Hei-Shui Tao Heilungkiang. winter, 1906. Commissioner of Heilungkiang, April, 1909. Head of Law Preparation Department, January 19, 1913.
- CHOU CH'ANG-SHOU. Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Ningpo, April 15, 1913

- Chou Chao-Hsiang.—Police Intendant, Szchuan, August, 1910. Vacated office, July, 1911. Intendant of Industry, Fengtien, November, 1911. Acting Inspector-General of Police Administration, Peking, July 18, 1913. Acting Salt Commissioner, Shantung, July 22, 1913.
- CHOU CHIN-PIAO, Taoyin of Shanghai, 1914. Special Envoy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Kiangsu, 1915.
- CHOU CHUN, (Zin-Yen Chow; Z. Y. C. Chow), (周均).—Shanghai, Ku. Born Sept. 18, 1892. B.A., St. John's University, Shanghai. Formerly teacher in Kiangsu. Was secretary to various commissioners of education and Foreign Affairs. Secretary to the Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Chekiang. Sixth class Chiaho decoration.
- Chou Hsin, (周水).—Kwangtung, Born April 1882. Studied in the Naval College and Law College, Kwangtung. Departmental Chief, Ministry of Finance, October. 1918.
- CHOU HSUEH-HSI, (馬學熙).—Anhui. Salt Commissioner. Chihli, January. 1907. Mourning, December, 1907. Promoter and Director of Peking Waterworks. Elected President of the Anhui Railway Co., with approval of the Throne March. 1908. Was largely instrumental in arranging the amalgamation of the Kaiping and Lanchow Mines during the winter of 1911-12. Elected Minister of Finance in Lu Chenghsiang's Cabinet, on July 26, 1912. Director-General of Revenue Council, December 18, 1912. Resigned on the formation of Hsiung Hsiling's Cabinet. Minister of Finance, 1914. Director-General of the Salt Bureau, 1915. Resigned, 1915. Actively interested in Cotton Industry since 1919.
- Chou Shu-Mu, (周枝模).—Hupeh. Born 1864. Hanlin. 1885. Was commissioned to conduct the civil service examinations in Shansi and in Kwangtung by the Manchu Emperor. Was invited by Viceroy Chang Chih-tung to teach in the Lianghu College. Was also a censor in the Ching Dynasty. Was once Commissioner of Public Instructions, Senior Assistant to the Viceroy of Three Eastern Provinces, Governor of Heilungkiang. After repeated invitations of ex-President Yuan, Mr. Chou accepted in 1915 the position of President of the Administrative Court and that of President of the Commission for Punishing High Officials. These two positions, he resigned after a year's service. Author of "memorials of Heilungkiang" and "Poems of Siu Kou Tsai."
- Tzu-ch'i, (周寶齊).—Shantung. Educated in America. Acting Junior Secre tary of the Board of Foreign Affairs. September. 1908. Acting Senior Secretary of the same Board, January, 1909. Junior Secretary (January, 1909) and Senior Secretary (May. 1909) of the Board of Foreign Affairs. Acting Junior Councillor (July, 1909) and Acting Senior Councillor (August, 1909). Accompanied Prince Tsai Hsun's Naval Mission to Japan and America. August. 1910. and also Prince Tsai Chen's Coronation Mission in 1911. Rejoined Board of Foreign Affairs upon his return. Appointed Vice-Minister of Finance in Yuan Shih-kai's November Cabinet on the refusal of that post by Dr. Chen Chin-tao. Acting Minister of Finance, March, 1912. After complications arose in connection with the Belgian Loan he was appointed Tutuh of Shantung (March, 1912). Acting Governor. Bank of China. August 21, 1913. Minister of Communications, September 11, 1913. Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, 1915. Member of the Senate. 1916. Interested in the promotion of the Peiyang Ironworks. Minister of Finance in the Chin Cabinet of 1920. Resigned, May, 1921.
- *Chou Wan-peng, (周萬鹏).—Kiangsu. Born 1864. Studied in the Rensellear Polytechnical Institute, (U.S.A.) Chief. Chinese Government

- Telegraph Administration. Department head, Ministry of Communications, Director, Telegraph Office. Shanghai and Euperintendent of Telegraphs of Kiangsu since 1917. Second class Chiaho decoration.
- CHOU YI-CHUN, (Tsur Ye-Tsung) (周語春).—Anhui. Graduate of St. John's University and Yale University, U.S.A. Dean of Tsinghua College. Became President 1913: resigned, 1918. Member of Senate till 1920.
- CHOW, Z. Y. C., see Chou Ch'un.
- CHOW, ZIN-YEN, see Chou Ch'ún.
- CHU CHAO .- Director of the Gold Mining Office in Heilungkiang, 1915.
- Chu Chao-hsin.—Kwangtung. Born 1879. Graduate of the Government University in Peking and Columbia University, U.S.A. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Tachungtang. Author of *The Chinese Public Loans*, etc. Consul-General at San Francisco.
- Chu Ch'i-chien, (朱散鈴).—Kweichow. Was a magistrate in Kiangsi and a Taotai in Chihli. Superintendent of Peking Inner Police in 1904.

 Subsequently a Director of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway. Minister of Communications (July, 1912) in Lu Cheng-hsiang's and Chao Pingchun's Cabinet. Appointed Acting Premier, July 27, 1913, but did not accept post. Minister of Interior, September 11, 1913. Appointed Chief Delegate for the North at the Peace Conference with the South, February, 1919. Sent to Europe in 1921 on a Special Mission.
- CHU CHIA-PAO, (朱家寶).—Yunnan. Chinshih. Was a Chihli magistrate, Was once Commissioner of Finance for Kiangsu. Governor of Chihli, 1915-1917.
- CHU HSIAO-FU, Supervisor of the Lungchow Customs, 1915.
- Chu Hsien-wen.—Councillor, Law Department of Cabinet, November 27, 1912.
- Chu HSING-YUAN, (就程元).—Peking. Born 1880. Educated in the Peking Imperial University and in Japan. Secretary, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, July, 1918. Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Chihli, 1920. Third class Chiaho and Second class Wenhu decorations.
- Chu He-hsiang, (Louis Ngaosiang Tchou), (朱鶴翔).—Paoshan, Ku. Born 1883. Educated in the Futan and Chentan Colleges in Shanghai and in Belgium. B.A., Ll.B., Doctor in Politics and Diplomacy (Belgian). Junior Councillor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Dec. 31, 1915, Secretary. Jan. 25, 1916. Member of Investigation Commission, Cabinet Office, March 11, 1916. Professor of Law, Government University, Sept. 1916. Acting Vice-Minister, May, 1916, and April 1917. Director of Chihui Affairs, Jan. 15, 1918. Author of Le Regime des Capitulations et la regime constitutionnelle en Chine (1915) and China and Japan (1915), Works on Treaties of Peace between Germany and Austria and the Allies. Fourth class Wenhu and Paokuang Chiaho Decorations.
- Chu Jui, (大雅).—Chekiang. Born 1882. A Hsiutsai of the late Dynasty, and a Graduate of Military College of Nanyang. Lieutenant-General of the Army with the brevet rank of a full General. Was Tutuh of Chekiang since the 21st day of the 8th month of the 1st year of the Republic, and Acting Chief Civil Administrator of the same Province from the 1st day of the 3rd month of the year. When Chekiang began to organize new troops he was appointed Councillor to train the new army; then he was appointed Assistant Chief of the General Staff of Anhui Bureau for the training of the new army, and also acted as

Director of the Surveying College; and then was appointed Commander of the 81st Brigade. On September 14th, 1911, he led his brigade to attack and occupy the Arsenal, and also Hangchow City. Then he, with the help of Kiangsu troops, marched to Nanking. After capture of Nanking he was made General of the 1st Army Division of Chekiang. In the 1st month of the 1st year of the Republic he placed his troops at Hsuchow and Soochow. When the quarrel about the removal of the capital to the South was at its height, he settled the matter by a telegram. Promoted General of the 5th Army Division, and stayed at Nanking for half a year. In the 5th month he returned to Chekiang, and was appointed Tutuh of Chekiang. In the 9th month appointed Lieutenant-General with the brevet rank of full General of the Army. In the 2nd year, when the policy of the division of the military and civil administrations was decided upon, he was appointed Acting Chief Civil Administrator of Chekiang. When the Kiangsi rebellion broke out he took strict measures to ensure peace and order of the Province and sent troops to assist other Provinces in the suppression of rebellion. Non-partisan. Author of Conditions in the Armies of various Powers. Chiangchun of Chekiang, 1915.

- CHU KIN-HOU, see Hsu Ting Chueh.
- CH'U LIEN.—Acting Salt Commissioner, Liangkuang, August 8, 1913.
- CHU PAO-SAN, (朱葆三).—Chekiang. Born 1847. Was sometime manager of Shanghai Branch of the Bank of China. Chairman Chinese Chamber of Commerce, Shanghai, 1918. (alias Chu Pei-chen 朱佩珍)
- CHU PENG-SHOU, (朱彭壽).—Chekiang. Supervisor of the Ichang Customs. 1915 Was also Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Honan.
- Chu Shen, (朱深).—Chinli. Born 1881. Graduated from a Japanese University with a degree of LL.B. Upon his return. Chu practised law. Appointed Acting Chief Procurator, Peking, Aug. 1912. Chief of High Procuratorate of Peking, November, 1913. Was appointed Chief of Chief Procuratorate, November, 1915. Became Minister of Justice, September, 1917. Upon the resignation of Chien Nun Hsun. Chu was concurrently appointed Minister of Interior. This latter office he held until 1920. A member of the defunct Anfu Club and is now in exile.
- CHU TING-CHI, (朱庭祺).—Kiangsu. Born 1886. Graduate of Harvard University. Councillor of the Ministry of Industry and Commerce. English Secretary, Shanghai-Nanking Railway.
- Chu Ying-kuang, (屈映光).—Chekiang. Born 1885. Graduated from the Chin Cheng Institute (a High School). Became its teacher upon graduation. Later he became the Superintendent of Ing Shan Commercial School, Taichow. Was teacher of Military Survey School in Anhui. It was in this latter place that Gov. Chu came in contact with military people. Connected with the Fifth Army of Chekiang as its adviser, 1912. Promoted to Chief of Civil Affairs of Chekiang and still later was appointed Civil Governor of his own province. Granted by "Emperor Yuan" the rank of first class Count. When Chekiang declared independence of Peking as protest against Yuan's monarchical movement, Chu joined his people, although he was for a few days made Tutuh of Chekiang. Owing to opposition from the people, he resigned the post of civil and military governor and went to Peking, where he promoted the organization of the Sino-American Association. For a time, was Civil Governor of Shantung in 1920. Fourth Order of Merit.
- CHU YU-TS'ANG, (M. Thomas Tchou). (朱育淦).—Szechuan. Born 1895. Studied in different parts of Europe, particularly in the University of

- Glasgow, Scotland. B.Sc. (in Mech. and Civil Eng.), B.Sc. (in Naval Architecture). Adviser to the State Arsenal, Chengtu, Sze., 1917. Professor of English and Physics, Chengtu Higher Normal School, 1918. Prof. of Mechanical Engineering, Changsha Polytechnic Institute, 1918-19. Prof. of English and Sciences in English Methodist College, Ningpo 1919, to date. President, Ningpo Y.M.C.A. since 1920.
- CHUAN LIANG, (權量).—Wuchang, Hup. Born May 1873. Educated in Japan. Chujen. Director, Commercial Department, Imperial Peking University. Councillor, Department Head, Ministry of Communications. Acting Vice-Mmister, May, 1916, and April 1917. Director of Chihui Railway till May 1921. Managing Director. Kirin-Changchun Railway. Author of Textbooks on Algebra, Banking, Japanese language, etc. Second class Tashou Paokuang Chiaho Second class Tashou Chiaho, Wenhu decorations.
- CHUAN, S. H., see Ch'uan Shao Ch'ing.
- CH'UAN SHAO-CH'ING, (S. H. Chuan), (全紀清).—Tunghsien, Chi. Born July 12, 1883. After graduation from the Peiyang Medical College, Tientsin, Ch'uan went to John Hopkins University and Harvard University for special study. M.D. Chief of Medical Staff, Chinese Army, President, Army Medical College since Aug. 1914. Author of "The Most Extraordinary City of the World." "Chinese Patients and Their Prejudices," and a score of articles on medicine and travel. Second class Paokuang Chiaho, Wenhu, Chiaho decorations. Wearer of a Gold medal and other medals awarded by foreign states.
- Chuang Yun-k'uan, (前蘊質).—Kiangsu. T'ai-P'ing-Ssu-Shun Tao, Kwangsi, spring, 1908. Commissioner for the opening of Pukow, December 4, 1912. Tutuh of Kiangsu, 1913. President of the Board of Censors, 1915. Resigned, February, 1916. Chief, Auditing Bureau.
- Ch'un, Prince, (載壽).—Manchu. Ex-Regent. Brother of the late Emperor Kwang Hsu. Succeeded to his father's title in January, 1891. Lieutenant-General of Plain White Banner, June, 1901. Special Envoy to Germany to apologize for the murder of the German Minister, July, 1901. Supernumerary Grand Councillor, June, 1907. Grand Councillor, February, 1908. Member of Commission of Constitutional Reform and Government Council, 1908. Appointed Prince Regent on the death of the Emperor Kwang Hsu, November 13, 1908. Took the oath of observance of the Constitution on November 26, 1911. Resigned from the Regency on December 6, 1911.
- CHUNG SHIH-MING.—Secretary of the Salt Bureau, 1915.
- CHUNG WEN-HU.—Taoyin of the West Szechuan Circuit, 1915. Superintendent of the Chünchuanyuan Bank of Szechuan, 1915.
- CHUNG WEN-YUEH, (鍾文耀).—Kwangtung. Born 1860. B.A., Yale University Class of 1883. Director—Shanghai Mint. Second class Chiaho and Fourth class Wenhu decorations.
- DJANG YUAN-SHAN, see Chang Yuan Shan.
- EN IIUA, (恩華).—Kiangsu. Born 1872. Educated in Japan. Chujen, Chinshih. Department Head, Ministry of Education, 1907-10. Councillor, 1910-11. Member of Tzu Cheng Yuan, 1911. Secretary, Cabinet Office, 1912-13. Member of Parliament, May-Oct. 1913. Was sent on several missions to Mongolia. Major General, Dec. 1919, Vice-Director, Bureau of Mongolia and Turkestan, Feb, 1920 to Sept. 2, 1920. Author of a map of Tang-nu-wu-liang-hai. Second class Tashou Chiaho, Third class Paokuang Chiaho, Wenhu decorations.

- FAN 'I'SENG-HSIANG.--Hupeh. Judicial Commissioner, Shensi, August, 1901.
 Employed in Government Council, July, 1901. Judicial Commissioner, Chekiang. January, 1903, and Shensi, October, 1903. Financial Commissioner, Shensi, December, 1904. Cashiered, January, 1907. Rank restored, January, 1908. Financial Commissioner, Nanking, spring, 1908. Civil Administrator, Hupeh, April, 1912.
- FAN YUAN-LIEN, (范源族).—Hunan. Educated in Japan. Studied in various Japanese Colleges law, and education. Has a reputation as a Chinese scholar. Vice-Minister of Education on the formation of the first Republican Cabinet, and subsequently Minister of Education in Lu Cheng-hsiang's Cabinet. Resigned, April, 1913. Minister of Education in Tuan Chi-jui's Cabinet, July, 1917. Again in Chin Yun Pang's Cabinet Aug. 1920.
- Fang Sheng-cheng, (方葉微).—Fukien. Born 1875. A Graduate of the Normal School of Fukien, and was a Vice-Chujen of the late Dynasty. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. In 33rd year of Kwang Hsu was a teacher at the Yun-siu school; in 34th year, an Educational Supervisor of Yun-siu, and in the 1st year of Republic, Chairman of the Anti-Opium Society in Yun-siu. Chinputang.
- FANG SHU, (方紀).—Anhui. Japanese-educated. Councillor, Department of Legislation, Cabinet, August 31, 1912. Deputy for Organization of National Assembly, October 9, 1912. Chief Secretary to the Cabinet, 1917.
- FENG CHEN-CHI, (馬振驥).—Hupeh. Born 1887. Graduated in law from the Imperial University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.
- Feng Lan-Hsiu, (馮蘭秀).—Shantung. Born Oct. 30, 1870. Graduated from the Kirin Law College. Chairman of Kirin Chamber of Commerce since 1913. Fifth Class Chiaho decoration.
- FENG SZE-CHIH, (馮司直).—Shansi. Born 1884. Educated in Japan. Chairman, Shansi Provincial Educational Association.
- FENG WEN-YU, (馬文煜).—Chihli. Born 1880. Graduated from the Telegraph School of Peiyang. Chief Telegraph Department, Civil Governor's Office (Chihli). Director, Chinese Telephone Administration, Tientsin Exchange, since July, 1920. Second class Chiaho and Fourth class Paokuang Chiaho decorations.
- FENG YUAN-HSUN, (馬元勳).—Szechuan. Born June 7, 1881. Graduated in Mining from Belgian Colleges. Chief, Department of Education, Civil Administration of Szechuan since Feb. 23, 1902.
- Feng Yuan-ting.—Secretary to Tang Shao-yi when the latter was Customs Taotai at Tientsin. For some time Joint Director of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway. Vice-Minister of Communications. In charge of construction of Hukuang Railways, June 18, 1913.
- Fong F. Sec., see Kuang Fu Shao.
- Fu Cheng-hsiang, (東資油).—Szechuan. Chujen. Secretary to the Viceroy of Chihli, when the post was held by Yuan Shih-kai, 1903. Director of several girls' schools in Chihli. Secretary to the Commander-in-Chief of Kiang-pei, 1905. Appointed Commissioner of Education of Chihli, 1908 Appointed Minister of Education, December, 1917. Adviser to the President.
- Fu Chiang, (轉元).—Chekiang. Born 1876. A Graduate of a Law School in Japan. Special Delegate for Foreign Affairs at Kirin, April 13. Chinputang.

- Fu Yu-fen, (傳文文).—Hupek. Born 1878. Chujen. During the Ching Dynasty, Fu was connected with the yamen of the Governor of Shansi. Was once acting President of the Shansi Imperial University. Transferred to Peking, Fu became member of the Commission for Preparation of the Constitutional Government. Promoted to Chief of Administrative Department of the Board of Education. In the Republican Government, Fu was connected with the Cabinet in its Law Compilation Bureau. In 1920, Fu was appointed Vice-Minister of Education, acting for the Minister, until Fan Yuan Lien took over the office in the Autumn of the same year.
- Fu Liang-Tso, (傅良佐).—Hunan. Assistant Secretary to the President, April, 1912. Acting Commissioner of Occupation, Chi Yu, June 28, 1913. Vice-Minister of War. During the Anfu downfall, 1920, was imprisoned by Civil Governor Tsao of Chihli while on a secret mission sent by Tuan Chi-jui to Tientsin. Released, May 1921.
- Ha Han-Chang, (哈漢章).—Hupeh. Assistant Director, Military Council, Board of War, 1907. A Director-in-Chief of the General Staff, September, 1909. Military Adviser to the President, April 9, 1912.
- HA TE-ERH.—Tu-lu-fan, Sinkiang. Born 1862. Self-educated. The 4th class hereditary Changchin of the late Ching Dynasty, and has the control of the Tien Tribe of Mohammedans. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Chinputang.
- Han Kuo-chun, (韓國的).—Kiangsu. Born 1858. Acting Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, Fengtien, April, 1910. Substantive do., September 10th. Commissioner for the Interior, Kirin, December 11. Summoned to Peking, December 12, 1912. Chief Civil Administrator, Kiangsu, June 9, 1913. Governor of Anhui, 1915. Governor of Hunan, 1915.
- Han Yu-chen, (韓玉辰).—Hupeh. Born 1882. A Graduate of Hupeh Law School. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan and a lawyer. Was a Sectional Chief of the Department of Justice, Hupeh: an editor of Chung Hwa Min-kuo Kung Pao, etc., and a teacher of Law School, Hupeh. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Ho Feng-lin, (何豐林).—Anhui. 1877. Graduated from the Pei Yang Military Academy. Lieutenant-General in the Army. Brigadier General of the 7th and 8th Army Brigades. Defence Commissioner of Ningtai (Chekiang). Now Military Commissioner of Shanghai.
- Ho Hou-ch'i, (何厚琦).—Shansi. Born 1866. Formerly Adviser to the Civil Governor of Fengtien. Tung-pien Taoyin and Commissioner of Foreign Affairs of Antung, Manchuria since March, 1920, and of Ying-kow since April 28, 1821.
- Ho P'ei-yung, (何佩登).—Hupeh. Graduated from Military School in China, he attended a military college in Japan, specializing in Infantry. Graduated from Japanese school in 1907, and returned to China in the summer of the same year. Detailed for service in the Ministry of Army. Later was transferred to the Second Division of the Pei Yang Army In two years, he was promoted to be chief of the Second Division. Was given the rank of Major General, September, 1913. Appointed Civil Governor of Hupeh, 1917.
- Ho Kuo-chang.—Kiangsi. Police Intendant (Acting), Kweichow, spring, 1908. In charge as Chief Civil Administrator, Kiangsi, June 8, 1913.
- Ho Shih-kuo (Tsan).—Kwangtung. Born 1865. A Graduate of Kwangtung Tungwen College, and studied in Japan. Chinshih of the late Dynasty.

- Was teacher of several schools, Director of Tsing-hua College, Magistrats of Kirin Fu. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Author of The Outline of the Russo-Japanese War, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Ho TAO-YEN.—Supervisor of the Changsha Customs and Special Envoy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Hunan, 1915.
- Ho Ting-kuei.—Anhui. Born 1880. A Graduate of the Book-keeping school of Hupu. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was appointed to assist in the organization of the police in Peking. Established Hsusung College, and Director of the Industry College of Kweichow. Was appointed to establish the Court and Procuratorate, and model prison of Kweichow. Author of Chuminchung, and other poetical and literary works.
- Ho Yu -Secretary to Cabinet, May 17, 1913.
- Ho Yu-shin.—Chekiang. Born 1877. Graduate of the Engineering Department of the Japanese Imperial University at Tokio. Investigator of the Chekiang Bureau of Investigation of Mines, 33rd year of Kwang Hsu, and in the 8th moon of the same year was appointed a member of the Commission of the examination of returned students. Proceeded to Japan to investigate into the system of Japanese Imperial Universities. 34th year of Kwang Hsu. Was Director to the Engineering Department of the Government University, Peking. Chief of the Department of Mines in the Ministry of Industry and Commerce. Was appointed Acting Director of Government University in Peking, December, 1912. Resigned, November, 1915.
- HSIA HENG-WU. Member of the Tsanchengyuan (Council of State).
- HISTA SHOU-KANG, (夏壽康)—Hupeh, Chinshih, Commissioner of Interior, Hupeh, May, 1912. Acting Chief Civil Administrator, Hupeh, October 30, 1912. Chief of Civil Service Bureau, September 25, 1913. Acting Chief Censor, July, 1914. Judge, High Court of Probation. Civil Governor of Hupeh 1920. Resigned March, 1921.
- HSIA YI-TING, (夏詩蹇).—Kiangsu. Born 1881. Began his diplomatic career as student-interpreter of Chinese Legation in Berlin. Has been Attache to the legations in Spain and Secretary to the legation at Paris. Was once Chargé d'Affaires of the Legation in Spain. Consul General in Yckohama, Japan. Councillor of the special diplomatic mission sent to Belgium and France. In 1914, Mr. Hsia was Secretary to the Cabinet and later of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Was Councillor to the same Ministry under Minister Lu Cheng-hsiang, in 1915. Chief Secretary to the Commission for Studying of Politics. Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, officiating as Minister before the assumption of the office by Dr. Wu Ting-fang. Adviser to the President and to the Cabinet. Member of War Commission. Minister to Peru and Brazil.
- HSIANG HSIANG.—Chekiang. Born 1880. Graduate of the University of Columbia, U. S. A. Is the Councillor of the Ministry of Finance and a member of the Committee of the Bank of China. Chinputang. Is the author of A Comparison of the Administration of Four Countries. The Politics. The Recovery of Sovereign Rights, The Taxes, The Change to a Gold Standard, and The Salvation of the Country by Discharging the National Debts.
- HSIAO TU, (濟度).—Honan. Born 1871. First studied in the Kwangtung Naval School, then studied Railroads in Japan. Chujen. Was a magistrate in Honan during the Manchu regime. Chief Procurator for Honan since March 1919, under the Military Government.
- HSIEH, AUSTIN C. N., see Hsieh Ch'uan An.

- HSIEH CH'UAN-AN, (Austin C. N. Hsieh) (謝傳安).—Hupeh. Born 1884. Educated in America. At one time, Superintendent of Customs, Soochow. Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Honan since May 21, 1920.
- HSIEH SHU-LIN, (韵書林).—Fengtien. Born 1875. Graduate of Normal and other schools in Fengtien. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. In the 3rd year of Hsuan Tung, from the 2nd to the 5th months, he was made Chairman of the Society for the Prevention of Plague in Liucheng. Manager of Ming Hing Bank. Chinputang.
- HSIEH YIN CHANG, (謝侯昌).—Kiangsu. Born Jan. 31, 1877. Educated in Japan. Appointed Commissioner of Education September 1917. Wrote several books on public and social education. Second class Chiaho decoration.
- HSIEH YU-YUAN.—Kiangsu. Born 1886. Graduate of Peking Law College.

 A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.
- Hsin Han, (辛漢).—Kiangsu. Born 1877. Graduate of a University in Japan. In the late Dynasty he was a clerk in the Minchengpu, and the Chief Procurator of Chekiang. After the Restoration, Chief of the Library of Nanking and Magistrate of Nanking district, and Director of the private Law School of Nanking. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Judge, Court of Justice, Liaoyang. Member, Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce. Chinputang.
- Hs:u CHI.—Manchu. Deputy Lieutenant-General, Plain Yellow Banner, until September, 1911. Lieutenant-General, Manchu Bordered Blue Banner, June 20, 1913.
- HSIUNG CH'ENG-CHANG, (達成章).—Szechuan. Born 1885. Graduate of Political Science Department of a Japanese University at Tokio. Was during Ching dynasty a member of Board of Interior and also judge at various courts in Shansi and Hellungkiang. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Secretary to the ex-President Sun at Nanking. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913. Now engaged in educational work in his native province.
- HSIUNG HSI-LING, (熊希齡).—Hunan. Metropolitan Graduate of 1894. A prominent Hanlin scholar, who subsequently studied abroad in Japan and Europe. He was an intimate friend of the reformer Kang Yu-wei, and after the latter's downfall he was arrested, but promptly released. He held posts in the Boards of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce of Kiangsu and Fengtien, was Acting Commissioner of Foreign Affairs in Hupeh in 1910, and at the time of the Wuchang outbreak was Salt Finance Supervision Commissioner at Mukden. He accompanied Tuan Fang on his foreign mission in 1905. On the outbreak of the Revolution he went south and joined the republicans, becoming President of the Republican Committee in Hunan. He was appointed Minister of Finance in the first Republican Cabinet, and was responsible for the conduct of the loan negotiations with the International Group from the time of his arrival in Peking until he resigned, in June, after Tang-Shao-vi gave up the Premiership. He continued to be employed by the Government in the capacity of Chief of a Commission for the negotiation of foreign loans after his resignation, and it was he who was mainly responsible for negotiating the Crisp Loan. Subsequently Lieut. General of Jehol until appointed Premier, July 31, 1913. Finance (Additional), September 11, 1913. Director-General of the National Oil Administration, 1915. Director of Flood Relief, Chihli. Director-General of the Grand Canal Improvement Board, 1917 ..

- HSIUNG KE-WU, (熊克武).—Szechuan. Born 1882. Graduated from the Tang Ping Military College in Japan. Commanded the 5th Szechuan Army. Has been Defence Commissioner of Chungking and of Szechuan Frontier. Toward end of 1920, was appointed Civil Governor of Szechuan by the Peking Government.
- HSU CHEN-PENG, (涂振鹏).—Kwangtung. Brigadier-General, Vice-Minister of Navy, since May 4, 1918. Second class Wenhu Decoration, Second class Pao Kuang Ta Shou Chiaho Decoration.
- HSU CHIEN (George Chien Hsu), (谷麻).—Anhui. Born 1872. Chinshih and Hanlin of the late Ching Dynasty. Graduated from the Chin Shih Kuan (Law College for Hanlins) Appointed by Tai Hung Tsi, Chief Justice of Peking Local Court with instructions to reorganize that Court along modern lines. In 1907, became Attorney-General of the Peking Higher Court. Represented China at the International Prison Conference, Washington, 1910. Resigned from office at the outbreak of the Revolution, 1911. Was made Vice-President of the Supreme Court after peace pact in Shanghai. Became Vice-Minister of Justice, 1912. Resigned after half year's service, and joined Dr. Sun Yat-sen. Practised law in Shanghai. Joined the Christian Church, 1916. Again was Vice-Minister of Justice in the first Tuan Chi-jui' Cabinet under President Li Yuan-Lung. Resigned at the dissolution of the Parliament. Joined Dr. Sun in Canton where the Military Government was established. There he became Minister of Justice and concurrently Dr. Sun's representative on the Administrative Council Proceeded to Paris as representative of the Canton Military Government and also unofficially of Chinese Christian Churches, serving as adviser to the Chinese Peace delegation. Upon return from Paris, joined the Tientsin and Peking Yi Shih Pao ("Social Welfare") as their Editor-in-Chief, while he retained nominally his post in the Canton Government. Resigned from Yi Shih Pao, May 1920.
- HSU CHIH-CH'EN, (徐之琛).—Yunnan. Born Aug. 1884. Studied in the Yunnan Provincial College and in a French School in Annam. Special Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Yunnan since Aug. 3, 1918. Third class Chiaho, Wenhu (Canton Military Government) and a third class medal of award from the French Government.
- HSU CHIH-CH'I, (徐之聚).—Chekiang. Born 1869. Chujen. Appointed Chining Taoyin, Shansi, Aug. 1916. Author of Muling Chenshou and a work on salt administration. Non-partisan. Fourth class Chiaho decoration.
- HSU CHUNG-CHIH, (許崇智).—Kwangtung. Born 1881. Graduated from the Military Officers' Training Schol of Japan. Has been training officer of the Tenth Foochow Army. Brigadier General of the 20th. Army Brigade. Now General of the 14th Army Division.
- HSU EN-YUAN, (徐恩元).—Chekiang. Born 1885.—Studied in Nanyang College, Shanghai and graduated in Finance from the University of London. Vice-Chief of the Board of Audit. Governor of the Bank of China.
- HSU, GEORGE CHIEN, see Hsu Chien.
- HSU HSIN-LU, (Singloh Hsu), (徐新六).—Hangchow, Chekiang. Born 1890. Educated in the Nanyang College, Shanghai; University of Birmingham; University of Manchester; Ecole des Sciences Politiques. B.Sc. B. Com. Councillor, Ministry of Finance, 1914. Secretary, 1917. Third class Chial.o and Wenhu decorations.
- HSU LAN-CHOU, (許蘭洲).—Chihli. Born 1877. Lieutenant-General. Now Brigadier General in the Fengtien Army, stationed in Shensi.

- HSU MING-SHIH, (清午有性).—Shantung. Born 1876. Graduated from the Provincial Normal School of Shantung. Chairman, Shantung Provincial Educational Association since July, 1917.
- HSU NAI-LIN, (徐如霖).—Kirin. Appointed Civil Governor for Kirin, Dec. 4, 1919. Second class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- HSU PAO-HENG, (許寶德).—Chekiang. Chujen. Received various minor appointments among the Boards during Ching dynasty, Secretary to Cabinet, May, 1912. Chief of Department of Civil Service, October 18, 1912. Additional Temporary Acting Chief of Rewards Department, July 29, 1913. Confirmed in latter post, September 25, 1913. Acting Vice-Minister of Interior, 1914.
- HSU SHAN-CHING. Consul-General in Panama.
- HSU SHENG CHIN, (徐聲金).—Hupeh. Born March 1, 1874. Graduated in law from a Japanese College. Presiding Judge, Kansu Higher Court of Justice since Dec. 1918. Second class Tashou Chiaho decoration.
- HSU SHIH-CH'ANG, (徐世昌).—Honan. Probationary Grand Councillor, June, 1905. Minister of Government Council, June, 1905. President, Board of Police, October, 1905. Grand Councillor, February, 1906. Removed from Grand Council, November, 1906. Special Mission to Manchuria, December, 1906. President of Board of Interior, December, 1906. Viceroy of Manchuria, April, 1907. President of Board of Communications, February, 1909. Director-General, Tientsin-Pukow Railway, July 1909. Grand Secretary, February, 1910. Grand Councillor, August, 1910. Appointed Vice-Premier in Prince Ching's Cabinet, in May, 1911. Removed from that post, and appointed Vice-President of the Privy Council on November 1, 1911. Chief of General Staff, November, 1911. High Commissioner for Training Imperial Guard, and Grand Guardian to the Emperor, December, 1911. Relieved of post on General Staff, February, 1912. On the resignation of the Prince Regent was appointed, with Shih Hsu, Grand Guardian of the Emperor. A "Sworn Brother" of President Yuan Shih-kai. Secretary of State, 1915. With Chao Erh-hsün, Li Ching-hsi, and Chang Chien received the title of "The Four Friends of Sungshan" (i.e. of Yuan Shih-kai). On the failure of Yuan Shih-kai's attempt to establish a monarchy Hsu Shihchang resigned his Secretaryship and retired to Honan. Returned to Peking, November, 1916, to mediate between the President, Li Yuanhung, and the Premier, Tuan Chi-jui. During the unsettled period, 1917-18, he remained detached from Peking politics, but without losing his influence over the contending factions. On September 4, 1918, elected President of the Republic of China, at a joint meeting of the Senate and House of Representatives of the so-called "Tuchuns' Parliament," by 425 out of 436 votes.
- HSU SHIH-CHANG, (徐世章).—Tientsin. Born 1888. Educated in the Peking Language School and in Belgium. B.Sc. in Commerce. Formerly Director Pukow-Hsinyang-Chow Railway, Managing Director, Tientsin-Pukow Railway. Director-General, National Railway System. Vice-Minister of Communications, since Aug. 1920. Second class Tashou Paokuang Chiaho, Tashou Chiaho, and Wenhu decorations. Brother of President Hsu Shih-chang.
- HSU SHIH-YING, (許世英).—Anhui. Born 1872. President of High Court of Justice at Mukden. September, 1908. Chief Justice of the High Court at Peking, May, 1912. Minister of Justice, July, 1912. Sent to Great Britain, Germany, France, Russia, Italy, Austria, Belgium, Holland and other countries to investigate the judicial system. Was

also sent to the United States of America to attend the Eighth Conference on Prison Reforms. Has been in the services of police and judiciary for fifteen years. Resigned, September 4, 1913. Chief Civil Administrator Fengtien, October 13, 1913. Governor of Fukien, 1915. Minister of Communications, 1916; resigned, May, 1917.

HSU SHOU-SHANG, (許壽裳).—Chekiang. Born 1883. Educated in Japan, graduating from the Tokio Higher Normal School. Was member of the Ministry of Education and teacher in the Imperial Peking University, Higher Normal School in Peking, Dean of Faculty, Chekiang Provincial Normal School. Appointed Commissioner of Education for Chekiang since November, 1917. Author of various lecture notes on Education, Geography, etc. Second class Tashou Chiaho decoration.

Hsu, Shöwin Wetzen, see Hsü Wei Chen.

HSU SHU-TSENG, (深村資).—Kiangsu. Was private Secretary to ex-Marshal Tuan Chi-jui. Sent to Japan to Study Military Science by Tuan. Secretary-in-Chief of the Cabinet; resigned, November, 1916. Played a prominent part in Peking in 1917-18. Sent on a special mission to Japan, October, 1918. During the armed struggle between the Chihli military leaders and Anfu Club, Hsu, when was commanding General of the North-West Frontier Army, was in Chief Command. After the Anfu army was defeated, Hsu fled for refuge in the Japanese Legation from which he mysteriously escaped and remains at large since winter, 1920. Generally referred to as "Little" Hsu.

Hsu, Singloh, see Hsü Hsin Lu.

HSU TING-CHUEH, (Chu Kin-hou), (徐廷實即徐建嶽).—Kwangtung. Born 1877. Prepared in Shanghai. Entered the Per Yang University in Tientsin before going to America to study Textile Industry. Upon his return to China, Hsu was appointed Secretary to the Commissioner of Industrics for Fengtien. Later, was made Director of Bureau of Mines in Fengtien. Was Managing-Director of the Peking-Mukden Railway up to 1920.

HSU TING-SHENG.—Kiangsi. Born 1878. Graduate of Yi Hsueh Kuan, Peking, and of High Normal School at Tokio. Was President of the Chinese Republican Association (branch office) at Kiangsi, 1911. Chief of the Education Department, Kiangsi, 1912. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan, 1913. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

HSU WEI-CHEN, (Shöwin Wetzen Hsü), (企雜長).—Chekiang. Born 1881. Educated in the Nanyang College, Shanghai, Law School, University of Chicago, U.S.A., Law School, The Indiana University, U.S.A., LL.B. Law Compiler, Board of Communications, Judicial Officer of the Second class. Board of Navy, Councillor, Board of Education and member of Law Bureau in the late Ching Dynasty. Member. Ministry of Finance, 1912. Justice, Supreme Court, August 1912. Legal Adviser to the Garrison Commissioner of Shanghai, 1913. Justice, Higher Special Court, Nov. 1917., Member, Court of Equity, July, 1918. Chief Justice, Higher Court of Justice for Shansi since May 1920. Wrote and translated several books on naval, and legal subjects. Second class Chiaho, Wenhu and Third class Paokuang Chiaho decorations.

HSU YUAN, (谷元).—Kiangsu. Customs Taotai, Tientsin, April, 1912. Controller of Customs, Tientsin, December 1, 1912. Deputy of Foreign Affairs, Tientsin, March, 1913, and Honan, June 12, 1913.

Hu Chao-tsung, (胡真宗).—Hupeh. Head of Department for Foreign Affairs, Hupeh, September 15, 1912. Title changed to Foreign Affairs Delegate, January 16, 1913.

- Hu Chia-ch'i, (胡家祺).—Tientsin. Born Jan. 28, 1871. Educated in a college in Japan. Secretary, Ministry of Education, Commissioner of Education for Kiangsu since February 12, 1919. Second class Chiaho decoration.
- Hu Ching-yi, (胡景伊).—Szechuan. Born 1879. Graduated from a Military College in Japan. Officiating Tutuh of Szechuan, July, 1912. Substantive, June, 1913. Member of the Tsanchengyuan, 1915.
- Hu Han-min, (胡漢民 alias Hu Yen Hung 胡衍鴻).—Kwangtung. Studied in Japan, where he met Dr. Sun Yat-sen, of whom he became a warm admirer. Assisted the revolutionary cause as editor of a newspaper at Hongkong. After the resignation of the Provisional Tutuh of Kwangtung he was appointed to the post, but soon afterwards relinquished it to accompany Dr. Sun to Nanking in the capacity of secretary. On the resignation of Dr. Sun, Hu accompanied him to Canton, where the Acting Tutuh Chen Chiung-ming promptly resigned in his favour-Hu was thereupon re-elected Tutuh by the Provincial Assembly. Is a member of the Kuomintang Commissioner of Pacification of Tibet, June 14, 1913. Deprived of all rank during the rebellion of 1912.
- Hu Hui.—Commissioner of Foreign Affairs, Kiangsi, April 15, 1913.
- Hu O-kung, (胡栗).—Hupeh. Born 1885. Educated in the Chiang Han College, Hupeh; High Agriculture College, Peiyang; and High Agriculture College, Kiangsi. The Commanding Officer of both water and land forces, Hupeh. Chief of the General Department of Tutuh's office. Vice-Chief of the General Staff, Han-Yang, and the Chief of the General Staff in the North, 1911. Director for the Bureau for devising means of livelihood for the Manchus at Ching-nan. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan Director, Peking Law College; adviser to the President's Office. Secretary to the Tuchun of Szechuan. A Taoyin in Szechuan, Commissioner of Administration for Hupeh, April 1921. Kunghotang. Author of The New Heaven and the New Earth, Literary Works of Ao-kung, etc.
- Hu, Sun see Hu Shih.
- Hu Shang-I, (胡茵素).—Yunnan. Born 1873. Chujen, Chinshih. Studied in the Chin Cheng Seminary, Yunnan and in Japan. Administrative Secretary for Shantung, 1915 Magistrate in Chihli. Taoyin in Charhar, August 1916. Author of Shih-ku-wen-chi. Non-partisan. Third class Wenhu and Chiaho, Second class Tashou Chiaho decorations.
- Hu Shiri, (Hu Suh).—(胡濱).—Anhui. Born Dec. 17, 1891. B.A. Cornell University (U. S A.); Ph.D. Columbia University. Professor of Philosophy and of English, Government University of Peking since 1917. Author, Outline of Chinese Philosophy, Vol. I, (1919) and of Shang Shi Hsi (1920).
- Hu SI-YI.—Salt Commissioner for Chêkiang, 1915.
- Hu Tuan-hui.—Chihli. Born 1881. Graduate of a Japanese University. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.
- Hu Wei-teh, (胡維德).—Chekiang. Minister to Russia, 1904. Junior Councillor, Board of Foreign Affairs, September, 1907. Minister to Japan, March, 1908. Star of 2nd Class, 1st Division, January, 1909, Junior Vice-President, Board of Foreign Affairs, May, 1910. Senior Vice-President, July, 1910 Adjoint Director-General of Revenue Council, July, 1910. Acting Minister of Finance, November, 1911. Appointed Acting Minister for Foreign Affairs in the Republican Government,

- pending the arrival from Europe of Lu Cheng-hsiang. Controller-General of the Revenue Council (Shuiwuchu), March, 1912. (He was nominated as Minister of Communications in July, but his name was rejected by the National Council.) Minister to France, Spain and Portugal, November 24, 1915. Minister to Japan, 1920.
- Hu Ying.—Commissioner for Land Reclamation, Chinghai, May, 1912. Being involved in the rebellion of 1913, he fled from China.
- Huang Chang.—Szechuan. Born 1878. A Graduate of a High School in Szechuan, and a University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan and a member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. After returning from Japan he was selected as member of the Provisional Szechuan Assembly, and was a teacher of the High School and Law School in Szechuan. He established a Law School and a Finance School in Szechuan. Kunghotang. Author of The Latest Method of Book-keeping.
- HUANG CHI-JUL .- President, High Court of Justice, Kansu.
- HUANG CH'IANG, (黃强).—Kwangtung. Born 1887. Obtained preparatory education in France. Studied in an aeronautics school in England. Graduated from the Peiyang military training school. Superintendent of Customs, Chaochow, Kwangtung and Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Swatow since August 24, 1920.
- HUANG CH'ING-LAN, (黃慶瀾).—Shanghai. Born 1874. Studied in the Normal School Department of Nanyang College, Shanghai. Chief, Higher Procurator's Court, Hupeh, Chief, Shanghai Local Court, 1911 to 1912. Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, Wenchow, Chekiang, 1918. Chin Hua Taoyin, December, 1918. Kuei-chi Taoyin since December, 1919. Author Comments on the New Criminal Code, Fourth, Third, Second class Chiaho; Second class Tashou Chiaho; Third class Pao Kuang Chiaho and Fourth class Wenhu Decorations.
- Huang Chun, (黃家).—Fukien. Born 1891. Educated in the Imperial Language School, Peking. Chujen. Secretary, Ministry of Communications, 1913. Councillor, Ministry of Finance, 1914. Secretary since 1916. Secretary to the President's office since 1918. Was editor of a newspaper and member of Kunghotang and Chinputang. Second class Chiaho decoration.
- Huang Chung-ying, Admiral.—Chief of Naval General Staff, April, 1912.
- Huang Hsi-ch'uan, (黃麗麗).—Kwangtung. Born 1851. Studied in Japan. Was a Taotai of Kwangsi; Chinese Consul at New York, and then transferred to Peru. In 1912, was High Adviser to the Tutuh of Kwangtung, and Adviser to the Defence Commissioner there, and then became Speaker to the Kwangtung Assembly. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Author of Comment on the Commercial Treaty between Great Britain and China, Experiments on Agriculture and Forestry (six volumes) etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1912.
- Huang Hsiao-chiu, (黃霄九).—Kwangtung. Born 1884. Studied three years in Japan. Secretary of Tutuh's office, Kwangtung, 1912. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Opened two newspaper offices, which were shut down by officials for promulgating revolutionary ideas, but was afterwards engaged as editor of Jen Chuan Pao. Kungmintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- HUANG JUNG-LIANG, (Huang Yungliang, or Y. L. Huang), (黃良菜).—Anhui. Born 1875. A.B. Studied in the University of Nanking, 1890-96.
 Teacher, University of Nanking, 1896-97, Dean, 1897-99. Studied Liberal

- Arts in Baker University, 1900-03, at Columbia University 1903-5. Second Translator, Chinese Legation, London, 1906-7. Consul in New Zealand, 1908-10. Consul General in Australia (Melbourne) 1910-13. Assistant Secretary, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1914-16. Special Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Chihli, since November 4, 1916. Appointed Minister to Austria 1920. Third class Wenhu and Second class Tashou Chiaho decorations.
- Huang Kai-wen.—Kwangtung. Born 1865. A Graduate of Peiyang Telegraph College. Acting Intendant of Industry, Mukden, August, 1907. Degraded to Sub-Prefect, August. 1909. Controller of Customs, Hankew, December 1, 1912. Chief of the Hankow office of the Kin-Han Railway Company.
- HUANG P'EI-SUNG.—Fukien. Military Optimus, 1880. Brigade General, Ch'iung-Yen-chen, Kwangtung, July, 1906. Defence Commissioner, Fukien, July 24, 1913.
- Huang Shih-ling.—Defence Commissioner, Kwangtung, August 10, 1913. Rewards Commissioner of the Forces, Kwangtung, August 8, 1913.
- HUANG, Y. L., see Huang Jung Liang.
- HUANG YEN-P'EI, (黃炎塔).—Kiangsu. Born Sept. 6, 1879. Graduated from the Nanyang University. D. Litt. Vice-Chairman, Kiangsu Provincial Educational Association, and Chairman, China Vocational Education Association. Member of Kiangsu Provincial Assembly. Author of various works on Commerce, Education and Travel. Second Class Chiaho decoration.
- Huang Yu-ch'ang.—Hunan. Born 1882. A Graduate of a Law College in Japan. Speaker of the Hunan Provincial Assembly. Chu Jen of the late Ching Dynasty. After the Revolution, was appointed Director of a Law School of Hunan, and Controller of the fifth final electoral district.
- Huang Yuan-wei, (黃元蔚).—Kwangtung. Born 1884. Educated in Japan. For sometime, Secretary to the Civil Governor of Kirin, later successively became member of Ministry of Finance, Bank of China, Bank of Communications. Last year (1920), member of Military Government in Canton as member of the Finance Department. Second class Chiaho decoration.
- HUANG YUN-P'ENG.—Szechuan. Born 1883. A Graduate of Tungwen College in Szechuan and of a University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan, and of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. In the time of Revolution he organized the Minkuo Lien-ho Hui in Shanghai, and was editor of the Shanghai Ta Kung Ho Jih Pao. Was a member of the Szechuan Provisional Assembly, and afterwards Director of the Chunchang Bank of Chungking. Kunghotang.
- HUANG YUNGLIANG, see Huang Jung Liang.
- HUNG TSZE-CHENG.—Military Governor of the Western Circuit of Kiangsi.
- I Wen-ku'el, (易文).—Kweichow. Born 1888. Educated in Japan. Chujen. Presiding judge, Yunnan Higher Court of Justice in 1917. Chief Procurator for Yunnan since March 26, 1917. Procurator, Central Procurator's Court since Feb. 1920. Third class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- Jai Ch'ang-chieh.—Shensi. Born 1870. Graduate of a University in Japan.
 A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

- JEN Ko-chow, (任可流).—Kweichow. Chujen. Started a Normal School and a law school. Chief, Auditing Bureau for Kweichow. Governor of Yunnau, 1915.
- JUAN CHUNG CHIH, (阮忠楠).—Anhui. Born May 31, 1865. Has been in civil service in Kirin since 1896. Was Taoyin and Commissioner of Foreign Affairs of the Kirin-Changchun district. Taoyin and Commissioner of Foreign Affairs of the I-Lan district, Kirin since April 5, 1914. Appointed Head of Bureau of Gold Purchase in Kirin, June 1, 1920. Third class, Second class, Chiaho; Second class Tashou Chiaho and Paokuang Chiaho decorations.
- JUNG HSUN.—A Manchu. Bcrn 1872. A Graduate of the abridged course in a Normal School in Japan, and a Graduate of the Law School for Nobles in Peking. Vice-President of the Ministry of the Interior and acting as Vice-Director of the Bureau of Mongolia and Tibet. Was Director of the Government University in Peking; sent to Japan to study the system of education; appointed to reform the Chung Wen Men Octroi; appointed to establish the Chief Police Office in Peking; the founder of Mongolian, Mohammedan, Tibetan newspapers, and Mongolian and Tibetan Schools. Chinputang.
- KALACHING, Prince see Kung Sang No Erh Pu.
- K'ANG P'EI-HANG.—Shansi. Born 1876. Studied in Japan after having graduated from Shansi University. At the end of a year he returned with several friends to start a revolution, but failing in his attempt in Mongolia, he was placed under arrest by the General there. Subsequently returned to his native place to do educational work. A mem ber of the Chung Yi Yuan. He does not belong to any party. Author of The Principle of Evolution, etc.
- K'ANG YU-WEI, (康有為).—Kwangtung. A well-known reformer, who started his campaign in favour of reform in the South by means of leaflets and lectures. Was received in audience by the late Emperor Kwang Hsu on June 14, 1898, on the recommendation of Weng T'ungho, the Imperial Tutor. He at once obtained a strong influence over the Emperor, whose famous reform decrees of 1898 were inspired by K'ang. Was proscribed, and ordered to be decapitated when the Empress Dowager effected her coup d'état, but escaped, and subsequently resided abroad, principally in America. An advocate of the adoption of Confucianism as the State Religion. Returned to China under the Republic. Was prominent in Peking at the time of Chang Huan's restoration of the Manchu dynasty, July, 1917, and figured in the appointments made at that time.
- KAO CHUANG-KAI. Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Amoy, April 25, 1913.
- Kao Chung но, (高仲和).—Hupeh. Born 1875. A Graduate of a Law School in Japan. After the Revolution he was appointed Councillor of the Tutuh's office, Hupeh. He led troops and captured several cities. and after the Declaration of the Republic he disbanded more than 4000 troops. He was editor of newspapers in Hupeh. A member of Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Author of Huifumong. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913. Member of Ministry of Interior.
- KAO ERH-CHIEN, (高爾麗)—Fukien. Junior Secretary. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, August, 1907. Lin-An-K'ai-Kung Tao, Yunnan, February, 1908. Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, Yunnan, February, 1908. Commissioner for the Macao Delimitation, 1909. Senior Councillor, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, July, 1910. Double Dragon, 2nd Class, 2nd

- Grade, June, 1911. Provincial Treasurer, Yunnan, July, 1911. Acting Provincial Treasurer of Szechuan, November, 1911. Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs; resigned May, 1918.
- Kao Ling-Yu, (高凌宗).—Chihli Chujen. Has been Commissioner of Education for Hupeh in the Ching Dynasty. Member of First Republican Parliament Appointed Vice-Minister of Industry and Commerce in the first Chin Yung Peng Cabinet of 1920.
- KAO SHEN.—Secretary, Ministry of Navy, September 8, 1912.
- Kao Sung-Ju, (高松如).—Chihli. Superintendent of Education and Industry under Manchu Government. Director, Hupeh Government Bank; Co-Director, Hupeh Government Mint. Superintendent of Mines in Hupeh.
- Kao Tseng-Chueh, (高增質).—Shensi. Chushi Police Intendant, Szechuan, spring, 1908. Pacificator in Shensi, November, 1911. Acting Civil Governor of Shansi, October 19, 1913.
- KENG CH'UN-NIEN.—Honan. Born 1883. Studied in Japan. A member of the Central Educational Society, and a member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Teacher and Director of various Schools. Chinputang.
- KENG YEN.--Councillor, Department of Legislation. Cabinet, August 31, 1912.
- KING, P. C., see Chin Pang Chêng.
- Koo, V. K. Wellington, see Ku Wei Chun.
- Ku Chung-hsiu, (谷頭秀).—Chihli. Born 1874. Graduate of the Peking Government University and a returned student from Japan. Was a Teacher in the High Normal School in Chihli. Was a Secretary to the Governor of Chekiang, establishing eight judicial courts in the Province. After the outbreak at Wuchang, was elected to proceed to Wuchang and Nanking to assist in the organization of the new Government, and was appointed to draft the Provisional Constitution, etc. Was a member of the late National Council, and of the Chung Yi Yuan, and member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Kuomintang. Author of Outlines of Chinese History, Moral Philosophy, The Essentials of a Constitution, Financial Reforms, and a book on Poetry, Translator of several works from foreign languages into Chinese. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913. Minister of Commerce, 1916.
- Ku I-TS'ENG, (顧儀會).—Peking. Born Oct. 9, 1888. Graduated in the Law Department of Government Law School, Peking. Secretary, Ministry of Interior since Nov. 2, 1919. Third class Chiaho decoration.
- Ku Ming-te.—Sinkiang. Born 1869. Studied in Sinkiang High School, and a graduate of the school established by Tzu Yi-chu. Vice-Speaker of Sinkiang Provincial Assembly. Chinputang.
- Ku P'in-Chen, (顧品珍).—Yunnan. Born 1881. Graduated from a Military School in Japan. Upon his return to China. Ku was engaged to train officers in Yunnan. Brigadier General of the 1st. Brigade and General of the 1st. Army Division. Joined the Canton Military Government and is the Commanding Officer of the Yunnan Allied Army.
- Ku Wei-chun, (Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo), (南維妇).—Kiangsu. Ph.D. in Law, Columbia University, New York. Member of Phi Beta Kappa Society. Secretary to Cabinet, May, 1912; retired July, 1912. Secretary to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, August, 1912; Councillor, 1914. Minister Plenipotentiary to Mexico, 1915. Was Minister at

Washington, till 1920, when was appointed Minister to London. Was a member of the Peace Conference of Paris, 1918-19. China's representative on the Council of League of Nations.

- Ku Yuan.—Secretary, Ministry of the Interior, June, 1012.
- Kuan Hai-ch'ing, (陽海清).—Mukden. Born 1882. Educated in the Imperial Peking University. Chujen. Was successively Director of the Mukden Provincial College, Law School, Language School. Secretary to the Military and Civil Governor. Appointed Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Fengtien February 1918. Author of "Lecture Notes on Logic." Second class Tashou Chiaho decoration.
- Kuan Keng-lin, (開春縣).—Kwangtung. Born November, 1880. Graduated in Japanese College. Studied Politics and Law in the Imperial Peking University for two and half years. Chinshih. Member of Board of Army 1903. Accompanied the Five Special Commissioners to study Government Systems in Europe and America, 1904. Member of Board of Communications, 1905. Assistant Director, Peking-Hankow Railway, 1910. Director, the same railway, 1912, to 1915. Member of Ministry of Finance, December, 1916. Department Chief, Ministry of Communications, July, 1917. Vice-Chairman and General Secretary, National Railway Association. Member, Finance Committee of the President's Office, Councillor Ministry of Communications, Jan. 1919. Chief, Publication Department in the same Ministry, July, 1919. Director, Hankow-Kwangtung-Szechuan Railway since July, 1920. Second class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- Kuan Mien-chun, (開冕红).—Kwangsi. Born 1870. A Chinshih and Hanlin Compiler of the late Dynasty. Was Vice-Director of the Ching-Chang Railway in 33rd year of Kwang Hsu, and has been Director of the Ching-Chang and Chang-Sui Railways since the 3rd year of Hsuan Tung. Received a 5th class of Chia-ho Order in the 2nd year of the Republic of China. In the 31st year of Kwang Hsu was appointed second-class secretary to proceed to the United States, Russia, Germany, Austria and Italy with the Investigation Commissioners to study the political situations abroad, and at that time he travelled in Japan, Great Britain, France, Belgium and several other countries. Superintendent, Sha-hukou Customs, (Kuei-hua-cheng).
- Kuang Fu.—Mongol Deputy Lieutenant-Governor of Ili, June, 1901. Retired, January, 1908. Acting Tartar General of Ili, June, 1909. Tartar General, April, 1910. Tartar General, Hangchow, February, 1911. Commissioner for Frontier, Ili, May, 1912.
- Kuang Fu-shao, (Fong F. Sec.), (閩富的).—Kwangtung. Born 1869.
 Studied in the Pomena College, University of California and Columbia University. M.A. Editor of the Commercial Press, Ltd., since 1908.
 Author, joint-author, compiler of various text books, reference books, etc
- KUANG SUN-MAO.—Kwangtung. Born 1860. A Graduate of Boston University. Engineer-in-Chief of the King-Chang and Chang-Sui Railways, and Superintendent of Workshops, since the 6th month of the 3rd year of Hsuan Tung. Has successively been Engineer, Engineer-in-Chiet, etc., of Tientsin, Tsin-Yu, Outside Shanhaikuan, Ping-Li. Hsinmintun, etc., Railways. Received a 5th class Chia-ho Decoration from the President.
- KUNG CHAO-HSIN.—Supervisor of the Canton Customs, 1915.
- Kung Cheng.—Kwangsi. Born 1886. A Graduate of the Japanese Imperial University in Japan A member of the Chung Yi Yuan and the Con

- stitution-Drafting Committee. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Kung Hsin .- Vice Minister of Gold Mining Bureau, 1915.
- Kung Hsin-chen, (建文法).—Anhui. Chief of the Salt Bureau, June, 1914. Concurrently Director of the Inspectorate General, 1915. Vice-Minister, Minister, of Finance, ex-Premier.
- Kung Sang No Erh Pu, (貢桑諾爾布) (Prince) (Kalaching).—Chief of the Bureau for Mongolia and Tibet, September, 1912. Prince of the Right Wing of the Kharach'in Tribe of the Chosot'u League of Inner Mongolia. Promoted from Second to First Class Prince in October, 1912, for loyalty to the Republic.
- Kung Yuan-k'ai, (護元凱).—Anhui. Born 1870. Graduated from Chin Shih Kuan. Hanlin 1903. Wei Ch'uan Taoyin, April, 1919. Author of T'o K'an Poems. Non-partisan. Fourth class Chiaho decoration.
- Kuo, Dr. P. W. see Kuo Ping-wen.
- Kuo Ch'ung-ch'u, (郭崇某).—Szechuan. Born August 22, 1882. Graduated from the Szechuan Higher Normal School. Studied for some time in the Peking Law College. Vice-Chairman, Szechuan Provincial Assembly since July, 1919. Member of Kuomintang. Fifth class Wenhu decoration.
- Kuo Hsi-jen, (郭希仁).—Shensi. Born Feb. 6, 1882. Studied in the Hongtao School and the Provincial College of Shensi. Chujen. Commissioner of Education for the Province of Shensi since April, 1920. Author of various works on irrigation, history, travel and diplomacy. Formerly member of Kuomintang. Second class Chiaho decoration.
- Kuo Chung-hsi, (郭宗熙) —Civil Governor of Kirin. Appointed Chinese President of the Chinese Eastern Railway, 1918.
- Kuo Kan-ch'ing, (郭幹館).—Chihli. Born April 23, 1883. Graduated from the Administrative Department of the Peiyang Officers' Training College. Director, Government Mint at Wuchang, since July 1918. Fourth class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- Kuo Ping-wen, (P. W. Kuo), (郭秉文).—Shanghai. Born 1880. Graduated from Lowrie Institute, Shanghai, of which he became a teacher. Served in Customs service in Shangkai, Kashing and Hangchow. He went to America in 1906, and attended University of Wooster and Columbia University and received the degree of Ph.D. from the latter. After his return to China, he was editor in the Commercial Press and Dean of Government High Normal College, Nanking. Appointed President of the same college.
- Kuo Tse-yun, (算順漢).—Fukien. Born 1882. Hanlin of the late Ching Dynasty. Studied in Waseda University, Japan. Customs Taotai of Wenchow and Chuckow, Chekiang. Police Taotai of Hangchow, 1911. Was twice Chief Secretary to the Cabinet during the establishment of the Republic and in Chien Nun-hsun's Cabinet. Again appointed Chief Secretary to the Cabinet of Chin Yun-peng, 1920.
- Lan Chien-shu, (監建院).—Fukien. Educated in the Naval College in Fukien. Senior member of Naval General Staff, April 1912. Commander in-chief of Chinese Navy since March 28, 1918. Fourth Order of Merit. Second class Wenhu, Tashou Chiaho and Paokuang Chiaho decorations.
- LEW YUK-LIN, see Liu Yu Lin.

- Li Chao-fu, (李肇甫).—Szechuan. Born November 4, 1885. Studied Law in Japan. President, Szechuan Provincial Assembly since July, 1919. Member Kuomintang.
- Li Chao-hsiang (Cheng), (李兆政).—Governor of Anhui, 1915. Created Marquis, 2nd Order, December, 1915.
- Li Cheng-fen, (李正芬).—Yunnan. Born October 7, 1856. Chairman, Yunnan Provincial Assembly since September, 1918. Fourth Class Chiaho decoration.
- Lt Chin-Min.—Fukien. Born 1878. Educated in a Japanese University. Chief of the Taxation Department of the Ministry of Finance.
- Li Ching-fang, (季經芳).—Anhui. An adopted son of the late Marquis Li Hung-chang. Minister to Japan. Minister to Great Britain, May, 1907. Acting Senior Vice-President of the Ministry of Communications, January, 1911. Retired in January, 1912.
- LI CH'ING-FANG. --Shansi. Born 1878. A Graduate of Shansi University and a University in Japan. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan and member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee and editor of Hsien Fa Hsin Wen. Was Chairman of Educational Society of Shansi. Chinputang. Author of The Construction of a Republic, etc.
- Li Ching-hsi, (李經義).—Anhui. Yung-Ning Tao, Szechuan, May, 1887. Salt Tao-tai, Hunan, August. 1893. Jud. Comm., June. 1897. Fin. Comm., Fukien, September, 1898, of Yunnan, January, 1899. Governor, Kwangsi, April, 1901, of Yunnan, June, 1901. Removed from office, May, 1902. Acting Governor of Kweichow, January, 1903. Governor, Kwangsi, May. 1904; retired, ill-health, October, 1905. Governor-General, Yun-Kuei Provinces, February, 1909. Member of the Tsanchengyuan, 1915. Director of the Land Survey Office, 1915. "Friend of Sungshan" (see Hau Shih-ch'ang). Elected Premier by both Houses of Parliament, May, 1917, but failed to take up appointment before the dissolution of Parliament, June, 1917
- LI CHING-HSI, (李景曦).—Fukien. Educated in the Naval College, Fuchow. Departmental Head, Ministry of Navy since July, 1917. Second class Wenhu and Third class Chiaho decorations.
- In Ching-Lien, (李景康).—Chihli. Born 1868. Educated in Leng Chi College, Chihli, and a Chinshih of the late Dynasty. Was a Teacher of various High Schools and Universities. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Author of several Chinese poetical and other works which have not yet been printed. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Lt CHING-MAI, (李經邁).—Anhui Son of Li Hung-chang. Minister to Austria-Hungary, September, 1905-7: Jud. Comm., Honan. March, 1908; resigned, November, 1908. Acting Junior Vice-President, Minchengpu. March, 1911. Acting Vice-Minister of Yu-chuanpu, January, 1912. Relieved of post, January, 1912.
- Li Ching-ming.—Secretary, Ministry of Finance, September 1, 1912. Augitor, Audit Bureau, November 22, 1913
- Li Chun.—Szechuan. Brigade General, Nan-Ao Chen, Kwangtung, August. 1905. Acting Brigade General, Pakhoi, July, 1907. In charge of piracy suppression in Canton Waters, 1907-8. Admiral, Kwangtung, July, 1909. Commissioner for Pacification, Kwangtung, August 14, 1913. Created (Brevet) General, August 14, 1913.

- Li Han-ch'eng.—Honan. Born 1867. Graduate of a University in Japan. Hsiutsai of the last Dynasty. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Established a girls' school in Hengshan. Senior Clerk of the Ministry of Industry and Commerce, July, 1912 Resigned, March, 1913. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Li Han-fang, (本合方)—Shantung. Born Nov. 30, 1882. Graduated from the Science Department of the Higher Normal School, Peking. Vice-Chairman, Shantung Provincial Educational Association since July, 1917. Director, Girls' Normal School of Shantung since March, 1920. Fifth Class Chiaho decoration.
- Li Hou-cht, (李厚基).—Kiangsu. Born 1872. Commandant of Strategic Positions at Woosung, August 19, 1913. Tuchun of Fukien, 1916. Civil Governor of Fukien.
- I.1 HSIEH-YANG.—Yunnan. Born 1881. Engineer. Graduate of Technical Department of Electricity and Railways in the Ohio University, U.S.A. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Li K'ai-hsien.—Hupeh. Acting Chief Civil Administrator, Kwangtung, September 13, 1913. Retired, July, 1914.
- Li Keng-Yuan.--Yunnan. Member of House of Representatives concerned in the "second revolution" of 1913. Joined Yunnan rebellion, 1915.
- LI KWEI-YUAN. (李奎元).—Peking. Lieutenant-General. Commanding General of the 11th. Army Division.
- Li Koo-chen, (李國珍).—Kiangsi. Born 1881. A Graduate of a University in Japan. After returning from Japan was engaged as a Teacher in various Law Schools. Was instrumental in bringing about the Revolution in Kiangsi, and when the people there determined to kill Governor Feng, it was due to his speeches made before a great audience that the Governor was sent out of Kiangsi unmolested. Was a member of the Kiangsi Assembly and the late National Assembly. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan and a member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Chinputang. Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Commerce; of Education, 1916.
- LI LIEH-CHUN, (李烈鈞).—Kiangsi. Studied six years in Japan. Tutuh of Kiangsi: dismissed and ordered to Peking, June 9, 1913. Deprived of all ranks and outlawed for his part in the rebellion, July 15, 1913. Reinstated as Tuchun of Kiangsi, 1916.
- Li Ping, (李欽).—Kansu. Born Feb. 17, 1887. Graduated from the Kansu Provincial College. President, Kansu Provincial Educational Association, since June, 1920. Kuomintang. Seventh class Chiaho decoration.
- Lt Ping-shu.—Fengtien. Born 1877. A Graduate of a Normal School in Tokio. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was a Teacher and Director of several Normal Schools. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- LI SHENG-TO, (李成鐸).—Kiangsi. Born 1862. Chinshih. Director, Peking University. Minister to Japan and Belgium. Magistrate of Peking. Special Commissioner to foreign countries to investigate politics. Governor of Shansi. Political Adviser to the President. Chairman of the Senate, dissolved after the Anfu defeat in 1920.
- Li Shih-hao, (李思浩).—Chekiang. Born 1880. Chujen of the late Ching Dynasty. Secretary in the Ministry of Finance in his early age, and

- concurrently rendered his service in the Salt Administration. Vice-Minister of Finance, 1916. Minister of Finance, 1919, Director-General of the Currency Reform Bureau. Director-General, Salt Administration. Member of the Anfu Political Club. Since the defeat of the Club he has been in hiding.
- LI SHIH-WEI. (李士偉).—Member of the Tsanchengyuan. Resigned on becoming President of the Bank of China, 1915. Minister of Finance, May 1921.
- Li Shu-Ying.—Shensi. Born 1883. A Graduate of the High School in Shensi, and a University in Japan. Was editor of the Min Lik Pao, Shanghai, and was a member of the Advisory Council in Nanking and Provisional National Council in Peking. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Li Ting-Hsin, (李鼎新).—Fukien. Councillor, Ministry of Navy, September 5, 1912. Chief of Naval General Staff, December 11, 1912. Created Admiral (brevet), August 20, 1913. Commander-in-Chief of the Navy. Director of Kiangnan Arsenal. Cashiered of rank, but retained in office, December, 1915. Minister of Navy, May 1921.
- Li Ting-vu.—Acting Military Assistant Governor of Ulliassutai, August 24, 1912. Acting Deputy Commissioner of Occupation, Kiukiang. August 1, 1913.
- LI TSAI-KENG, (李載度)—Honan. Born 1883. Graduate of a Law School in Japan. Was Secretary of the Ministry of Communications and a member of the Advisory Council in Nanking Government. Was editor of Hsin Hwa Pao. Tientsin. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Author of The details of the Mines of Honan. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Li Tso-jen, (李作人).—Shantung. Born 1850. Has been in business for over fifty years. President of Chefoo Y. M. C. A. since 1916.
- Li Yi-Yu.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Pakhoi, April 25, 1913.
- Lt Ying-ch'uan.—Kwangtung. Born 1876. Graduate of Law School in Kwangtung. Was Director of a Normal School at Kwangtung; Delegate for prison reform at Wenyuenhsien; a practitioner in the local court of Kwangchow; Judge in Yuyuanhsien and Nanhsunghsien; and a lawyer in Kuangchow. Member of the Senate. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Li Yuan-Hung, (黎元洪).—Hupeh. Born Oct. 19, 1864. Studied at Peiyang Naval College, graduating in 1888 after a course of six years. Served on a cruiser during the Sino-Japanese War. After the war he was engaged for service at Nanking by Vicerov Chang Chih Tung. On the latter's transfer to Wuchang he accompanied him to assist in the organization of the modern troops there. Thence he went to Japan for two years to study fortification. On his return he became a Major in the cavalry in 1895, and subsequently held several commands, including that of Colonel in the 21st Brigade. He was in charge of the organization of the Changteh Manoeuvres in 1905 and for the five following years served on the staff at Wuchang. On the outbreak of the Revolution at Wuchang he was coerced into accepting the command of the revolutionary forces, whose operations he directed thenceforward. He was mainly instrumental in arranging for the Shanghai Peace Conference. After the abdication of the Manchus he was elected Vice-President of the Republic, and appointed Chief of the General Staff and Tutuh of Hupeh. (November, 1911) Given rank of General on September 7. Acting Tutuh, Kiangsi June 8. 1913. Re-elected Vice-

President of the Republic. Oct. 7. 1913. On the death of Yuan Shihkai, he became President of the Republic (June, 1916), resigned July 1, 1917, when Chang Hsun carried out his coup d'etat. Author of various lecture notes, not published. Formerly member of Chinputang but resigned therefrom when accepting Chief of General Staff. First Order of Merit. First class of Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.

- Lt Yuan-Liang.—Shantung. Born 1884. A Graduate of the High Normal School in Shantung. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Teacher to several Schools in Shantung. Chinputang.
- Li Yung-han, (李永瀚).—Honan. Born Sept. 1859. Studied in a normal school in Japan. Vice-Chairman, Honan Provincial Assembly. Formerly of Kunghotang.
- Liang Ch'eng-chiu.—Kwangtung. Born 1859. A Hsiutsai of the late Ching Dynasty. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Director and Teacher of several Schools, and is now one of the promoters of the Society for the Revival of Confucianism. Chinputang. Author of a poetical work in Chinese. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- LIANG CH'I-CHAO, (梁散超).—Kwangtung. A brilliant scholar, who is kest known as K'ang Yu-wei's most prominent disciple. Started the first Chinese daily paper in Peking, a small leaflet, containing an editorial only, which was given away gratuitously. Was proscribed, and had to fly for his life, after the coup d'état of 1898, and thereafter resided in Japan, where he conducted a paper in Chinese, devoted to the cause of reform. Like K'ang Yu wei, advocated a limited monarchy in preference to a Republic. Returned to China after the Revolution, and then conducted a daily paper in Tientsin, advocating the spread of political education, and the diffusion of general knowledge among the Chinese. Appointed Vice-Minister of Justice in Yuan Shih-kai's first Cabinet, but refused to accept office. Editor of Yung Yen Pao ("Justice"), a bi-monthly periodical, and one of the chief organizers of the Chinputang Minister of Justice in Hsiung Hsi-ling's Cabinet, September 11, 1913. Resigned 1914. Appointed Head of Currency . Bureau, which was afterwards incorporated in the Ministry of Finance, November 15, 1912. Resides in Tientsin. Visited Paris during the Peace Conference.

LIANG CHING (see Chentung Liang Ch'eng).

LIANG CH'ENG, Sir Chentung, see Chentung Liang Ch'eng.

Educated in America. Taotai, Newchwang, April, 1906. Customs Taotai, Tientsin, April, 1907. Shanghai Taotai, October, 1907. Secretary of Board of Foreign Affairs, March, 1908. Chief Secretary to Government of Fengtien, July, 1908. Recalled to Peking, June, 1909. Vacated office, November, 1909. Offered post of Vice-Minister of Communications in Yuan Shih-kai's Cabinet of November 16, 1911, but did not accept. Nominated for the post of Minister of Communications in the first Republican Cabinet. but the nomination was rejected by the National Council. Elected Minister of Foreign Affairs on September 16, resigned November 15, 1912. Resides in Tientsin. Organized and was President of North China International Society of Famine Relief 1920-21.

LIANG, L. K., see Liang Lai K'uei.

Liang Lai-K'UEI (L. K. Liang), (梁寶奎).—Fushan, Kwangtung. Born 1879. Studied at Peiyang University, Anglo-Chinese College, Tientsin. Studied Agriculture in Massachusetts Agriculture College, 1904-8; at

Cornell University, 1908-10. B.S., M.S. Chinshih, 1910; Hanlin, 1911. Director, Experimental Station, Department of Agriculture, Government University, Peking, 1911-12. Councillor, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, July 31. 1912. Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1912-1913. In business since 1913. Author of Alkali Investigation; Wheat.

Liang Lan-Hsun, (梁陽動).—Kwangtung. Born 1871. Studied in the Queen's College, Hongkong. Associate of Arts Oxford University, Eng. Formerly Chinese Consul General at Melbourne, Australia. At present (1920), Superintendent of Customs, Kwangtung, and Commissioner of Customs for Kwangtung Translated a certain book on the Science History of the 19th century. Second class Tashou Chiao decoration.

LIANG, M. T., see Liang Ju-hao.

Liang Pet.—Kwangsi. Born 1880. A Graduate of the High Preparatory School at Kwangsi. Was a Teacher to several Schools. During the Revolution he assisted in the capture of the military depôt in Kwangsi. Chairman of Kuomintang branch at Nanning, and editor of the Mintengpas and Hsichiangpas of Kwangsi. Member of the Senate. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LIANG SHANG-TUNG .- Secretary to the Ministry of War, 1915.

LIANG SHIH-YI, (梁士詩).—Kwangtung. Secretary to Tang Shao-yi on the occasion of his mission to India in 1906. Chief of Department of Board of Communications, 1907. Director of Railways in Board of Communications, 1907. Assistant Director of Chiao T'ung Bank, 1907. Senior Secretary of Board of Communications, July, 1909. Vacated appointments of Director of Railways and Assistant Director of Chiao T'ung Bank, February, 1911 Acting Vice-Minister of Communications, Nevember, 1911. Acting Director of Imperial Chinese Posts, December, 1911. Acting Minister of Communications, January to March, 1912. Appointed Chief Secretary in the President's Office after the abdication of the Manchus (April, 1912). Acting Vice-Minister of Finance, May-September, 1913 Member of the Tsanchengyuan (Council of State). Minister of the Shuiwuchu. Director-General of the Customs Administration, 1915. Director-General of the Bureau of Taxes, 1915. Resigned after failure of Yuan Shih-kai's monarchical project, of which he was one of the chief promoters. Speaker of the Senate May-October, 1918.

Liang Tun-yen, (梁故意).—Kwangtung. Educated in America. For several years interpreter to Viceroy Chang Chih-tung. Customs Taotai, Hankow, October, 1903, and at Tientsin, October, 1904. Minister to America, May 1907 (but did not proceed). Junior Vice-President of Board of Foreign Affairs. July, 1908. Acting President of same Board. January, 1909. President of Board of Foreign Affairs. January, 1909. Associate Controller of Grand Revenue Council, March, 1910. Retired on account of illness, July, 1910. Minister to America, 1911. Appointed Minister for Foreign Affairs in Prince Ching's Cabinet of May, 1911, and Yuan Shih-kai's Cabinet of November, 1911. but did not return to China to take up the post. Minister of Communications, 1915. Figured in Chang Hsun's Monarchical Coup.

Liang Yen-Fang, (汉教芳).—Kwangtung. Born 1888. Graduated from the Department of Politics of the Kwangtung Law College. Presiding Judge, Higher Procurator's Court for Kwangtung since May 28, 1918. Fourth Class Wenhu Decoration.

Liao Hsi-hsien.—Szechuan. Born 1885. A Graduate of Tungwen College in Szechuan, and a University in Japan. Was editor of Szechuan Jih

- Pao, and he established a Finance College in Szechuan, which at present has more than 500 students. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kunghotang.
- LIAO HSIEH, (廖 矮).—Honan. Born October 26, 1875. Studied in the First Normal School, Honan. Vice-Chairman, Honan Provincial Assembly. Formerly of Kuomintang.
- LIEN WEN-CH'ENG.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Changchun, April 25, 1913.
- LIN CHENG-HSUAN, (林正煌).—Kwangtung. Born 1885. Graduated from the Kwangtung Provincial College. Chairman, Kwangtung Provincial Assembly since 1919
- LIN HAN, (林翰).—Fukien. Born 1879. Graduated from a college in Japan. Teacher in the Public Law School of Fukien and Vice-Speaker of the Fukien Provincial Assembly since 1913. Fourth class Chiaho decoration.
- LIN Lo-CHUAN.—Fukien. Born 1879. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Editor of several Fukien newspapers. Chairman of the Association of the Representatives of Chinese Residents Abroad.
- Lin Pao-yi, (林葆懌).—Fukien. Born 1862. Graduated from the Navigation Department of the Foochow Naval College. Commanding officer in the Pei Yang Navy Division. Admiral of the First Fleet of Chinese Navy.
- LIN Po-Ho—Kwangtung. Born 1875. Established a Po-Ai Hospital in Chunhwahsien, and was Director for two years. Was four years Director of a Middle School in Au-men. In the time of Revolution he was appointed by the Tutuh of Kwangtung Pacificator of San Lo, and after two months he was made the Chief of General Department under the magistracy of Shuntehhsien. A member of the Y.M.C.A. Committee in Canton. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- LIN SUNG-LING, (林松齡).—Kirin. Born June 1868. Educated in the Ts'ung Wen Seminary, Kirin. Commissioner of Industries since July 1920. Fourth class Chiaho decoration.
- LIN CHANG-MIN, (林長民).—Fukien. Secretary to the Council of State, 1915. Minister of Justice, July, 1917.
- LIU CH'ANG-PING.—Acting Legal Commissioner, Sinkiang, December 16, 1912.

 Acting Head of Law Preparation Department, Sinkiang, January 19, 1913.
- LIU CHEN-HUA, (劉鎮華).—Honan. Born Oct. 1883. Graduated in the Law College, Peking. Civil Governor of Shensi since April 1, 1918.
 Also Commanding officer of the "Sung" Army. First class Tashou Chiaho and Second class Wenhu decorations.
- LIU CHENG-YUAN. Assistant Director of the Military Affairs of Shensi.
- Liu Chih-Chieh, (劉之蒙).—Chihli. Japan educated. Commissioner of Defence and Commander of 19th Army Corps, Kiangpeh, May, 1912. Commissioner of Occupation of Soochow, August 27, 1913.
- Liu Chih-Chow.—Shensi. Born 1881. A Graduate of the Shanghai Li-hua College. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. After returning to his native place from Shanghai, he was engaged as Lecturer in several Schools. When his Province adopted the cause of Revolution, local "tufeis" arose and he trained a band of volunteers to suppress them, and he also held Fencheng against Sheng Yun for more than seventy days, until the inauguration of the Republic. Chenyuhui.

- Liu Ching-jen, (劉鏡人).—Kiangsu. Minister to Holland, September, 1911 Minister to Russia, September, 1912. Appointed Minister to Japan, but did not proceed.
- Liu Chu-wu, (劉祖武).—Yunnan. General. Appointed Civil Governor of Yunnan on outbreak of revolt. 1915.
- Liu Chuan-shou, (劉傳綬).—Fukien. Born 1870. Graduated in 1888 from the Peiyang Naval College, Tientsin. Was Councillor, and Department Head, Ministry of Navy. Vice-Minister of Navy. Counsellor of the Chiangchunfu, April 1918. Adviser to the Ministry of Navy. Non-partisan. Fourth order of Merit. Second class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- Itu Chung-hua, (創鍾華).—Yunnan. Born 1875. Graduated from Japanese Colleges. Studied in two Normal schools in Tokio. Is teacher of Analytical chemistry in the Provincial Technical College and First Government Middle School. Vice-Chairman, Yunnan Provincial Educational Association, in 1911-1915. Re-Elected August 1919. Author and compiler of various lecture notes in chemistry.
- LIU FENG-SHU.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Ichang, April 15, 1913.
- Liu Fu, (創報).—Honan. Born 1883. Educated in Japan. Compiler, Law Compiling Bureau, Nanking Provisional Government, 1912. Councillor, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, May, 1912. Councillor, Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, Member of Political Conference. Examiner, Civil Service Examination, January, 1914. Councillor, Ministry of Interior, Member of Committee on Convocation of Parliament, Honorary Member of Financial Investigation Commission of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, Adviser to the Industrial Lottery Bureau, Director of Bureau of Port Development of Hankow, since January 1917. Wrote several books on Salt administration, mining, politics, diplomacy, finance, etc. Second class Chiaho decoration.
- LIU HUAI-SEN, (劉槐森).—Acting Commissioner of Occupation of Kiukiang, August 4, 1913.
- Liu Hui-T'ung, (劉會司).—Kirin. Born April 10, 1888. Studied in the Kirin Normal College. Vice-Chairman, Kirin Provincial Assembly since September 1, 1918.
- Liu Hsien shih, (劉顯世).—Kweichow. Chiangchun and Acting Civil Governor of Kweichow. Ordered to vacate his post, February, 1916. (Joined Yunnan revolt.)
- Liu Jo-Tseng, (劉若會).—Chihli. Chinkiang Taotai, January, 1906. Proctor, Bureau of Government Administration, June. 1906. Vice-Director of High Court of Justice, November, 1906. High Commissioner for Revision of Law, March, 1911. Resigned May, 1912. Provincial Treasurer, Chihli, December, 1912. Acting Chief Civil Commissioner, Chihli, July 7, 1913.
- Liu Kan.—Shensi. Born 1874. Graduate of Hengtao College. A Hsiutsai of the late Dynasty. The Speaker of the Shensi Assembly. Was a Teacher at several Schools, and was Vice-Speaker of the Provisional Assembly of Shensi. Kuomintang.
- LIU KUAN-HSIUNG, (劉元雄).—Fukien. Educated at the Royal Naval College, Greenwich, and subsequently given a commission in the Chinese Navy. Distinguished himself at the Battle of the Yalu in the China-Japan war. Appointed Minister of the Navy in the first Republican

- Cabinet, which post he has held ever since. Admiral Liu was a member of the National Council at Nanking, and also of the Southern Delegation which was sent to Peking to congratulate President Yuan Shih-kai upon his election. Acting Minister of Communications in July. Acting Minister of Education, January 13. Inspector-General of Southern Seas, August 14, 1913. Acting Tutuh of Fukien (additional), November, 1913. Minister of the Navy, July, 1917.
- Liu Kuei-yi, (劉揆一).—Hunan. Educated in Japan, where he studied law and politics. Formerly edited several papers, and it was as a journalist that he achieved distinction during the Revolution. Minister of Commerce and Industry, August, 1912. Resigned July 18, 1913.
- LIU LIEN.—Kiangsi. Born 1875. Studied Law in Japan. Was Teacher to several Government and private Schools in his own Province. Was for six months Chief of the Department of Justice in Kiangsi. Chief of the Commission for the examination of judicial officials. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Liu Ling-Chou, (劉凌麗).—Shensi. Born 1857. Vice-Chairman, Kansu Provincial Chamber of Commerce 1908-1909. Chairman since Sept. 1920.
- Liu P'eng-shou, (創意壽).—Chihli. Born 1875. Graduate of Chihli High Normal School. Chujen of the late Ching Dynasty. Since the 33rd year of Kwang Hsu he was engaged as a Teacher in various High Schools in Chihli. Was a member of Red Cross Society during the Revolution; and established twelve Primary and High Schools in his native place during the past ien years. Member of Chihli Assembly, and President of the Committee of the House, June, 1912. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan Chinputang. Author of Outlines of Military History for Normal Schools, and Outlines of the History of the West.
- LIU Shih-hsun, (劉式訓).—Kiangsu Born 1868. Studied French for fifteen years both at Shanghai and Peking. Was Chinese Minister to France, and Acting Minister to Germany and Portugal. Member of the Arbitration Department of the Hague. President's Adviser on Foreign Affairs. Vice-Minister of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, January to August 8, 1913. Resigned. Special Commissioner Foreign Affairs, Shanghai. Vice-Minister of Foreign affairs, 1920.
- LIU SUNG-HUI.—Director of the River Conservancy in Honan, 1915. Assistant Resident at Kobdo, 1915.
- LIU TSUN-HOU. (劉存厚).—Szechuan. Born 1885. Graduated in Infantry Department of a Japanese Military College. Major General in the Army. Commanding General of the 2nd Army Division and concurrently Defence Commissioner of Chungking. Now Tuchun of Szechuan.
- Liu Yu-lin, (Lew Yuk Lin), (劉玉麟) Kwangtung. Born 1862. Graduated from Philips Academy Andover, Mass., U. S. A. Lil. D. (Cantab Hon. causa) Consul-General in South Africa, October, 1904. Attached to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1908. Chinese Representative at the International Opium Commission, Shanghai, January, 1909. Junior Councillor, Waiwupu, July, 1910. Minister to Great Britain, September, 1910-4. High Political Adviser to the Military Government. Salt Commissioner for Kwangtung and Kwangsi. Second class Double Dragon Medal, Tashou Chiaho. First class Wenhu Decoration. Received also decorations from Belgium, Portugal, Italy, Russia and Germany.
- Liu Yuan, (劉 黃).—Chihli. For sometime Manager, Tientsin Branch of the Bank of Communications. Was in banking business in Peking. Vice-Minister of Commerce, October 25, 1913.

- Lo Ch'ao-han, (羅朝漢).—Studied in the Peiyang Telegraph School.

 Director, Chinese Government Telephone Administration, Peking Office, since April, 1912. Fourth class Chiaho decoration.
- Lo Chia-Heng.—Kiangsi. Born 1883. Graduate of a University in Japan. Established a Law School in Kiangsi and was teacher there. When the Revolution broke out in Wuchang, was appointed Chief of the Bureau of Civil Affairs, Kiangsi. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Lo P'AN-HUI.—Kwangtung. Born 1881. Graduate of Tientsin University; of Harvard University and Chicago University, U.S.A. Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Kwangtung, April 25, 1913. In 1911 during the Revolution he was appointed an official of the Legislative Bureau and Vice-Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs, Kwangtung, and then Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs. Kuomintang. Author of The Laws of China in English.
- Lo Pei-chin, (羅佩金) --Yunnan. Born 1879. A Graduate of the Military Officers' Training School. Major-General of the Army. While in Japan he edited a periodical called Yunnan Cha Chih. which promulgated revolutionary doctrines. Invited to Yunnan by Viceroy Li Ching-hsi, and given various appointments. Before the Revolution was appointed Brigadier of the 74th Brigade. By the help of General Tsai Ao the whole Province was captured and troubles from local "tufeis" suppressed. Was appointed Military Delegate to Peking. and Military Councillor of the President's Office. Chief Civil Administration of Yunnan, January, 1913; resigned April 4, 1913. Tuchun of Szechuan.
- Lo Tsung-Yee.—Fukien. Born 1886. Cambridge University; B.A. (Economics Tripos). A Chin-shih and Hanlin Compiler of the late Dynasty. English Secretary to the Bovernor of Kwangsi, 1909. Joined Wai-wu Pu, 1910. Transferred to the Chiao-tung Pu on the establishment of the Republic. Director of the College of Communications, 1912. Secretary in the President's Office and Member of the Office of the Master of Ceremonies, 1913. First Secretary of the Chinese Legation in London, July, 1914.
- Lo Wen-kan, (羅文幹).—Born 1888. Studied law in England. M.A. Oxon, and member of Inner Temple. Judicial Commissioner for Kwangtung, 1911-1912. Procurator-General. 1912-1915. Vice-President, Law Codification Commission since 1916. Professor of Law, Peking Government University and School for Judicial Officers.
- Lou Tseng Tsiang, see Lu Chêng-hsiang.
- Lu Ch'ang-yu, (陸長佑).—Kiangsu. Born Nov. 12, 1862. Commissioner of Administration for Chihli since July 1917. Second class Tashou Chiaho and Fourth class Wenhu decorations.
- LU CHENG-HSIANG. (Lou Tseng Tsiang). (PART).—Kiangsu. Born 1871. Educated in the Shanghai Language School and the Tung Wen Kuan, Peking. Interpreter of the Chinese Legation at St. Petersburg, 1890. Attaché, 1892. Secretary, 1895. Deputed to accompany the Chinese Envoy Extraordinary to the Coronation of the late Tsar. Chinese Delegate at the Hague Conference in 1899. Minister to the Netherlands, 1905. Delegate at the Second Hague Conference in 1907. Minister to Holland (renewed) in 1908. Negotiated the Consular Convention with Holland. Sent to the Hague to exchange ratifications of this Convention in 1911, and thence proceeded to St. Petersburg to undertake negotiations with the Russian Government for the revision of the Treaty of 1831. Appointed Minister to Russia. Elected Minister of Foreign

Affairs in the first Republican Cabinet, and arrived at Peking on May 24th to take up the post. When Tang Shao-yi, the Premier, was granted sick leave, Lu was appointed acting premier, and on the resignation of Tang, was elected Premier but retained the portfolio of Foreign Affairs. Was on sick leave during August and September and resigned Premiership on September 23. On the resignation of Liang Ju-hao, he was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs, November 15. 1912. Resigned September 4, 1913. Master of Ceremonies at President Yuan's Inauguration. Acting Secretary of State and Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1915. Chief Delegate to the Paris Peace Conference. President, National Famine Prevention Commission since May 19, 1921. Non-partisan. Chiaho and Pao-kuang Chiaho decorations.

- Lu Chin, (陸錦).—Chihli. Born 1880 Studied Military Science in a Japanese School. Was connected with the Army in Chihli and Shantung before he became Assistant-Chief of the General Staff and Commanding General of the 9th. Army Division.
- Lu Hai-huan, (呂海寰).—Shantung. Minister to Germany, June, 1897. President of Censorate, August, 1901. Minister of Foreign Affairs, November, 1901. Commissioner for Treaty Revision, 1902. President of Board of War, January, 1906. Again Minister of Foreign Affairs, June, 1907. President of Revenue Council, Sept. 1907. Director-General of Tientsin Pukow Railway, January, 1908, from which post he was removed in July, 1909. Placed in charge of Red Cross work, by Imperial Decree, during the Revolution, an appointment which was confirmed by the President in September, 1912. President. Shantung Famine Relief Society, 1920-21.
- Lu Hsiao-chil, (路孝植).—Shensi. Born May 3, 1883. Studied Agriculture in Japan. Chujen. Appointed Commissioner of Education for Hupeh, July, 1919. Third class Chiaho decoration.
- Lu Hsing-lin, (陸杏林).—Kwangsi. Born 1880. Studied Local Administration in Kwangsi. Member, Tzu Yi Chü, Kwangsi, 1909. Ch'ing Lien Taoyin since October, 1915.
- LU HSUEH-CHIH.—Shensi. Born 1882. A Graduate of a University in Japan.
 Acting Secretary of the Ministry of Education, appointed May 17, 1913.
 Was Director of the Agriculture College, Hunan, and teacher of a
 High School, Kiangsu. Was Chief of Technical Department of the
 Ministry of Education.
- LU HUNG-YING.—Military Governor of the East Circuit in Kansu. 1915.
 Vice-President of the Law Compilation Bureau, 1918.
- Lu Kung-wang, (日本道).—Chekiang. Born 1880. Graduated from the Army Officers' Training School, Paoting. Was a training officer in Chekiang for a number of years after graduation. During the Revolution of 1911, was Chief of Staff, Chekiang Revolutionary Army. Became General of the Chekiang 11th Brigade in 1912. In June of the same year, was appointed commanding Officer of the 6th. Division. One month later, was appointed Defence Commissioner of the Kashing-Wuchow district, Che. Appointed Tuchun and Civil Governor of Chekiang. March. 1916. Commander-in-Chief, Chekiang Provincial Army, July, 1918. Became Chief of Staff, Canton Military Government in April, 1920. Second Order of Merit. First class Tashou Chiaho and Wenha decorations.
- LU PEN-CHUAN. Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Shansi, April 15, 1913.
- Lu Pr.—Secretary Department of Civil Service. Cabinet. August 17, 1912. Secretary to Cabinet, October 18, 1912.

- Lu Pu-o, (盧步峨).—Shansi. Born 1877. Vice-Chairman, Shansi Provincial Chamber of Commerce.
- Lu Tao, ([監囊]).—Kwangsi. Commanding Officer of the 2nd Brigade of the First Army Division of Kweichow. Succeeded General Liu Hsienshih as Commander-in-Chief of Kweichow troops, 1920.
- Lu Tiao-Yuan. (呂調元).—Anhui. Chinshih. Was magistrate of Tientsin. Governor of Hupeh. Governor of Shensi, 1915.—Civil Governor of Anhui, 1920.
- Lu Ting.—Acting Councillor, Ministry of Finance, January 23, 1913. Councillor, Ministry of Finance, April 1, 1913.
- 1.u Ting.—Kiangsu. Born 1873. Studied in Japan. Was Chief of the Audit Department in the Ministry of Finance, Chief Secretary of Tzu Cheng Yuan, and is Councillor to the Ministry of Finance and member of several Committees of the Ministry. Kuomintang. Author of Banking System, etc.
- Lu Tsung-yu, (陸宗興).—Chekiang. Born 1875. A Graduate of a University in Japan, and was appointed to accompany the Commissioners to foreign countries to study political affairs. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan, and Chairman of the Committee of the Bank of Communications. Was a Teacher in the Government University in Peking, 1902; Chief Secretary in Chungwenmen Octroi, 1903; studied politics in foreign countries, 1904; a member of the Tzu Cheng Yuan, 1909; Vice-President of the Board of Finance, 1911. Chinputang. Author of The Currency, etc. Minister plenipotentiary to Japan, 1915. Managerin-Chief of the Currency System Bureau. Was forced to retire from officialdom by strong public sentiment against the so-called pro-Japanese officials in May, 1919.
- Lv Yung-hsiang, (廣永祥).—Shantung. Born 1867. Educated in the Military School, Shanhaikwan. Military Commissioner of Shanghai and Woosung, January 6, 1917. Tuchun of Chekiang. August 16, 1919. First Order of Merit. Tashou Chiaho decoration.
- Lu Yung-ting, (陸禁廷).—Kwangsi. Born 1856. At one time a leader of bandits, but reclaimed and took military service under Government. Commander of an expedition under Viceroy Tsen Chun-hsuan against bandits in Kwangsi. Formerly a Brigade-General of the troops on the left bank of the West River. Tutuh of Kwangsi, 1914, afterwards Chiangchun. In the Civil War of 1917-18 joined the South and became Minister of War in the Canton Government. Inspecting General of Liang Kwang.
- Lung Chi-kuang, (龍海光).—Yunnan. Tso-Chiang Tao. Kwangsi. January, 1908. Commander-in-Chief, Kwangsi, March, 1909. Pacificator, Kwangtung, July 26, 1913. Tutuh and Acting Chief Civil Administrator, Kwangtung, August 3, 1913. Additionally to Command the Water Police, and Ships of War on the West River and coasts of Kwangtung, August 22, 1913. Chiangchun, Kwangtung, 1914. Field-Marshal. Created Duke of the First Order, December, 1915. Created Prince of the second degree for services in Yunnan, January, 1916.
- LUNG CHIEN-CHANG, (龍建章).—Kwangtung. Born 1872. Councillor. Ministry of Communications, May, 1912. Civil Governor of Kweichow. 1914; cashiered January, 1916. Minister of Communications, 1917.
- LUNG CHIN-KUANG, (龍観光).—Younger brother of Lung Chi-kuang-General, Military Governor of Canton and Huichow. Appointed (1916). High Commissioner of Investigation in Yunnan.

- Ma An-Liang, (馬安良).—Kansu. Born 1853. Mohammedan. Brigade-General, Ili, October, 1903. Commander-in-Chief, Kansu, April, 1912. Second class Wenhu and Chiaho decorations.
- MA CHENG-PING.—Taoyin of the Liukiang Circuit in Kwangsi, 1915.
- Ma CHIN-HSU, (馬金袞).—Anhui. Formerly Brigade-General in several places. Commander-in-Chief, Kansu, February, 1912. Commander-in-Chief, Chihli, April, 1912.
- MA CHUN, (馬旋).—Shansi. Born February 4, 1882. Studied at University of Shansi, M.A., and Imperial College, London. Inspecting Commissioner for Hotung, 1913. Supervisor General, Eighth Mining District, Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, 1914. Member of Parliament. Hotung Taoyin, Shansi, since May 22, 1918. Was member of Mintang: now non-partisan. Third class Chiaho and Fifth Wenhu decorations.
- MA FU-HSIANG, (馬福祥).—Kansu. Brigade-General, Palikun, New Dominion, March, 1909. Acting Chief Executive Officer, Kokonor, July-August, 1912. Commander of Guards Division, Altai. October 10, 1912. Was Military Commissioner of Ninghsia, Kansu. Appointed Tartar General of Suiyuan, 1921.
- Ma Hsiao-chin. (馬力進).—Kwangtung. Born 1887. Studied in the following schools: School of Political Science, Canton; St. Stephen's College, Hongkong; Columbia University, U.S.A., and New York University, U.S.A. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was an officer of the Southern Branch of Tung Meng Hui eight years ago. Was editor of several papers and periodicals, and has been Peking correspondent to several papers and periodicals. Kuomintang. Author of The Diary of a Travel, The Literature of the World, The Diary of Shiaocheng, The Latest General Outline of Finances, Liberty of the Citizens, and The Suffragists. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Ma Liang, (馬良).—Chihli. Born 1876. Lieutenant-General, Defence Commissioner of Tsinan, Shantung, and Commander of the 2nd Division of the Frontier Defence Troops, till 1920.
- Ma Liane, (馬良).—Kiangsu. Born 1840. Acting President of Peking Government University, October 18, 1912; resigned, December 27, 1912. Appointed one of President's nominees on Political Council, November, 1913.
- Ma Lien-chia. (馬蹄甲).—Lt.-General in the Army. Commanding General of the first Anhui Army and Defence Commissioner of Southern Anhui. Appointed Assistant to the Tuchun of Anhui on the removal of Ni Ssu Chung, 1920.
- Ma Lin-yi, (馬勒曼).—Honan. Born 1874. Chujen. Was interested in education in his native province, having been the Head of Paoching (Honan) Educational Association, Superintendent of Honan Middle School, of Railway School, etc Later he joined the Board of Education as its Counciller. Member of Commission for Preparation of Constitutional Government. Was sent to Kansu as Commissioner of Education for that Province. Industries, of Finance, Taoyin of P'ingliang, etc. Was Commissioner of Education for Anhui till 1920 when he became the Commissioner of Education for Chihli. Promoted to Vice-Minister of Education, May, 1921.
- Ma Lung-Piao, (馬龍標).—Shantung. Lieutenant-General, Mongol Red Banner, January, 1911. Commander of 5th Division, Assistant Com-

- missioner for Defence of Shantung, March, 1912. Inspector General of Peking December, 1917.
- MA TSUN-FA, (馬存發).—Yunnan. Military Governor of the Chaochow Circuit in Kwangtung, 1915.—Lieut. General in the Army. Brigade General Kwangtung first mixed Brigade. Age 56.
- MAO CHI-CHENG.—Councillor, Ministry of War, December 12, 1912.
- MEI KUANG-HSI, (梅光義).—Kiangsi. Born 1878. Graduate of a University in Japan, and Chujen of the late Ching Dynasty. Started various colleges at Hupeh; introduced the system of Procuratorate and Prison Reform in Hupeh and Kwangtung; started the Library in the Government University at Peking; and established the Society for the Investigation of Buddhism at Hupeh and the Buddhist Society at Peking. Is the author of Outlines of Buddhist Doctrines. Chief of the Department of Navigation of the Ministry of Communications, 1914. Member, Civil Court of Equity. Superintendent of Telegraphs at Tsinan. Chief, Bureau of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs.
- Meng En-yuan, (孟恩遠).—Chihli. Born 1855. Military Governor of Kirin. 1915.
- MIAO CHING-KUEI, (古經駐).—Chihli. Born December 14, 1859. Vice-Chairman, Kirin Chamber of Commerce since 1913.
- Mo Yung-Hsin, (莫梁新).—Kwangsi. Promoted from a common soldier. Defence Commissioner in Kwangsi and Kwangtung. With the support of General Lu Yung-ting, Mo was made Tuchun of Kwangtung. Was driven back to Kwangsi by General Chen Chiung Ming in 1920.
- Mou Chi-cheng.—Shantung. Born 1879. Graduate of Peivang Military School; after having graduated in a Japanese college, he again graduated in the Japanese Institute for Military Officers. Major-General, November, 1st year of the Chinese Republic, and appointed Councillor of the Ministry of War the same month. After returning from Japan at the end of the reign of Kwang Hsu he was made Tutor and Director of several Military Schools; was Brigadier of the Mixed Brigade of Shensi, 2nd year of Hsuan Tung; was the Chief Councillor for military affairs in Shensi; and Councilor for Military Affairs in the President's office. A non-partisan. Translated several military works.
- Mu Chao-Jen.—Shantung. Born 1879. Graduate of the Normal School in Shantung. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Has hitherto been engaged in educational works for more than ten years. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Mu Lin.—Kweichow. Born 1877. Graduate of a Normal School in Japan, and a Chujen of the late Dynasty. In the 1st year of Hsuan Tung he was elected member of the Tzu Yi Chu of Kweichow, and a member of Tzu Cheng Yuan. Established more than 100 primary schools. Chinputang. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan.
- NA Tung, (那何).—Manchu. Sub-Chancellor, Grand Secretariat, December 1899. Minister, Tsung-li Yamen June, 1900. Junior Vice-President, Board of Revenue, November, 1900. Special Embassy to Japan, July, 1901, when he ceased to be Minister of Tsung-li Yamen. Minister, Board of Foreign Affairs, February, 1902. President, Board of Revenue, June, 1903. President, Board of Foreign Affairs, and member of Finance Committee, November, 1903. Grand Secretary, January, 1906. Member Revenue Council, January, 1908. Inspector-General of Troops. November, 1908. Junior Guardian of Heir Apparent. December, 1908. Grand Councillor, January, 1909. Acting Viceroy of Chihli, June, 1909. Ap-

- pointed Vice-Premier on the formation of Prince Ching's Cabinet in May, 1911. Relieved of office, and made Vice-President of the Privy Council on November 1, 1911. Retired into private life during the latter stages of the Revolution, and lived at Tsingtao.
- NA YEN-7'v (Prince No) (那達圖).—Mongol. A Prince of the First Order, and Jassak of the Khalka Mongols. Superintendent of Customs at Peking, September, 1896. Grand Chamberlain, November, 1903. Lieutenant-General of Bordered Yellow Banner, 1903. One of the Mongolian members of the National Council and of the Kung-ho-tang, and Tartai General of Tarbagatai, 1914.
- NAN KUEI-HSING, (南柱擊).—Shansi. Born 1883. After graduation from the Imperial Shansi University, Nan went to Japan for further education, graduating from a Police Officers' Training School there. Sian Superintendent of Police and Commissioner of Police for Shansi since June, 1917. Second class Wenhu and Paokuang Chiaho decorations.
- NEMOKAWANGTON.—Mongol. Duke of the 2nd Order. Prince of the 3rd Order, February, 1916.
- N1 Ssu-ch'ung, (保嗣本).—Anhui. Born 1871. Acting Commissioner for Internal Affairs, Heilungkiang, August. 1908; substantive, April, 1909; degraded, December, 1909. Provincial Treasurer, Honan, December. 1911; relieved, July 21. 1912. Appointed to reorganize Honan Frontier Affairs, July 5, 1912. Occupation Commissioner, Huanpei (Anhui North ern Circuit), July 22, 1913; additionally, Huanpei, Intendant, July 22, 1913. Tutuh of Anhui, and additionally Acting Civil Administrator, July 27, 1913. Field-Marshal, 1915. Created Duke of the First Order, December, 1915. Remained in Anhui as Tuchun; resigned October, 1920.
- NIU CH'UAN-SHAN, (鈕傳養).—Born 1877. Was a magistrate and later a Taotai in Ching Dynasty. Acting Civil Governor for Shensi, 1914. Director of the Sale of Tobacco and Wines, 1915-16. Appointed Vice-Minister of Finance, June 1, 1921.
- NIU YUNG-CHIEN. (鈕永建).—Kiangsu. Born 1873. Studied in Hupeh Military Academy and in Japan and Germany. Assistant Chief of General Staff. Nanking Military Government. Was Military representative stationed at Shanghai. Councillor to President. April 19. 1912. Joined the rebellion of 1913 and outlawed. Visited America 1914.
- Ou-yang Ch'i.—Kiangsi. Born 1878. Studied in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Director and Engineer of the Yukan Coat Mine in Kiangsi, and was an Assistant of the War Office at Kiukiang during the time of the Revolution. Kuomintang. Author of Essays on Kungyang, Kuliang, and the Book of Rites, A Collection of Poems, Old Chinese Mining Methods and the Implements used, a few novels, and other works. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- OU-YANG CHEN-SHENG, (歐陽族學).—Honan. Born 1882. Studied in the Wen Pu Tung School Hupeh and graduated in Political Economy in the Waseda University, Japan. Delegate from Honan in the Provisional Parliament of Nanking, 1911. Member of Senate in the Provisional Parliament of 1912. Member of House of Representatives, 1913. Secretary, Military Government in Canton, August 23, 1918, Vice-Minister of the Canton Military Government, since May 27, 1920. Author-compiler of History of Chinese Philosophy (in printing). Member of Kuo Min Tang, 1912; of Cheng Hsueh Hui, 1916. Third class Chiahodecoration.
- Ou-yang Wu, (歐陽武).—Kiangsi. Born 1878. Defence Commissioner. Kiukiang. Dismissed and degraded, July 31, 1913. Brought to Peking

- for trial, and sentenced to eight years imprisonment. Specially pardoned by the President.
- P'A LOTA.—Administrator of Altai, May 1912.
- PAN FU, (潘復).—Shantung. Born 1871. Chujen. Industrial Taotai of his own province, 1911. Appointed Chief of Industrial Bureau, 1913. Organized Lufeng Spinning Mill in Tsinan, Autumn, 1915. Shortly afterwards, he was appointed Associate Director of National Conservancy Bureau. In December. 1918, he was appointed Associate Director, Grand Canal Improvement Board and he still holds this office. Vice-Minister of Finance since December 1919. Concurrently Director of National Salt Administration.
- PAN HSUEH-HAI.—Kiangsi. Born 1876. A Graduate of a University in Japan. Chief of the Kiangsi Bureau of Legislature for one year, after the Revolution, and member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Non-partisan. Translated into Chinese a Japanese book on *The Constitution of the Japanese Empire*. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- P'AN TSU-YI.—Fukien. Born 1882. Graduate of Fukien High School, and a returned student from Japan. In 1912, editor of the *Chung Pao* in Fukien, but the paper was closed by force by Pan Shiao-sung. In the same year was elected member of the Fukien Assembly, and a member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Is connnected with several commercial enterprises, such as tea, paper, silk, and medicine. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Pao Kwei-ching, (鮑貴卿).—Fengtien. General. Graduated from the Kai Ping Military Academy. Appointed Defence Commissioner of Tatung, Anhui, 1913. Director, National Military Training Institution. Appointed Military Governor of Heilungkiang, July, 1917, and concurrently appointed to act Civil Governor. Military Governor of Kirin, 1919. Director-General Chinese Eastern Railway. Retired 1921.
- Pei Chi-Hsun, (麦其動).—Honan. Graduate of Peiyang Military Academy.
 Military tutor of Shantung Army. Defence Commissioner of Kirin
 and Changchun, 1915. General first Mixed Brigade.
- P'ENG CHAO-HUANG, (彭兆璜).—Honan Born May, 1873. For sometime studied in the normal school in Honan. Graduated from a Law College in Tokio, Japan. Chairman, Honan Provincial Assembly. Formerly of Kuomintang.
- P'ENG K'E-HO, (彭克荷).—Kweichow. Born Oct. 1893. Studied in the Wu Cheng Middle School (Peking) and graduated from a school in Japan. Vice-President (acting for the President), Kweichow Provincial Educational Association.
- P'ENG T'EO-SHENG.—General. In command of troops on the Tibetan frontier.
 1910-18. Besieged by Tibetans in Chamdo for three months; capitulated April, 1918.
- PI KUEI-FANG, (里柱芳).—Peking. Born 1865. Studied Russian Language in Peking. Councillor at Tarbagatai, May, 1912. Temporarily in charge as Tutuh and Chief Civil Administrator, Heilungkiang, July 16, 1913. Promoted full General of Manchu Banner Forces, November 28, 1913. High Military Adviser to the President.
- PI WEI, (畢竟).—Anhui. Japan-educated. Commissioner for Foreign Foreign Affairs, Anhui, April 15, 1913. Member, Ministry of Communications.
- PIEN SHOU-SUN, (Z. S. Bien), (卡壽孫).—Kiangsu. Born in Hupeh 1884. Studied in the Chentan College, Shanghai and Brown University, (U.S.A.)

- Ph.B. (in Economics) Member, Organization Commission, Bank of China and Secretary, 1912. Assistant, Department of Note Issue, 1913. Associate Chief Auditor, 1914, Chief Auditor, Aug. 1914. Organized the Chung Foo Union Bank, 1916, Chief Auditor and Manager of its Tientsin Office, 1914. Assistant Manger, Bank of China, Tientsin Office, 1918, Manager, 1919 to date. Fifth class Chiaho decoration.
- PIEN SHOU-CHING, (達守斯).—Chihli. Born 1884. A graduate of the Law School of Tokio College, Japan. Teacher of Police and law schools in Paotingfu. In 1910 Pien helped in organizing the Bureau of Judicial Affairs in Chekiang. Appointed Chief of the Bureau of Administrative Affairs in Chekiang. Was elected Vice-Speaker of the Provincial Assembly of Chihli in July, 1912, and later became Speaker till present. Mr. Pien is also an Adviser to the Police Administration of Chihli, and Director-General of the Ling-Ching Mining Corporation, Tientsin. Promoted and was elected Chairman of the Anglo-American-Chinese Commercial Club, Tientsin. Elected President of the Anti-Narcotic Society, Tientsin, (Chihli Branch of the International Anti-Opium Association.) Manager, Ho Pei Jih Pao, Tientsin.
- PIEN YIN-CH'ANG, (alias Pien Yueh T'ing), (卞蔭昌字月庭).—Chihli. Born 1870. During the Manchu regime, Mr. Pien was a Senior Secretary of the Board of Works and of Board of Justice. Was elected Associate Director, Tientsin General Chamber of Commerce. When the Tientsin Merchants' Volunteer Corps was organized, he became its Commanding Officer. Member of Tientsin Red Cross Society. In 1913, Mr. Pien was elected Chairman of the Executive Committee of the United Chamber of Commerce of Chihli. In the same year, he was appointed President of Panama Exhibition Participation Committee. Counsellor to the former President Feng Kuo-chang, who was then Tutuh of Chihli, September, 1913. Adviser to the Civil Governor of Chihli, 1914. Became the President of the Association for the Protection of China's Sovereignity and Territory during the Lao Hsi Kai dispute. Was commissioned by the Minister of Finance to investigate taxation conditions in Chihli in connection with tariff revision, 1917. elected member of Parliament, August, 1918. President, Tientsin General Chamber of Commerce, November, 1919 up to date. President National Associated Chamber of Commerce.
- Pc Wen-wei.—Tutuh of Anhui, July, 1912. Educated in the Military Academy, Wuchang. Commander of Battalion of 9th Division at Chinkiang, 1911. After the fall of Nanking took an expeditionary force to Pukow and defeated the Imperialists. Given rank of Chung Chiang (Lieutenant-General) in October, 1912. Frontier Commissioner of Shensi and Kansu, June 30, 1913. Deprived of all ranks for participation in the rebellion, July 27, 1913.
- Pu-er-ko-te.—Outer Mongolia. Born 1869. Visited Japan in March of 28th year of Kwang Hsu. Educated in Chinese and Mongolian literature. A Mongolian Meilin, representing the tribe of Dzasaktu of Outer Mongolia. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Chinputang.
- P'u Jun.—Manchu. Vice-President of Board of Works in October, 1903. Assistant Military Governor, Kobdo, May, 1908. Vacated office and came to Peking for service, September, 1911. Military Governor of Uliassutai, May, 1912.
- P'u Lun (Prince), (油倫).—Manchu. Great-grandson of the Emperor Tao Kwang, who died in 1850. Prince of the Fourth Order. Vice-President of Imperial Clan Court, September, 1900. Lieutenant-General, Bordered Yellow Banner, February, 1901. Imperial Commissioner. St. Louis Exposition, 1904. Superintendent, Peking Octroi, September, 1907. President of the National Assembly during period of organiza-

tion and its first session (September, 1907, to January 11, 1911). Appointed Minister of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry, spring, 1911. Removed from office during the Revolution. Among Chinese he is the most popular member of the Imperial Clan. He was one of the few Princes who did not flee from Peking on the inauguration of the Republic. Represents Imperial Family at most Republican functions.

P'u Yi (神儀) (Hsuan Tung), Ex-Emperor.—Son of Prince Ch'un (Tsai Feng) and nephew of the Emperor Kwang Hsu. Born on February 11, 1906. Succeeded to the Throne, under the Regency of his father, on November 14, 1908, and adopted the reign-title of Hsuan Tung. Abdicated on February 12, 1912. His mother is the daughter of the late Jung Lu Under the Republic the ex-Emperor continued his studies under his old tutors. On June 30, 1917, Chang Hsun carried out a coup d'état in Peking and proclaimed the restoration of the Manchu Dynasty. Hsuan Tung ascended the throne, but the "monarchy" survived little more than a week and once again his name was affixed to an "abdication."

PUN KUANG-LIEH.-Military Councillor at the Chiangchünfu.

SA CHEN-PING, (薩鎖冰).—Fukien. Born March 30, 1859. Brigade-General. Educated in Naval School, Foochow and Royal Naval College, Greenwich, England. K.C.M.G. Admiral Commanding Peiyang Squadron. 1903. Admiral, Kwangtung, August, 1905 Commander-in-Chief, land and sea, Kwangtung, November, 1906. Land command withdrawn. January, 1908. Commissioner for Naval Reorganization, June, 1909. Vacated office, July, 1909. Admiral of fleet, July, 1909. Accompanied Prince Tsai Hsun on naval mission to Europe. Oct. 1909: and to Japan and America, August, 1910. In command of Imperial naval forces during Revolution. Took a naval force up to Hankow but owing to lack of supplies and continual defections among his crews was forced to vacate his command and escaped to North China. Director General of Land and River Police, Shanghai and Woosung. August 14, 1913. High Inspector of Kwangtung and Fukien, 1917. Appointed Minister of Navy, December 4, 1919. First class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.

SAO-KE ALFRED SZE, see Shih Chao Chi.

Shang Chen-kuel.—Shensi. Born 1874. Graduate of a Technical School in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Teacher at a Middle School in Tungchow, and Chairman of the Educational Society of Talei hsien, and was the Representative of Tutuh Chang in Shanghai and Hankow during the Revolution. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

SHEN CHI-CH'ANG, (沈其昌).—Chekiang. Born 1881. Educated in Japan. President of the High Court of Justice in Kwangtung, 1915.

SHEN CHIA-YI, (沈家彝).—Kiangsu. Born 1882. President of the High Court of Justice in Fengtien, 1915. Presiding Judge. Supreme Court (Civil Division).

SHEN CHUN-JU, (沈鈞儒).—Commissioner of Education, Chekiang, August, 1912.

SHEN JUI-LIN.—Attached to Waiwupu, 1908. Minister at Vienna, August. 1910.

SHEN PAO-CHANG, (沈寶昌).—Chekiang. Chujen. Procurator, Peking during 1912. Was magistrate of Shanghai, 1915.

SHEN TSENG-YUEH .- Acting Superintendent of Bank of Kwangsi.

- SHEN YUN-P'EI, (光葉流).—Kiangsu. Senior Secretary, Board of Commerce, January, 1907. Junior Vice-President do., March, 1908. Assistant Director, Tientsin-Pukow Railway, July, 1909. Acting President, Board of Communications, August 10. Acting Junior Vice-President, Board of Civil Appointments, January, 1911. Vacated office June, 1911, but retained post of Assistant Manager, Tientsin-Pukow Railway. Advisory Minister, Privy Council, August, 1911. Manager of Pukow-Hsinyang Railway, January 13, 1913. Was actively interested in Yuan Shih-kai's monarchical movement.
- Shiao Ch'ang-Jung.—Kiangsu. Born 1863. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.
- Sith Chao-ch'ang.—Chekiang. Born 1872. Chujen. Secretary to the Chinese Legation at St. Petersburg, 28th year of Kwang Hsu. Chinese Secretary to the Second Peace Conference at The Hague. First Secretary in the Chinese Legation at The Hague, and also First Secretary of the Chinese Legation in Rome. In the 1st year of Hsuan Tung he acted as Minister to Germany, and returned to China in the 2nd year. Is now Departmental Chief of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Author of Comment on the Sino-Russian Treaty. Chinese Consul-General in the Philippines, 1915.
- SHIH CHAO-CHI. (SAO-KE ALFRED SZE). (施肇基).—Chekiang. Educated in America, at Cornell University. Acting Junior Secretary, Board of Communications, December, 1906. Removed from office, January, 1907. For some time Managing Director of the Luhan Railway. A Director of the Northern Railways, 1908. Customs Taotai, Harbin, spring, 1908. Acting Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, Kirin, July, 1910. Junior Councillor, Board of Foreign Affairs August, 1910; Senior Councillor. August, 1911. Imperial Commissioner to the International Plague Conference at Mukden, April, 1911. Nominated Chinese Minister to America, Peru, Mexico, and Cuba just after the outbreak of the Revolution, but did not proceed. Minister of Posts and Communications, and for a time Acting Minister of Finance, in the first Republican Cabinet. Resigned on account of ill-health in June. Is related, by marriage, to Tang Appointed Officer of Ceremonies at the President's Office. December 27, 1913. Minister to Great Britain, June 20, 1914. Minister to Washington, 1921.
- Shih Chao-Tseng, (施麗會).—Chekiang. Born 1868. Attaché to Chinese Legation, Washington, 1893-95. Consul, New York, 1896-97. Commissioner of the Shanghai-Nanking Railway, 1905-7. Assistant Director of the Peking-Hankow Railway, 1910-11. Director-General of the Lunghai Railways and Associate Director-General of the Tatung-Chengtu Railway, since 1913. Second class Paokuang Chiaho and Second class Wenhu Decorations.
- Shih Kuo-chen, (施國楨).—Kansu. Born September 25, 1836. Studied in the Provincial College (Kansu) and the Government Law School (Peking). Principal, Public Law School of Kansu. 1918 (?). Vice-Chairman, Provincial Educational Association of Kansu since June 1920. Formerly of Kuomintang.
- Shill Tse-usien.—Shantung. Born 1884. Studied in a University in Japan. During Revolution was appointed Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs in the Tutuh's office, and then a member of the Advisory Council in Nanking. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan, and a member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Has formed a Society for the Cultivation and Colonization of the Frontiers, and has raised a capital of more than \$500,000 to start colonization and cultivation in Kirin and other

- places. Non-partisan. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- SHIH Tso-LING.—Fukien. Born 1865. Graduate of the former Naval School at Tientsin. Captain of the Navy, and Chief of the Naval Education Department. Non-partisan.
- Shih Yu, (施畏).—Szechuan. Chinshih. Educated in Europe. Councillor, Privy Council, August, 1911. Deputy Commissioner, Constitutional Department of Cabinet, February, 1912. Chief of Legislation Bureau and Chief of Bureau for Codification of Law, July, 1912.
- Shu Hung-yi.—Anhui. Born 1868. Studied in the Government University in Peking, and was appointed to proceed to Japan to investigate the police system. Is now Chief of Civil Affairs, Department of the Ministry of the Interior. Was Director of the Government Mint in Fengtien, and was appointed to start the Electric Light Company there. Chinputang. Author of Diary of the Investigation of the Police System in Japan, and The Yiyuan Poetry.
- SING TSEN-SENG.—Son of the Rev. Sing Eng-teh. Educated at the C.M.S. School and Trinity College, Ningpo, where he subsequently became a Master and Headmaster. Ordained Deacon, October 20. 1889. Pastor of Ningpo City, 1911. Archdeacon of the Diocese of Chekiang. Pastor at Hangchow, 1917. Consecrated as first Chinese Anglican Bishop (of the Chung Hua Sheng Kung Hui), October 2, 1918.
- SSU TU-YING.—Kwangtung. A Graduate of the Normal College of Peking University, a member of the Tung Meng Hui, and one of the Kwangtung members of the National Council.
- Su, Prince (Shan Ch'i).—Manchu. A member of the eight princely families. Vice-President, Imperial Clan Court, September, 1900. Superintendent of Customs and Octroi at Peking, December, 1900. General Commandant, Peking Gendarmerie, May, 1902. Comptroller General, Mongolian Superintendency, November, 1905. Special Mission to Mongolia, summer. 1906. Comptroller-General, Imperial Clan Court, November, 1906. President, Board of Interior, June, 1907. Commissioner of Naval Reorganization, February, 1909. Minister of the Interior in Prince Ching's Cabinet, May, 1911. Gave up all offices during the Revolution.
- SU K'AN-SHIH.—Hunan. Born 1879. Studied in Japan. Was Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs, and Supervisor of Changsha and Yochow Customs. Resigned June, 1913, and since then he has been High Adviser to the Tutuh of Hunan. Was Vice-Speaker of Hunan Tzu Yi Chu. Non-partisan.
- Su Wei, (栗威).—Honan. Born February 6, 1876. Studied in Law in Japan. Superintendent of Changsha Customs and Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Honan since June 21, 1920.
- Su Yu-fang.—Fengtien. A Graduate of the Law School in Fengtien. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. In the 2nd year of Hsuan Tung he organized the Tung Tze Hui, with the object of demanding a Parliament: he gathered together more than 5,000 students, and by their earnestness, Viceroy Hsi Liang promised to memorialize the Throne for them. Was imprisoned 27 days for being suspected as revolutionist, when securing arms for Pao An Hui. Chinputang.
- SUN, C. Y., see Sun Chung Ying.
- SUN CHING, (孫做).—Kiangsu Born 1867. Chujen. Was once magistrate in Szechuan. Vice Chairman, Kiangsu Provincial Assembly. Author of Peimen Poems and Notes on Japan (in Chinese). Formerly of Kunghotang.

- SUN CHING-CH'ING.—Szechuan. Born 1884. Studied in Japan, and a Graduate of the Law College in Peking. Was Magistrate of Hsiangcheng, Honan, was one of the promoters of the Shanghai Chung Kuo Kung Hsueh; and was teacher to several Law Schools. Is now a lawyer and a member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Author of The Principles of the Constitution of the Ching Dynasty, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- SUN CHUNG-YING, (C. Y. Sun). (孫仲英).—Kiangsu. Until recently, was interested in business Now Sun resides in Tientsin and is identified with many forms of social service. Notably in the Anti-opium propaganda and famine relief work of 1920-21. Sun also promoted and successfully conducted the United War Work Campaign of 1918.
- SUN HUNG-YI, (孫洪伊.—Chihli. Born 1870. Was elected member of the House of Representatives and has been Minister of Interior.
- Sun Jun-yu.—Kiangsu. Born 1878. A Graduate of Peiyang University and a Law School in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan and the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Kuomintang. Author of Outlines of Administration, etc Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Sun Lieht-Chen, (孫知是).—Fengtien. Born 1871. Began his life as a common soldier. Held rank of Lieutenant General, in the Ching Dynasty. Was Commander of the Fengtien Patrol Force. Later he became Major General and Commander of the 54th Brigade of the 27th Division. Military Governor of Heilungkiang, June, 1920. Also Director-General, Chinese Eastern Railway. Transferred to be Tuchun of Kirin since spring 1921.
- Sun Pao-ch'i, (孫音琦).—Hangchow, Chekiang. Born 1867. Yinsun. Member, Board of Justice and Taotai in Chihli. Minister to France, June, 1902. Chief Secretary, Government Council, summer, 1906. Governor of Peking, autumn, 1906. Minister to Germany, April, 1907 to December, 1908. Assistant Director, Tientsin-Pukow Railway, Sept. 1908. Returned to Peking, January, 1909. Acting Governor (June, 1909) and Governor (November, 1910) of Shantung. Shantung prematurely proclaimed its independence and Sun accepted the post of President of the Province, November 15, 1911. On November 29, two days after recapture of Hanyang, it returned to the Imperial fold, whereupon Sun tendered his resignation in a penitent memorial. Was pardened by the Throne, but resigned in December, 1911. Director-General, Revenue Council, May 11, 1913. Minister of Foreign Affairs, September 11, 1913. Director Audit Office, 1915-1916. Minister of Finance, 1916. Director, Inspectorate of Customs. First class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- SUN P'EI.—Anhui. Born 1880. Studied in the Imperial University in Japan.

 A Councillor of Political Affairs to the President: a member of Committee in the Cabinet: a delegate for the Preparation of the National Assembly: and a Councillor of the Ministry of the Interior. A member of the Committee of the Chinputang. Author of the Spirit of the Constitution, etc.
- SUN SHI-YI. Consul-General in Cuba.
- SUN TAO-JEN, (孫道仁).—Hunan. Formerly expectant Taotai of Fukien.
 Transferred to the military service, and appointed Brigade-General of
 the Foochow-Kienningfu military circuit, and Commander of the Ninth
 Division. Elected Tutuh of Fukien on the outbreak of the Revolution.
 July 12, 1912. Resigned December 5, 1913.

SUN TO-SEN, (孫多森).—Anhu. Born 1863. Intendant of Industry, Chihli, March, 1910; vacated, January, 1912. Industrial Commissioner, Anhui, May, 1912; vacated May, 1912. Manager, Bank of China. December 23, 1912. Chief Civil Administrator and additionally Acting Tutuh, Anhui, June 30, 1913. Relieved of both posts, July 27, 1913. Manager, Bank of China, June, 30—July 21, 1917.

SUN WEN, (Sun Yat-sen). (孫文).—Kwangtung. Born in 1866. the son of a farmer in Hsiangshan district. Learnt English at an early age, and studied under Dr. Kerr of the American Mission. Enrolled as a student of the Alice Memorial Hospital at Hongkong in 1887, whence he graduated as "Licentiate of Medicine and Surgery, Hongkong," in 1892. Started to practise in Macao, where he organised the Young China Party. Subsequently settled in Canton, where he became an active revolutionary. After the failure of a conspiracy at Canton in 1895 he fled to Macao, and thence proceeded to Hongkong, Japan, Honolulu and America, in all of which places he obtained adherents to the Reform Party. Arrived in England in 1896, and on October 11, of that year was kidnapped outside the Chinese Legation by orders of the Chinese Minister. It was intended to ship Dr. Sun to China as a lunatic, but he managed to make his plight known to Dr. Cantlie, who was instrumental in effecting his release after twelve days' imprisonment. Subsequently Dr. Sun toured through Europe, America and the East as a revolutionary propagandist. In Japan (with General Huang Hsing) he was instrumental in founding the Tung Meng Hui. Was in England when the Wuchang outbreak occurred, but came out to China at the end of 1911, and was elected Provisional President of the Republic by the Nanking Council. Resigned from the Presidency on the abdication of the Manchus, on the understanding that Yuan Shih-kai should be elected to succeed him, and proceeded on a tour to Wuchang and South China, where he advocated a socialistic policy. Came to Peking at the President's request in August, 1912, and was accorded an enthusiastic welcome. Advocated an extensive programme of railway construction. and on September 10. was appointed by the President "to consider and draft plans for a national system of railways." and to "submit and discuss the same with international financiers." Visited Kalgan, and on September 17, left for Taiyuanfu and Shanghai. Strongly advocated the transfer of the capital from Peking to Wuchang or Nanking. His authority as Chief of the National Railway Corporation was cancelled on the outbreak of the rebellion, and Dr. Sun subsequently took up his residence in Japan. Dr. Sun was in Shanghai in 1920, but proceeded to Canton in 1921 when the Kwangsi officials were ejected by General Chen Chiung-ming, and was "elected" "President" of China by the so-called Parliament there in April 1921. Author of "Elementary Treatise on People's right", "Sun Wen Hsueh Shuo" and "Industrial Plans."

Sun Wu, (孫武).—Hupeh. A noted Hupeh revolutionary, whose accident with a bomb in the Russian Concession at Hankow in October, 1911. led to the discovery of the revolutionary headquarters, and precipitated the Revolution. Sun Wu was injured by the explosion, and owed his life to the devotion of his friends, who succeeded in concealing him in a place of safety until he had recovered. He subsequently played a prominent part in the events of the Revolution at Wuchang, becoming Chief of the Military Department in that city. It was mainly through his instrumentality that the counter-revolutionary plot hatched at Wuchang in August was frustrated. Educated at the Military Academy, Wuchang. After a visit to Japan he returned and opened schools with

the object of spreading revolutionary ideas. Connected with the Changsha riots of 1910. In February, 1911, when in Wuchang, he arranged with Huang Hsing for a simultaneous outbreak in Wuchang and Canton in May. The latter plot miscarried, but Sun Wu's opportunity came with the subsequent railway unrest. Instrumental in forming the Kunghotang Party

SUN YAT-SEN, see Sun Wen.

SUNG FA-HSIANG, (Fartsan T. Sung), (宋夜祥).—Fukien. Born August 26, 1883. Educated in America. B.Sc., M.A., (Ohio Wesleyan) B.Sc. (Chicago). Teacher. Fukien Provincial College. Professor of Chemistry, Government University, Peking, 1908-12. Technical Expert, Ministry of Finance, 1914-1916. Co-director, Assaying Office, 1912-13. Director, Soochow Mint and Co-Director Bureau of Engineering, 1914. Co-Director, Bureau of Printing and Engraving, 1916. Inspector General of Mints, 1914-16. Adviser to Tuchun of Kiangsu, 1915-16. Director, Nanking Mint, 1917. Political Councillor to the President since 1919. Author of Qualitative Analysis of Important Metals. Third class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.

SUNG, FARTSAN T., see Sung Fa Hsiang.

SUNG HSLAO-LIEN, (宋小濂).—Kirin. Acting Commissioner of Internal Affairs. Heilungkiang, March. 1911, and Commissioner, December, 1911. Tutuh of Heilungkiang, 1914. Director, Chinese Eastern Railway, 1920.

SUNG LIEN-KUEL.—Director-General of Mining Operations for the province of Yunnan.

SZE HSI-CHANG, (如錫章).—Chekiang. Born 1870. Chinshih. Graduated from a Japanese Law School, and has been magistrate of Hsunkua and of Tientsin before becoming Taoyin of Tsin-hai-tao, Chihli in 1919.

SZE-TU YING, (司徒穎).—Kwangtung. Born 1878. Studied in the Imperial Peking University. Chujen. Commissioner of Industries since 1917. Author of books in Chinese on Mining and Industry. Second class Tashou Chiaho decoration.

SZE, ALFRED, see Shih Chao Chi.

Tai Ch'en-Lin, (戴陳宗).—Chekiang. Studied in language schools in Shanghai and Peking. Graduated from a College in France. Attacked to Chinese Legation at Paris. Councillor of the Waichiaopu, April, 1912. Chinese Minister at Madrid.

Tai K'an, (戴健).—Kweichow. Graduated from a Japanese College. Civil Governor of Kweichow, 1913. Member of the Tsanchengyuan. Civil Governor and Acting Military Governor of Szechuan.

TAN CHEN.—Honan. Graduate of a Law College in Japan, a member of the Tung Meng Hui, and one of the Honan representatives of the National Council. Was imprisoned for five years for promoting the Revolution in Hunan.

TAN CHUN-MOU.—Chargé d'Affaires in Peru.

TAN HSUEH-HENG. - Director River Conservancy Works of Kwangtung.

T'AN PEI-SEN.—Chargé d'Affaires at Madrid.

T'AN JUI-LIN-Kwangtung. Born 1885. Graduate of Preliminary Normal School Kwangtung. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. After having graduated he travelled in the Straits Settlements, where he established two Primary Schools. During the Revolution he drove

away the Imperialist troops from Hsinhuihsien in response to the call of the Lieutenant-General Hwang Min-tang. Was elected Speaker of the Town Council of the Hsien. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

- T'AN SHOU-K'UN.—Hupeh Born 1876. After the Revolution was appointed Secretary to the Tutuh of Kwangtung. Resigned the secretaryship, and became Sub-Editor of the Min Lik Pao, Shanghai. Then became Editor of the Chung Pao at Wuchang. Was Military Adviser to the Tutuh of Hupeh, and Speaker of the Hupeh Assembly.
- T'AN YEN-R'AI, (譚延麗).—Hunan. Obtained degree of Chinshih, and in 1904, at the early age of twenty-five, was appointed a Hanlin Compiler. Retired from official life shortly afterwards, and lived in his native district until the formation of the Hunan Provincial Assembly, of which he was elected Chairman. Was elected Chief of the Military Department of Hunan on the outbreak of the Revolution, but after the assassination of two rival Tutuhs he was elected to that office in his native province Relieved of his post, October 13, 1913; reinstated, 1916.
- TANG CHENG-Councillor, Ministry of Education, August, 1912.
- T'ANG CHI-YAO, (唐繼美).—Yunnan. Acting Tutuh of Kweichow, April, 1912. Commander-in-Chief of Yunnan and Kweichow troops for the relief of Szechuan, August 26, 1913. Acting Tutuh of Yunnan, September 28, 1913. Acting Chief Civil Administrator of Yunnan, October 4, 1913. Chiangchun of Yunnan, 1915: subsequently Tuchun and Civil Governor until 1921, when he was driven out of the Province. Was Chief of the General Staff in the Canton Government, 1918.
- T'ANG CHUN.—Deputy Governor, Bank of China, August 21, 1913; Governor, do., September 25, 1913.
- Tang Hsiang-Ming, (思報的).—Hupeh. Educated at the Liang Hu College, Wuchang, and obtained degree of Chujen before leaving for France to undergo a course of naval training. After graduating from a Naval College he served on a French warship, and returned to China in the autumn of 1911. A nephew of Tang Hua-lung. Appointed Vice-Minister of the Navy on the formation of the first Republican Cabinet. Vice-Admiral, Nov. 3, 1912. Acting Tutuh of Hunan, October 24, 1913. Chiangchun and Civil Governor of Hunan, 1914.

TANG KU-SE.—Member for Mongolia of the National Council.

TANG SHAO-YI, (唐紹儀).—Kwangtung. Educated in America. Secretary to Yuan Shih-kai while the latter was Imperial Resident in Korea. Consul-General in Korea after the Chino-Japanese war. Then employed on the staff of the Northern Railway Administration. In Shantung with Yuan Shih-hai, winter, 1900. Customs Taotai, Tientsin, February, 1902. Special Commissioner to Tibet, September, 1904. Proceeded to India as special Envoy, to pegotiate the Tibet Convention, which was subsequently completed at Peking in April, 1906. Acting Junior Vice-President of the Board of Foreign Affairs, November, 1905. Substantive Junior Vice-President of the Board of Foreign Affairs, February, 1906. Director-General Shanghai-Nanking, and Lu-Han Railways, 1906. Comptroller-General of Revenue Council, May 1906. Senior Vice-President of Board of Communications, November, 1906. Continued to act as Vice-President of Board of Foreign Affairs. First Governor of Fengtien on reorganization of government of Manchuria, April, 1907. Special Envoy to America to thank the Government for waiving part of the Boxer Indemnity, July, 1908. Resigned Governorship of Fengtien, July, 1909. Expectant Vice-President Board of Communications, and Acting

President, August, 1910, and resigned in the spring. Appointed Minister of Communications on the dismissal of Sheng Hsuan-huai on October 26, 1911. Proceeded to Shanghai as Yuan Shih-kai's delegate to negotiate with the revolutiomary leaders in December. Resigned his position as delegate on December 27. Appointed Premier, after abdication of the Manchus on February 12. Resignation as Premier accepted on June 27, when he was appointed Superior Adviser to the President on State Affeirs. A member of the Tung Meng Hui. One of the four Directors of Canton Government, 1918. Now Minister of Finance at Canton.

- TANG TIEH-CHIAO, (冯敏雄).—Honan. Born 1877. Studied in Honan and graduated from a law college in Japan. Appointed a Councillor, Ministry of Justice, 1913. Remains in the office up to date (March, 1921). Third class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- T'ANG TSAI-FU.—Kiangsu. Born 1877. Graduate of Kwang Fan Yen College, Shanghai; of the Tungwen College, Peking; and the Paris University. Secretary to the Chinese Legation at Paris and The Hague, and at one time Acting Chinese Minister in France, Holland, and Russia. Was Vice-President of the Board of Foreign Affairs in the last Dynasty. Junior Secretary, Waichiaopu, March, 1912; Councillor, Warchiaopu, April, 1912.
- Tang Tsat-Li. (唐在禮).—Kiangsu. Deputy Chief of the General Staff, 1915. Resigned same year.
- T'ANG TSUNG-KUO. (唐宗郭).—Wusih, Kiangsu. Born October 25, 1890.
 Graduated from Kiangsu Provincial Cellege and in the Law Department.
 Peking Government University. B.A., LL.B. Member of Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce 1917. Wrote a book on famine relief and on the Industrial History of China. Fourth class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- Tang Tsung-vu, (唐宗愈).—Kiangsu. Secretary of Finance in Heilung-kiang, 1915-1917.
- TANG YANG-TENG.—Formerly Inspector-General of the Yangtze and Director-General of the Canton-Hankow Railway.
- T'AO CH'ANG-SHAN.—Chekiang. Born 1878. A Graduate of an Agricultural School in Japan. A Chief of the Department of Agriculture, appointed December, 1912. Chairman of the Society of Agriculture. Author of Agricultural Affairs.
- TAO, L. K., see Tao Lu Kung.
- Tao Lu-kung, (L. K. Tao), (陶展志).—Tientsin. Born November 5, 1887.
 Studied in the Higher Normal School, Tokio, and London School of Economics and Political Sciences. B.Sc. (London) Dean of History Department, Higher Normal School, Peking, 1914. Professor of Social and Political Sciences, 1915-18. Dean of the Faculties, Peking National University, 1919. Prof. of Social and Political Sciences, 1920. Joint-author, "Village and Town Life in China," Educational Sociology (in Chinese), etc.
- Tao Sze-Cheng. (陶思浴).—Director-General of Government Mining Operations in Hunan, 1915. Acting Governor of Hunan, 1915.

TCHENG LOH, see Ch'ên Lu.

TCHOU, LOUIS NGAOSIANG, see Chu Hê Hsiang.

TCHOU, M. THOMAS, see Chu Yu Ts'ang.

- Teng Jung.—Szechuan. Born 1872. Studied law in Japan. A Chujen. Was member of the late National Council, and member of the Chung Yi Yuan, representing Kobdo and other places, Mongolia. Legal Adviser to the President, and the Ministry of Communications. Chinputang. Author of a volume of Chinese Poetry.
- TENG TSUI-YANG, (T. Y. Teng), (鄧孝文).—Foochow, Born 1885. Educated in the Foochow Normal School, Tekio Higher Normal School, and Teachers' College, Columbia University. Councillor, Ministry of Education since February, 1919. Author of "Dynamic Method of Teaching," "Principles and Practice of Teaching," and "Logic."
- TENG, T. Y., see Têng Tsui Ying.
- The Ming-Ch'ien, (Tyau Min-ch'ien Tuk-zung). (Image).—Kwangtung. Born August 9, 1888. Graduated from St. John's University, Shanghai, and University of London, LL.B. (1914); LL.D. 1918. Lecturer on International Law and Political Science, Tsing Hua College, Peking, September, 1916, and since October, 1919 to date. Founder and former Editor of "The Peking Leader," Peking. (Dec. 1917—September, 1919). Author of "The Legal Obligations arising out of Treaty Relations between China and Other States," (1917); "China's New Constitution and International Problems," (1918); Editor of "China in 1918." (1919); and "London Through Chinese Eyes," (1920).
- Tiao Tso-ch'ien, (Philip K. C. Tyau), ()—Kwangtung. Born 1880. Educated at St. John's University, Shanghai; Cambridge University, M.A., LL. B.; Barrister-at-law, Middle Temple, London. Studied for some time in the Hawaii Islands. Chinshih; Hanlin. Director-General of Chinese Student-Mission to Europe, 1909. Joined the Wai-wu-pu, 1910. A secretary in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on the Establishment of the Republic, 1912. Secretary in the President's office. May, 1912. First Secretary, Chinese Legation at London, August, 1912. Appointed to the Chinese Legation, London, 1914, as an extra First Secretary, in temporary charge of the Chinese Consulate-General in London. Councillor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs. A secretary in the Cabinet Office. Was Editor of the "Peking Daily News" (published in English). Second class Chiaho, Third class Pao-kuang Chiaho, and Fourth class Wenhu Decorations.
- TIEH LIANG, (鐵良).—Manchu. Director of Grand Court of Revision. spring, 1901. Vice-President Board of Revenue, November, 1903. Vice-President Board of War, May, 1904. Acting President Board of War March, 1905. Junior Vice-President Board of Revenue, September, 1905. Grand Councillor Probationary, September, 1905. Member Government Council, September, 1905. President Board of Revenue, December, 1905. Grand Councillor, January, 1906. Comptroller-General Revenue Council, May, 1906. Removed from Grand Council, November, 1906. President, Army Board, November, 1906. Member Government Council, spring, 1907. Yellow Riding Jacket, December, 1908. Commissioner Naval Reorganization, February, 1909. Retired owing to ill-health, March, 1910. Tartar General at Nanking, September, 1910, which post he was holding when the revolutionary army attacked the city. He escaped to Peking where he earned notoriety as one of the bitterest opponents of abdication. Took up his residence in Japan.
- TIEN CHUN-FANG.—Kansu. Chairman of the Investigations Committee of the National Council, in which he sat as a member for his native province. Was the proposer of most private Bills introduced into the Council by members. A member of the Kunghotang. Acting Chief of Department of Finance, Kansu.

- TIEN CHUNG-YU, (日中天).—Chihli. Lieutenant-General. In the Generalissimo's Office. Appointed Joint Investigator of the Likin system, 1916. Tatung of Chahar. Tuchun of Kirin and now of Shantung and Acting Civil Governor.
- TIEN Pu-ch'an, (田步峰).—Kiangsu. Born 1866. A Chinshih of the last Dynasty. Graduate of the Law Department of the Chinshih Academy. Chief of the Department of Cultivation and Cattle Raising in the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Was sent to Changpaishan to investigate forests and mines, to investigate industry in the Three Eastern Provinces, and to the North of Kalgan to manage the cultivation and cattle raising there. Was a Supervisor of the construction of the Imperial Tombs. Appointed Commissioner of Industries for Shensi, Sept. 1917.
- Tien Wen-lieh. (田文烈).—Hupeb. Governor of Honan, 1915. Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.
- Tien Ying-Huang, (田應璜).— Shansi. Born 1866. Chujen. Magistrate in Hupeh for some time. Member and Vice-Chairman of the Senate, dissolved after the Anfu defeat in 1920.
- TING CHENG.—Lieutenant-General. Bordered Red Banner Manchu Corps.
- Ting Ch'ien.—Honan. Born 1881. Graduate of a Law College in Japan. Was deputed to recruit troops in Wuhu and other places during the Revolution. A member of the Advisory Council in Nanking Government. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.
- Ting Chin, (M. K. Tinn), (了 錦).—Kiangsu. Born 1878. Studied Chinese under private tutors. Graduated from Nanyang College, Shanghai, 1897. Proficient in Japanese language. Through introduction of Wu Shi Lung, former President of Peking Government University, joined Tuan Chi-jui who then was in service under the Viceroy of Chihli, as his translator. Graduated from the Pei Yang Military Academy in 1902. Engaged upon graduation by ex-President Feng, who was then engaged in training troops. Became teacher of Royal Military College, 1903. Member of Army Board, 1905. Studied military tactics under a Japanese Professor. Adviser to the Army Board, 1906. A year later, General Ting became Chief of General Staff in the Yamen of Viceroy of Yunnan and Kweichow. Remained quietly in Shanghai during the revolution. Appointed Councillor to the Ministry of Army, 1914. Chief of Military Operation Department of the Ministry of Army, 1917 Appointed Brigadier General and given the command of a brigade of the Frontier Defence Army, 1919. Became Chief of Chinese Government Aeronautic Department at the end of 1919. Second class Chiaho, Wenhu and Paokuang Chiaho decorations. Fifth Order of Merit.
- Ting P'ing-lan, (了本演).—Fukien. Studied in the Naval College in Fukien and graduated from an Engineering (Railroad and Bridge Engineering) College in France. Director, Chengting-Taiyuan Railway since June 1908. Third and Fourth Class Chiaho decorations.
- TING SHIH-TO.—Member for Shantung of the National Council.
- TING SHIH-YUAN, (S. Y. W. Ting), (TTM).—Chekiang. Born 1879.

 Attended St. John's University, Shanghai. Was during early years in insurance business. Entered the Government service through the assistance of a certain Manchu prince. Was once an important officer of Chienmen Octroi, Peking. Conducted a newspaper while a tax officer. After leaving Peking, he was in England a year or two studying. Was then delegated to attend the Hague Conference. Upon re-

turn to China, he was appointed Chief of Martial Law Department in the Ministry of War, Adviser to the Ministry of Interior and Director of Public Schools in Peking. Appointed Customs Taotai of Hankow, and concurrently Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Hupeh, January, 1914. Removed from office, July 1916. Appointed Director, Peking-Hankow Railway, 1918. After effecting the Union of the Peking-Hankow and Peking-Suiyuan lines, he became the Director of these two railways. Upon dissolution of the Anfu Political Club by the armed interference of Generals Tsao Kun and Chang Tso-lin. July, 1920, in which struggle, Ting was Chief of Marshal Tuan's Aviation Department, he fled and became one of the guests of the Imperial Japanese Legation, Peking.

TING, S. Y. W., see Ting Shih-yuan.

TING, T. Y., see Ting Ta Yuan.

Ting Ta-Yuan, (T. Y. Ting), (丁達元).—Kiangsu. Born November 20, 1872. Studied in the Peiyang Telegraph School and in a school in Kerea. Chief, Telegraph Department, President's Office, 1912. Director, Telegraph office, Wuchang, since August 1920. Fifth class Wenhu and Sixth class Chiaho decorations.

Ting Huai. (丁楨).—Yunnan, General. Headquarter Staff. Formerly Provincial Commander-in-Chief, Yunnan.

TINN, M. K., see Ting Chin.

TSAI CHENG-HSUN, (蔡成勳).—Tientsin. Tutung of Suiyuan and Commanding General of the First Army Division. Became Minister of War, May 1921.

Tong Hollington K. see Tung Hsien-kuang.

Tsai Hsun, (裁領).—(Prince).—Brother of the late Emperor Kwang Hsu. High Commissioner for Naval Reorganization, June, 1909. Naval Mission to Europe, October, 1909. Consulting Member of Government Council, July, 1910. Naval Mission to Japan and America. August, 1910 Minister of the Navy, 1911. Removed from office after outbreak of Revolution.

Tsai Ju-kai, (奏儒権).—Kiangsi. Chujen. Graduated from Peiyang University, Tientsin. Expectant Taotai and later became President of his own College. Was Commissioner of Education for Chihli, 1910. Governor of Shantung, May 9, 1914 to July 6, 1916.

TSAI T'AO, (載濤), (Prince).—Brother of the late Emperor Kwang Hsu. Charged with formation of a new Imperial Guard, December, 1903. Chief of the General Staff, June, 1909. Mission to Japan, America, and Europe to study military matters, March, 1910. Removed from office during the Revolution. Is understood to have been one of the most vigorous opponents of abdication.

TSAI TING-KAN, (葵廷幹).—Kwangtung. Was one of the party of Chinese students who went to America with Dr. Yung Wing in 1873. Returned to China in 1881, after eight years' study in America. Subsequently joined the Chinese torpedo school, and entered the Chinese Navy. Was in command of a flotilla of torpedo boats at Port Arthur, and during the Chino-Japanese war took part in the engagements off Port Arthur, the Yalu, and Weihaiwei. Entered the service of Yuan Shih-kai when he was Viceroy of Chihli. In 1911 was made Chief of a Department in the Ministry of Navy, but on Yuan Shih-kai's arrival in Peking was transferred to his staff, at Yuan's special request, as Naval A.D.C. Vice-Admiral, November 20, 1912. Director General Adjoint of Revenue

- Council, October 1, 1913. Master of Ceremonies in the President's Palace, Peking, 1918. Chairman of the Commission for the Revision of China's Tariff, May, 1918. Vice-director, Inspectorate General of Customs.
- Tsat Tse.—Imperial Duke. Deputy Lieutenant-General Plain Blue Banner, March, 1901. Chief of Imperial Mission to Foreign Countries, 1905. Acting Minister of the Presence, August, 1906. Comptroller of Imperial Armoury, November, 1906. Employed on Reform Commission, 1906. Minister of the Presence, February, 1907. President, Board of Finance. May, 1907. Member of Committee of Banner Reform, December, 1908. Rank of Prince of Fourth Order, December, 1908. Commissioner of Naval Reorganization, February, 1909. Removed from office as President of the Board of Finance on November 1, 1911.
- Ts'AI YUAN-P'EJ, (蔡元培).--Chekiang. Born January 11, 1867. A Hanlin scholar who has made a speciality of the study of education, spending some time in Germany with this object. After the coup d'état is 1898 he went to Changsha, where he took up educational work, and subsequently to Shanghai, where he joined the staff of the Nanyang College. In 1905, he was a Professor in the Language School at Peking and it was after this that he spent five years in study at German Universities. His revolutionary activities had led to his being a suspect before he left China. On the outbreak of the Revolution at Wuchang he returned, and was elected to the post of Minister of Education by the Nanking Provisional Government. He came to Peking as Chief of the Southern Delegation charged with the duty of congratulating Yuan Shih-kai upon his election as President. Tsai was elected Minister of Education in the first Republican Cabinet, but resigned after Tang Shaoyi gave up the Premiership. Was a member of the Tung Meng Hui. President of Peking University since January, 1917. Author of "History of Chinese Ethics," "Outline of Philosophy," "Historic Reference in Shihtouchi," etc.
- TSAN TIEN-CHEN. Member for Heilungkiang of the National Council.
- Ts'ao Chen-mao.—Fukien. Born 1872. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. During the last Dynasty he was employed as Teacher and Director to several Schools, and in 1912 he was elected as Vice-Speaker of Fukien Provisional Assembly Chinputang.
- TSAO CHIA-HSIANG.—Admiral.
- Ts'Ao Ju-Lin, (曹汝霖).—Kiangsu. Graduated in law from Japan. Acting Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs. November 11. 1913: Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, August 10, 1913. Appointed Minister of Communications in Tuan Chi-jui's Cabinet, July, 1917. Acting Minister of Finance, 1918; resigned October, 1918. President of the Bank of Communications. Is considered a leading pro-Japanese official by his own people.
- Tsao Jui, (曹鏡).—Chihli. Began career as a Military legal officer. During the revolution, was in charge of a military camp. Was Commissioner of Justice and of Administration and finance for Chihli. Provincial Treasurer of Chihli, April, 1912. Civil Governor.
- Tsao Kun, (曹妃).—Chihli. Graduated from Peiyang Military Academy. Was in active service during the Sino-Japanese War. Until recently. General of 5rd Army Division. Tuchun of Chihli, 1917. Appointed Inspector-General of Szechuan, Kwangtung, Hunan, and Kiangsi, June, 1918, for operations against the South. When Chang Hsun re-established the Manchu monarchy, July, 1917, Tsao directed his forces against

Chang's forces in concert with ex-Marshal Tuan Chi-jui. With Marshal Chang Tso-lin's Army, Tsao's forces succeeded in dissolving the Anfu Political Club, 1920. Inspector-General, Chihli, Shantung and Honan Provinces.

Ts'Ao Ying, (曹鍈).—Chihli. Born March 15, 1873. Educated in the Military Academy (Tientsin). Commanding Officer, Fourth Mixed Brigade in 1917. Defence Commissioner of Chiyu and Commanding officer of the Third Reserve and the Fourth Mixed Brigade since July, 1918. Author of Military Geography of Three Eastern Provinces and 1918. General of the 26th Division. Author of Military Geography of Three Eastern Provinces and of Chihli. etc. Second class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.

TSAO YU-TE. Member for Anhui of the National Council.

Tsao Yun-hsiang, (曹雲祚).—Chekiang. Born 1880. Graduate of St. John's University, Shanghai; B.A. Yale (De Forest Gold Medalist); M.B.A. Harvard. Associate Editor of English and Chinese Standard Dictionary. Second Secretary of Chinese Legation, London, appointed July, 1914.

Ts'EN CH'UN-HSUAN, (岑春信).—Kwangsi. Son of the late Viceroy Ts'en Yu-ying. Sub-Director of Court of Imperial Entertainments, June, 1892. Financial Commissioner, Kwangtung, September, 1898. Financial Commissioner, Kansu, December, 1898. Governor Shensi, September, 1900. Governor Shansi, March. 1901. Yellow Jacket, January, 1902. Governor Kwangtung, May, 1902. Acting Viceroy Szechuan, September, 1902-May, 1903. Acting Viceroy Liang Kwang, November, 1903. Viceroy Yun-kuei Provinces, September, 1906 (did not proceed). Viceroy Szechuan, March, 1907 (did not proceed). President of Board of Communications, May 3, 1907. Viceroy Liang Kwang, May, 1907 (did not proceed). Resigned on account of ill-health, August 12, 1907. Ordered to proceed to Szechuan in September, 1911, to suppress the railway agitation in that province, in co-operation with the Viceroy, Chao Erhfeng. Had not left Hankow when the Revolution broke out. Appointed Viceroy of Szechuan, October 14, but did not proceed. Commissioner for Pacification, Fukien, September 12. Appointment ceased November 12. Director-General, Hukuang Railways, February 13. Resigned, June 17, 1913. His arrest ordered for alleged complicity in the rebellion, August 21, 1913. In 1918 joined the Southern movement; appointed Administrator-Director of the Military Council at Canton and Minister of the Interior. Fled from Canton in 1920.

Ts'eng I-chin, (會葬進).—Szechuan. Born 1878. Graduated from the Law College, Kioto, Japan Was member of the Board of Labour and Board of Communications. Was also Justice of Supreme Court and Clerk of the Tzu-cheng-yuan. Secretary to the President. Chief, Bureau for the Administration of Enemy Properties. Vice-President, Commission on Financial Investigation. Author of a book on the Administrative System of Japan, "China in the European War," on Chinese family system. Devised a new telegraphic code and flag code language. First class Tashou Chiaho, Second class Tashou Wenhu, Second class Wenhu decorations.

TSENG KAN-CHEN.—Kiangsi. Born 1877. Graduate of a Law School in Japan, and studied in Pennsylvania University, U.S.A. When the Revolution broke out in Wuchang, he returned from America, and was elected member of the Provisional Assembly of Hupeh. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

- Tseng Tsung-chien. (曾宗鑒).—Fukien. Born 1884. Graduate of a college in England. Member of Waiwupu. Acting Consul-General in Australia, 1915. Was appointed Director, Salt Revenue Bureau for Kirin and Heilungkiang. December, 1917.
- Tseng Yen.—Kwangsi. Graduate of a Japanese University. Chairman of the Petitions Committee of the National Council, in which he sat as a member for his native province. A member of the Tung Meng Hui.
- Tseng Yu-lan.—Kiangsi. Born 1880. Graduate of a University in Japan. Was a member of the late National Council, and a member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was editor of the Shen Chow Jih Pao. Shanghai, and Ti Kuo Jih Pao, Peking. Was Teacher at the High Law School in Peking. During the Revolution was made Chief of the Legislative Bureau of Kiangsi, and a member of the Kiangsi Assembly. Chinputang. Translated a book on the Imperial Japanese Constitution.
- Tseng Yu-tsun, (會統舊).—Military Governor of Shanghai, 1915. Vice-Minister of Communications, October, 1918. Minister 1919-20. In exile.
- TSENG YU-YI.—Fengtien. A prominent member of the National Council, in which he was one of the Fengtien members. Was chosen to represent the House to interview the President on the occasion of Tang Shaoyi's departure from Peking. A member of the Tung-yi-kung-ho-tang.
- Tsi Chung-yin.—Financial Commissioner, Yunnan.
- TSIANG MOU-HSI.—Director-General of Mines in Kiangsu, 1915.
- Tsiang Ngan-hsing.—A Director at the Generalissimo's Headquarters, Peking.
- TSIANG, T. Y., see Chiang Tsun I.
- TSIEN, TAI, DR., see Ch'ien T'ai.
- Tsou Shu-sheng.—Kiangsi. Born 1881. Graduate of a University in Japan. Was the Chief of the Finance Department in Kiangsi for one year and five months. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- TSUAN TSENG.—General. Appointed Acting Chiangehun of Yunnan on outbreak of revoit, 1915.
- T'sui T'ing-hsien, (崔廷獻).—Shansi. Born December. 1875. After studying in his native province, T'sui went to Japan after education, pursuing law, graduating from the Japan Law College. Chairman, Shansi Provincial Assembly since September 1, 1918. Second class Chiaho, Third class Paokuang Chiaho, and Wenhu decorations.
- Tsur, Y. T., Dr. or Tsur Ye-Tsung, see Chou Yi-Chun.
- TU CHIEN.—Kiangsu. A returned student from Japan, who was formerly acting Tutuh of Chefoo. A member of the Tung Meng Hui, and one of the Kiangsu members of the National Council.
- Tu Ching-ch'r. (杜景龍).—Kwangtung. Born 1888. Obtained medical education from a missionary hospital in Swatow, M.D. President, Swatow Y.M.C.A.
- Tu Hsi-chun.—Chihli. Born 1881. Graduate of the Military Officers' Institute in Japan. Lieutenant-General with the brevet rank of General, and Occupation Cemmissioner of Hankow. In 27th year of Kwang Hsu, was a petty officer in the new Army of Hupeh: 28th year, sent by Chang Chih-tung, the then Viceroy of Hupeh, to Japan to study: ob-

tained first degree in a competitive examination on his return from Japan: Staff Officer of the 8th Army Division, 11th month, 1st year of Hsuan Tung. Sub-director for the Bureau for the training of the Army, 2nd month of the 2nd year of Hsuan Tung: Commander of the Third Ying of the 30th Regiment, 11th month of the same year. At the chreak of the Revolution at Wuchang he led his troops and occupied Chu Wang Tai, Snake Hill, and Feng Huang Hill, whence he attacked the various Imperialists' centres. After the Revolution he was made Chief of the 2nd Regiment, Chief of the General Staff. General of the First Division of the Northern Expedition, High Military Adviser of the Vice-President and Military Councillor of the President, and has received the 3rd Order of Merit. Non-partisan.

Tu Szi-Yi.—Chekiang. Born 1879. Graduate of a University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.

TUAN CRI-JUI, (段祺瑞).—Anhui. A graduate of the Peiyang Military School. Yuan Shih-kai's chief military adviser while Vicerov of Chihli. Brigade-General in Fukien in 1906, Deputy Lieutenant-General of the Chinese Bordered Yellow Banner, October, 1907; and General Commanding the Sixth Division of the Luchun, December, 1909. Commander-in-Chief, Kiangpeh, December, 1910. He was in a large measure responsible for the reorganization upon modern lines of the Northern Army, and after Yuan Shih-kai accepted the Premiership in November, 1911, he succeeded him as Viceroy of the Hukuang Provinces. On the recall of Baron Feng Kuo-chang, General Tuan took command of the First Army. He was one of the most prominent of the military commanders who signed the memorial to the Throne at the end of January. urging the Emperor to abdicate. On the formation of the first Republican Cabinet he was elected Minister of War. Given rank of General (Shang Chiang), September 7, 1912; of Field-Marshal, 1915. Chief of the Headquarter's Staff, 1915. Acting Premier, May 1, 1913, to July 19, 1913. Acting Tutuh of Hupeh (during Vice-President's absence in Peking), December 10, 1913. Chiangchun and Acting Governof Fengtien. Minister of War, 1914. Granted sick leave, June 1 1915. In May, 1916, Tuan Chi-jui was appointed Premier and charged with the formation of a responsible Cabinet. Dismissed by Li Yue hung, May 1917; but resumed office in July after the failure of Chang Hsun's monarchical coup d'état. Resigned, October, 1918. Attempting to rescue the Anfu Club, organized without authority an army, called by himself Ting Kuo-chun, and personally directing it to oppose the combined on march of Chibli and Fengtien forces to Peking, 1920. retired and resides in Peking.

Tuan Chih-kwei, (民之貴).—Anhui. Born 1869. Graduated from the Pei Yang Military Academy. Was successively Chief of Police, Tientsin, Governor of Heilungkiang, Vice-Tutung of the Mongolian tribe of the Bordered Red Banner, Tutuh of Hupeh, Governor of Fengtien and Minister of Army. Held the rank of General in the Army. Was awarded the titles of Chingan High Chiangchun and Fuwei High Chiangchun. During the armed struggle between the Anfu party and the Fengtien-Chihli faction, was appointed by Marshal Tuan Chi-jui Commander-in-Chief of the Anfu Army. Has been one of the guests of the Japanese Legation since the defeat of the Anfu party till early in June, 1921 when, according to rumour (still unconfirmed) Tuan Chihkwei was "freed" from his confinement under the escort of Marshal Chang Tso-lin.

Tuan Shih-yuan.—Honan Born 1883. Graduate of a Japanese University, specializing in political and financial matters. A member of the

- Ts'an Yi Yuan and a member of the Constitution Drafting Committee. A member of the Kuomintang. Translated several works, such as *Political Science*, *Financial Problems*, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- TUAN YU-CHING.—Yunnan. Ex-Vice-Chairman of the Yunnan Provincial Assembly. Member for that province of the National Council, and also a member of the Tung Meng Hui.
- T'ung Hang-shih.—Chekiang. Born 1876. Graduate of the Law School in Chekiang. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Was Teacher and Founder of several Schools. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Tung Hsien-kuang, (Hollington K. Tong) (書語光).—Chekiang. Born 1888. Studied in America. Associate-Editor of Millard's Review, Shanghai. Member of the Chihli River Commission. Secretary to the Commissioner for Foreign Affairs of Chihli
- Tung K'ung, (葦康).—Kiangsu. Born 1868. Chinshih. Judge, Supreme Court. Minister of Justice, August 14, 1920. First class Tashou Chiaho, and Wenhu decorations.
- Tung Shih-en, (青士恩).—Kiangsu. Born 1876. Studied for sometime in the Peiyang University. Taoyin of Pinkiang district, since Dec. 1919. Second class Tashou Chiaho, Third class Paokuang Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.

Tung Yu-chun .-- Industrial Taotai of Chihli, July, 1912.

TYAU, MIN-CH'IEN 'TUK-ZUNG, see Tiao Ming Ch'ien.

TYAU, PHILIP K. C., see Tiao Tso Ch'ien.

WAI TSE-CHIN .- Consul-General in Australia.

WANG, C. C., see Wang Ching Ch'un.

WANG, C. T., see Wang Cheng Ting.

- Wang Chan-Yuan, (王古元).—Shantung. Born 1860. Graduated in the first class of the Pei Yang Military Academy. Served bravely in the Chino-Japanese War, 1894-5. Was engaged by Yuan Shih-kai to train his soldiers at Hsiao-chan. Then he was a captain commanding Anhui troops. Shortly afterwards, was promoted to be Colonel and then to Brigadier-General. Accompanied late General Feng Kuo-chang to Wuchang when the revolution broke out in 1911, when Feng was in command of the First Imperial Army. Rendered no small service in the recapture of Hanyang from the revolutionaries on Nov. 27, 1911. Upon the establishment of the Republican Government, Wang was appointed Chief of the 2nd Army Division. Promoted to a General in 1913. Made Military Governor of Hupeh in 1914, and later was conferred the rank of Chang Wei Chiang Chun and still later that of Hsiang Ho Chiang Chun. Was ordered to act concurrently Civil Governor of Hupeh in 1916. Appointed Inspecting-General of Hupeh and Hunan, 1921. Second class Wenhu and Chiaho decorations.
- WANG CHANG-KU, (王章祐).—Szechuan. Born 1878. After studying Chinese in private schools, Wang went to Japan to study education, graduating from the Hengwen Academy. Upon return to his native province, was successively principal of primary, secondary primary, middle, and normal schools Was connected with the Board of Education for a while. After the Republican Government came into being, Wang was sent to Szechuan as Commissioner of Education. Was for sometime connected with the Civil Governor's yamen in that province and was Taoyin of Hsichuan (Sze). Appointed Commissioner of Education of

- Chil·li, 1919. Became Vice-Minister of Education, Autumn, 1920 till May 1921.
- Wang Chao-ming.—Cantonese. Graduate of a Tokio Law School. Ardent revolutionist. Notorious for the attempt to assassinate the Prince Regent by means of a bomb placed under a bridge over which the Regent daily passed. Arrested and imprisoned for life, but released after two years, in the autumn of 1911, after the outbreak of the Revolution. Went to Shanghai and rendered great service to he revolutionary party. Held important posts in the Nanking Revolutionary Government. Commissioned to go to Southern Islands to encourage allegiance of Chinese settlers to the Republic. Minister of Finance and Director-General of the Salt Administration, 1918.
- Wang Chen-Liang, (王震良).—Shensi. Born Dec. 16, 1886. Graduated from the Chung Kuo Academy, Shanghai and for sometime studied in the Nanyang College. Secretary, Ministry of Communications, Nanking Provisional Republican Government, 1912, Secretary. Peking Hankow Railway Administration, 1912. Principal, Second Provincial Normal School, 1913. Principal, First Provincial Normal School. since March, 1916. Vice-Chairman, Educational Association of Shensi since Aug., 1916. Author, Observations on School Administration. Seventh Class Chiaho decoration.
- Wang Chen-yac.—Member for Chihli of the National Council.
- Wang Cheng-ting, (better known as C. T. Wang), (王氏生).—Chekiang. Studied in the Pei-yang University from 1895 to 1900. Was a teacher in the Anglo-Chinese College in Tientsin, and at Changsha High School, of which he was head master. Studied in Japan for four years, where he was Secretary of the Y.M.C.A. at Tokio. Then went to America, where he studied law for three years. Was General Li Yuan-hung's Chief of Diplomatic Affairs at Wuchang, and Vice-Minister of Commerce and Industry in the first Republican Cabinet. Acting Minister of that Ministry until he resigned on the retirement of Tang Shao'yi. Vice-President of the Senate until unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913. After the death of Yuan Shih-kai again became Vice-President of the Senate. Deputy Inspector-General of Yangtze. Joined the southern movement, 1918, in opposition to the military Government in Peking. Chinese delegate at Paris Conference, 1919.
- WANG CHIA-HSIANG. (王家襄).—Chekiang. Born 1871. A returned student from Japan. Was two years a Councillor to the Police Authority of Chekiang; three years Professor of the Police College at Chekiang; one year as Chief of Police Office, Shaoyin; two years as Teacher to a Law College; one year Chief of the Police Bureau of Kirin Province; two years member of the Chekiang Tzu Yi Chu; one year member of the late National Council; and member and Speaker of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Chinputang. Director-General of the Mines in Chihli, 1915. President of the Senate, 1916; resigned June, 1917. Director, Fu Chung Corporation.
- Wang Chia-ping.—Shensi. Born 1882. Graduate of the High School in Shensi. Hsiutsai of the late Dynasty. Vice-Speaker of the Shensi Assembly. Was a Teacher of a Middle School and was a member of the Provisional Assembly of Shensi. Kuomintang.
- WANG CHIH-CHANG, (王治昌).—Tientsin. Born 1876. Master of Commerce. Studied law in Peiyang University. Graduated from Commercial Department, Waseda University, 1909. Secretary, Chinese Y.M.C.A., Tokio. Teacher at the Higher Commercial College, Tientsin, 1909 to

1911. Appointed Chief, Commercial Bureau, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, 1912. Councillor, Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce since 1916. Only Chinese member in the Bribery and Secret Commission Prevention League, London. Chinese Technical Expert to Paris Peace Conference. Second class Pao Kuang Chia Ho and second class Wen Hu decorations.

Wang Chih-ching.—Member for Heilungkiang of the National Council.

WANG CHIH-LUNG, (王郅隆).—Chihli. Born 1867. In the Ching Dynasty, Wang was an Expectant Taotai. Member of Parliament till the Anfu Political Party was disbanded 1920

WANG, CHIN-CHUN, see Wang Ching Chun.

- WANG CHING-CHUN, (C. C. Wang, or Chin-chun Wang). (干景春).—Chihli, Born June 1882. Studied in the Peking University, Yale University and University of Illinois. Ph. B. in C.E., M.A., Ph. D. Councillor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Nanking; Associate-Director Peking-Mukden Railway, concurrently Vice-Chairman in charge of the Commission on the Unification of Railway Accounts and Statistics, 1913-1915; Director of the Department of Railway Accounts and Finance, January 1915-July 1916, when China's standardized accounting system was for the first time put into force; Director of Postal Department and Acting Director-General of Posts: Managing Director of Peking-Mukden Railway, April 1917-July 1917; Managing Director of Peking-Hankow Railway, July 1917-January 1919; Technical Delegate of the Chinese Government at the Paris Peace Conference 1919; Counsellor of the Ministry of Communications and concurrently China's Representative on the Inter-allied Technical Board for the administration of the Siberian and Chinese Eastern Railways at Harbin, January 1920. Author of "Legislative Regulation of Railway Finance in England." Contributed a number of articles to leading American Magazines such as the Atlantic Monthly, the North American Review, the American Journal of International Law, the American Political Science Review, etc. Second class Tashou Chiaho and Wen hu decorations. Also Second order of the Crown of Greece.
- WANG CHING-FANG.—Honan. Born 1880. A returned student from Japan. Sub-editor of the Min Lik Pao, Shanghaï, February, 1912. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Non-partisan. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- WANG CHING-FANG.—Hupeh. Born 1876. Graduate of Liang-Hu College and a High Commercial School at Tokio. Director of Audit Bureau, and Chairman to the Committee for the Customs Duties, 1914. In the late Dynasty he was Director of the Bureau for the reform of the currency, and the Printing Bureau of Tuchihpu, and Assistant Director of the Ta-ching Bank. After the Revolution was the Director of the Preparatory Department of the Ministry of Finance for organizing the affairs of the Ministry, and Director of the Bureau for Central Taxation, establishing branches in the Provinces.
- WANG CHING-HSIEN, (王婧先).—Fukien. Born 1885. Studied in the Fukien Provincial Normal College and graduated as Civil Engineer in a Technical College in Japan, (Special course Railroad). Acting Vice-Chief, Department of Engineering, Ministry of Communications and Managing-Director of Changchow-Amoy railroad since December, 1915.
- WANG CH'ING-MU, (王海程).—Kiangsu. Secretary of Board of Commerce. September, 1905. Judicial Commissioner, Chihli, August, 1906. Retired January, 1907. Auditor-General, Chekiang, April, 1909. Commissioner of Finance, Kiangsu, April, 1912.

- Wang Chiung-hui, (王寶惠).—Kwangtung. Born 1882. Barrister-at-law. D.C.L. Studied law in Peiyang University, 1895-1900; America (Yale), Germany and England. While in America, translated the German Civil Code into English and acted as co-editor of the Journal of the American Bar Association. Called to the English Bar at the Inner Temple, London. While in Japan, edited the Kuomingpao, organ of the Chinese Revolutionary Society. Member of Tung Meng Hui. Delegate to the First International Bills of Exchange Conference at the Hague. Member of several learned societies and contributor to various legal periodicals in Europe and America. While abroad, refused important appointments under the Imperial Government. Minister of Foreign Affairs in the Nanking Provisional Government and Minister of Justice in the first Republican Cabinet. Chief Adviser to the Waichiaopu. His views on constitutional law influenced to a considerable extent the drafting of the Provisional Constitution. President, Law Codification Commission since, 1917. Chief Judge, Supreme Court, 1920.
- Wang Feng-hao, (天豐鏡).—Shanghai. Educated at the Imperial Language School, Peking, and Greenwich University. Chujen. Translator to Envoys to Great Britain, France, Italy and Belgium. Secretary to Chinese Legation, Tokio. Consul-General at Yokolama. Appointed Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Chekiang, July 1913. Author of books on the English language, police administration, foreign political systems, etc., in Chinese. Non-partisan. Second class Chiaho decoration and wearer of medals from five foreign governments.
- Wang Fu-wei.—Hupeh. Born 1887. Graduate of a Law School in Japan. Chief Secretary of the Ministry of Justice in Nanking Government. Was Chairman of the Central Judicial Conference. Was editor of the Chiao Hsin Pao, and correspondent of the Hsing Yi Chieh. Councillor of the Ministry of Justice, 1913. Non-partisan. Author of The Finance of China, The Currency of China, The Mystery of the Learnings of Hsuntze, Industrial Education.
- Wang Hsiang.—Szechuan. Born 1875. Studied three years in Japan. Was editor of the *Hsin Chung Pao*, at Chengtu. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kunghotang.
- WANG HSIN-YUN.-Member for Kansu of the National Council.
- WANG Hu, (王瑚).—Chihli. Kirin Taotai, August, 1910. Acting Chief Civil Administrator, Hunan, October 7th, 1913. Censor, 1914. Magistrate of Peking, Civil Governor of Kiangsu, since 1920.
- WANG HUAI-CHING, (王懷慶).—Chihli. Born 1865. Received a good education at home. Graduated from the Peivang Military Academy. Assigned to the army under General Niek Shih-cheng and displayed bravery during the Sino-Japanese War. Commander of Huai Chun (Anhui troops) in Manchuria and Chihli for some time. Defence Commissioner of Chinan, South Chihli. Commander-in-Chief of the Gendarmerie in Peking, July 1919, to date. Concurrently appointed Commander-in-Chief of Metropolitan Gendarmerie to succeed Tuan Chihkuei after the defeat of the Anfu Club.
- Wang Huai-shen.—Anhui. Graduate of Law College in Japan. Chief of the Department of Civil Affairs of the Ministry of Justice. During the Revolution he was arrested by the Martial Court in Peking, but was soon released and returned to Nanking and served in the 1st Army Division there. Kuomintang.
- Wang Hung-lu, (王鴻陸).—Chihli. Born 1877. Magistrate of several districts in Shantung. Salt Commissioner of Shantung. Salt Commissioner of Changla (Chihli), 1921.

- WANG HUNG-SHEN.—Kirin. Born 1882. A Graduate of the Normal School in Kirin. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- WANG I-TANG, (王程唐).—Anhui. Born 1879. Chinshih. Japan-educated Governor of Kirin, 1915. For sometime in 1916, was Minister of Interior in Tuan Chi-jui's cabinet. Speaker of the House of Representatives, 1918. Met downfall with Anfu Club in 1920.
- WANG JU-HSIEN.—Principal of the Academy for Military Officers, 1915.
- WANG JUNG-PAO, (汪榮寶).—Kiangsu. Graduate of a Japanese University.

 Member of the former Tzechengyuan. Formerly Councillor of the
 Board of Constabulary. One of the Kiangsu members of the National
 Council, and a member of the Kunghotang.
- WANG KE-MIN, (王克敏).—Chekiang. Born 1879. Chujen. Chancellor of the Chinese Legation, Tokio. Commissioner for Foreign Affairs of Chihli. Managing-Director, Bank of China. Minister of Finance. Now in retirement although he accepts special commissions from the Government.
- Wang Keng.—Anhui. Born 1877. A returned student from Japan and Europe, Lieutenant-General with the brevet rank of General of the Army. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Was in the Three Eastern Provinces training the new army, and was a Brigadier. Went to Russia with Tai Hung-chi, and travelled in Europe and America. Was a Military Commissioner and Lieutenant-General of Miyun. Established a Private University. Member of the Committee of Chinputang.
- Wang Kuang-chi, (王廣圻).—Kiangsi. Born 1878. Graduated from Peking Language School and a College in America. Attaché to the Chinese Legation at St. Petersburg, and formerly private secretary to Lu Cheng-hsiang, while he represented China in Holland and St. Petersburg. Was Secretary to the Cabinet from March 7 to October 6, when he resigned. Minister to Belgium, December 29, 1912. Minister Plenipotentiary in Italy, since 1915.
- Wang Kuei-fang.—Lieut.-General of the Plain Blue Banner Mongol Corps, 1915.
- Wang Kuo-to. Director of the Salt Transport Office in Hunan, 1915.
- WANG KUEI-LIN, (王桂林).—Chihli. Born June 7, 1878. Graduated in the Peiyang Higher Police Officers' Training School, Paoting Law College. Was in Police Service in Tientsin for over ten years. Superintendent of Police, City of Nanking, Oct. 1913. Commissioner of Police for Kiangsu since March, 1920. Author of various works on police administration and devised a system of police signals. Second class Wenhu, Chiaho, and Tashou Chiaho decorations.
- WANG LEI, (王耒).—Chekiang. Born 1880. Educated in a Law School in Japan. Judge, Higher Court in Yunnan, Taoyin in Fengtien. Secretary to the Cabinet Office. Head of the Fa-chi-chu, since Aug. 22, 1920. Author of T'iao Er River, its Control and Maintenance. Second class Tashou Chiaho decoration.
- WANG LIN-KE, (Lingoh Wang), (王麟園).—Chihli. Born Dec. 16, 1880.

 B. A. in Political Economy. Graduated from University of North Carolina, U.S.A., Commissioner of Foreign Affairs at Chefoo, 1913. Special Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Chihli, 1914 to 1916. Consul at Vancouver, 1917. Secretary, Chinese Legation at Washington, 1918 to 1920. Now Councillor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Third class Chia Ho Decoration.

- WANG, LINGOH, see Wang Lin Kê.
- Wang Nai-pin, (王迺斌).—Fengtien. Was a Hsiutsai in the old Confucian School. He was at first a junior secretary in the Yamen of the Vicercy of Three Eastern Provinces. Was once a Chief of Bureau for Collection of Opium-tax. Later Wang was appointed Superintendent of Native Customs at Sai Tsao Tai. Was successively Prefect of Chaoyang and of Jehol. Promoted to be Taotai of Jehol in November, 1911. He lived as a private citizen when revolution broke out in that year. General Chang Tso-lin appointed him to repatriate the tutei in Fengtien and then made him Adviser to the Civil Governor of that Province. Was Adviser to President Hsu. Was appointed Minister of Agriculture and Commerce since autumn, 1920 to date.
- WANG P'EI-CHU.—Commissioner of Finance, Shantung, May, 1912.
- WANG PING-CHE, (王秉譚).—Chihli. Born October 21, 1881. Graduated from the Paoting Teachers' College. Devoted most of his time to education in his native district, (Li Hsien, Chi) and Fengtien. Elected member of Provincial Assembly in 1912, Vice-Speaker, 1913. Again became a teacher, when the Provincial Assembly was dissolved in 1914. Resumed Vice-Speakership in the Assembly, 1916. Re-elected 1918. Formerly of Kuomintang. Decorated with Fifth class Chiaho on account of flood relief work done in 1917.
- WANG P'u, (王璞).—Peking. Born February 6, 1875. Lingson. Inventor and promoter of the Chu Yin alphabet. Prof in the Higher Normal School and Women's Higher Normal School (Peking), of the Peking University. President, Chu Yin Alphabet Training School. Author of various works on the National Pronunciation. Chu Yin Alphabet. National standard of spoken language, etc.
- WANG SHAN-CHUAN.—Taoyin of Foochow, 1915.
- Wang Shao-ao.—Kiangsu. Born 1886. Graduate of a University in Japan. Acting Commissioner of Foreign Affairs, Soochow, June, 1912. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan and member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. After the Revolution assisted Tsang Ping-ling in organizing Min-kuo Lien-ho Hui: which was reorganized and became the Tung-yi-tang, the policy and regulations of which were drawn up by him with the help of four others.
- WANG SHIH-CHEN, (王士珍).—Chihli. Born about 1865. School mate of ex-Marshal Tuan. Minister of Army in Yuan Shih-kai's Cabinet. General. Senior Director of the Generalissimo's Office. Chief of General Staff, 1916. Premier, December, 1917; resigned. February 20, 1918. Appointed Inspector-General of Kiangsu, Anhui and Kiangsi provinces, 1921.
- Wang Shih-kung.—Chihli. Born 1882. Graduate of Chihli High School and Normal School. Was a Teacher for three years. Member of Provisional Provincial Assembly, 1912. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- WANG SHIH-T'UNG, (王式道).—Shansi. Acting Vice-Minister of Justice.
 July-August, 1912. Legal Secretary to the President, Vice-Director
 National Conservancy Bureau.
- WANG SHOU-CHANG, (王壽昌).—Fukien. Born June 14, 1884. Studied in the Arsenal School, Foochow and graduated from a law college in France Was several years in railway service and in the first year of Hsuan Tung was appointed Director of the Hanyang Arsenal. Chief of the Foreign Affairs Department, Fukien, November 2, 1912. Ap-

- pointed Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Fukien since June 22, 1913. Non-partisan. Second class Tashou Chiaho decoration.
- Wang Shou-chen.—Anhui. Born 1871. Has been fifteen years in the police and judiciary services. Probationary Judge of High Court, Heilungkiang, June, 1911; Vice-Minister of Justice, September, 1912.
- Wang Shu.—Szechuan. Born 1876. Graduate of the Law College in Peking. Chujen. Was Judge of the High Court in Peking. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang. Author of The Essence of the Constitution and Criminal Code, and four volumes of other works.
- WANG SHU-JUNG, (王樹葉).—Chekiang. Born November 20, 1871. Studied in the Peking Law College. Judge, Higher Court of Justice for Chihli. Presiding Judge, Shansi Higher Court of Justice. Presiding Judge, Kiangsu Higher Court of Justice since December 20, 1915. Author of a series of law literature, various poems, etc. Third class Chiaho decoration.
- Wang Shu-sheng.—Member for Kirin of the National Council.
- Wang Shuang-ch'i.—Chihli. Born 1880. Graduate of a University in Japan, Chujen. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was appointed to the Bureau for the Preparation of Chihli Tzu Yi Chu, and then Chairman of the Department for the investigation of Self-Government. Chinputang. Author of The Principles of Self-Government, etc.
- Wang Ta, (王達).— Anhui. Born 1880. Graduated from Japan. Governor of Peking, 1915.
- WANG TA-HSIEH, (注大域).—Chekiang. Born about 1860. Secretary, Waiwupu, September, 1903. Minister to Great Britain, September, 1905. Vice-President, Waiwupu, November, 1906. Special Commissioner to study the British Constitution, 1908. Vice-President, Ministry of Communications, August, 1908. Chinese Minister to Japan, May, 1910. Minister of Education, September 11, 1913. Appointed Minister for Foreign Affairs in Tuan Chi-jui's Cabinet, July, 1917.
- Wang T'ing-Chen, (王廷楨).—Tientsin. Born 1876. Educated in the Peiyang Military Academy. Sent to Japan in 1889. Graduated from the Officers' Training School, Japan, March 1902. Second Tutung, Mongolian Bordered White Banner, August, 1912. Officer, President's Body Guard, September 10, 1912. Garrison Commissioner for Tientsin, 1913, for Nanking, 1914. Vice-Inspecting Commissioner of the Yangtze Valley, September, 1917. Commander, the 16th. Division, 1917. General in the Army, October 10, 1919. Tutung of Charhar and Commander of the 16th. Division since January 1, 1920. Author of lecture notes on military science and tactics. First class Tashou Chiaho, Wenhu, Tashou Paokuang Chiaho decorations. Wearer of Medal from the French Government.
- WANG T'ING-YANG, (王廷場).—Chekiang. Born November 1866. Studied for sometime in Japan. Chujen, Chinshih. Member, Ministry of Labour, during the Ching Dynasty. Later became magistrate in Kiangsu, Students' Director to Japan. Chief clerk, Higher Court of Justice, Kiangsi, 1914. Secretary, Ministry of Interior, June 18, 1919. Resigned August 12, 1920. Fourth class, Third class Chiaho decorations.
- WANG Tso-Ting, (王佐廷).—Finance Commissioner, Honan, July, 1912.
 Governor of Kwangsi, 1915; created Marquis of Second Order. December, 1915.
- Wang T'ung-Ling.—Chihli. Born 1878. Studied one year in Chihli High School; one in the Government University; Graduate of the High School

and the Government University at Tokio. Was appointed Councillor of the Ministry of Education on the 24th of the 9th month of the 1st year of the Chinese Republic. Acted as Secretary of the Ministry, and was a Delegate to attend business in the Cabinet. Member of the Boards of various Schools. Appointed by the Ministry to be Delegate for the Bureau for the Panama Exhibition.

- Wang Wen-Chin .-- Member for Chekiang of the National Council.
- Wang Wen-pao, (王文学).—Honan. Born 1875. Attended a Chinese literature school in Wuchang and also the Shiwu School in Changsha. Member of the Peking Police Department during the Ching dynasty. Became member of the Ministry of Interior since Republic. Departmental Head, Ministry of Justice since July, 1914. Second class Chiaho and Third class Paokuang Chiaho decorations.
- Wang Wen-wet.—Chekiang. Born 1880. Educated in a Missionary School at Shanghai, and a Graduate of the College of Languages, Shanghai. Engaged as a clerk in the American Postal Agency at Shanghai for eleven years. When the Revolution broke out was made Sectional Chief of the Postal Department at Hangchow. When the Provisional Government was at Nanking he was a Sectional Chief in the Postal Department of the Ministry of Communications. Appointed Delegate of Communications to Peking by Chekiang Province, and became Chief of the Postal Department of the Ministry of Communications, on the 12th of May, 1912. Received the 4th Class Chiaho from the President. Kuomintang.
- Wang Yin Ch'uan, (王即川).—Honan. Born 1880. Educated in Japan. Ll.B. Chujen. Appointed Civil Governor for Honan, February 27, 1920. Author of two books in Chinese. Non-partisan. First class Ta Shou Chiaho, Second class Wenhu, Second class Ta Shou Pao Kuang Chiaho decorations.
- WANG YING-CHUAN.—Member of the Tsanchengyuan (Council of State). 1915.
- Wang Yu-ling.—Councillor of Law Department of Cabinet, July, 1912. Vice-Minister of Justice in Lu Cheng-hsiang's Cabinet August, 1912. Resigned in September, 1912.
- WANG YUEH. (王越).—Shensi. Born August 21, 1869. Chujen. Was a magistrate in Kansu and at one time, member of the Tsan Yi Yuan during the Ching Dynasty. Superintendent of Police, Sian, and Commissioner of Police of the Province of Shensi since April 18, 1919.
- Wang Yung-ping.—Shansi. Born 1882. A Graduate of a Law School in Japan. Was Speaker of the Provisional Assembly of Shansi, and member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. After returning from Japan he opened a newspaper office in Shansi, and having incurred suspicion for revolutionary tendencies, he fled to avoid being arrested. During the Revolution he returned to Shansi, where he organized a Revolutionary army in Hotung, thus connecting the revolutionary forces of Shansi and Shensi. He was elected Tutuh by the people, but he refused the post. After the Declaration of the Republic he went to Taiyuanfu, in the capacity of Chief Civil Administrator, and organized the Provisional Assembly of Shansi and was elected Speaker of the Assembly. Then he invited Tutuh Yen to return to Shansi to take up his office as Tutuh. Was a member of the Kuomintang, but being dissatisfied with the actions of the tang, he began to organize the Chengyuhui. Author of The Constitutional History of China, Changes in Chinese Literature, etc.
- Wei Ch'en-Tsu.—Chief Secretary of the Cabinet, May. 1912. Retired July 1912. Minister to Holland, November 24, 1912.

WEI CHIA-HUA.—Kiangsu. Held Taotaiships in Yunnan in 1910-11. Vacated office in August, 1911. Civil Commissioner, Kiangsu, April, 1912.

Wei Chin-en, (Wei Kin-un), (韋錦恩).—Kwangsi. Superintendent of Wuchow Customs and Special Commissioner of Foreign Affairs for Kwangsi, since November 1, 1919.

WEI CHING-HSIUNG.—Director of the Branch Conservancy Office in Hunan, 1915.

WEI HAN.—Chief Superintendent of Shipbuilding, 1915.

WEI KIN-UN, see Wei Chin En.

Wei Shao-chou, (建紀度)—Fengtien. Born January 6, 1879. Studied in the Normal Department, Imperial Peking University and in the Commercial Department of the Government Peking University. Commissioner of Industry for Heilungkiang since December 14, 1918. Author of Directory of Shuan Cheng Hsien. Third class Chiaho decoration.

Wei Tsung-Lien, (魏宗蓮).—Shantung. Born in Peking March, 1885.
Graduated in the Agriculture School of Paoting and in the Law Department of the Imperial University (Japan). Was member of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry 1912-1917, of Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce afterwards. Teacher of Law, Peking Government University. Commissioner of Industries since September, 1917. Third and Second class Chiaho decorations.

WEN SHOU-CH'UN.--Military Commissioner of Shansi, July, 1912.

Wen Tsung-yao, (流宗美).—Kwangtung. Educated in America. Secretary to Canton Viceroy, 1905-8. Assistant Resident in Tibet, June, 1908. Played a very conspicuous part in the Revolution, in particular being mainly responsible for the foreign propaganda of the revolutionaries. In co-operation with Wu Ting-fang, and acting in complete understanding with the Wuchang leaders, he directed the issue of the Republican manifestoes and other pronouncements, and endeavoured by every possible device to prevent foreign loans to the Imperial Government. On the establishment of the Republic he became Commissioner of Trade and Foreign Affairs in Shanghai, a post which he resigned in April. He was subsequently offered the position of Chinese Resident in Tibet, but declined to accept it.

Wen Tu-chou.—Hunan. Resides in Sinkiang. A Hsiutsai of the late Dynasty. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. A Magistrate of Changchihsien, Sinkiang (Kwang Hsu 34th year), and there at his own expense he established four primary Schools. A Magistrate of Shuilaihsien, Hsuan Tung first year, and within the two years when he was in office he established eleven primary Schools, which contained 932 pupils. He, with the assistance of the natives there, opened a canal, thirty li, which waters more than 9000 mou of fields. Kuomintang. Author of Minerals and Scenery in Sinkiang, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

Wong Kal-Wen, (黃開文).—Chief of Bureau of Rites.

Woo, N. T., see Wu Nai Ch'en.

Woo, Y. L. see Wu Yu-lin.

WY CHAO-CHU, (任何福).—Kwangtung. Born 1886. A Graduate of Atlantic City High School, U.S.A.; University of London; Lincoln's Inn, London; Barrister-at-Law; LL.B.; Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for Hupeh, 1912; Chairman. Treaty Commission of Ministry of

- Foreign Affairs, 1912; Representative of Kwangtung, 1913; Member of Constitution Drafting Committee, 1913; Awarded Studentship at Bar Examinations, 1911; Awarded Moiety of Scholarship at LLB. Examinations by University of London, 1911. Kuomintang. An originator of the Minhsientang. Author of pamphlets entitled an Appeal for Recognition, and on China's Position in Tibet. Councillor of the State Department and Ministry for Foreign Affairs, 1915. Joint Examiner, with King Pang-ping, and American and Japanese advisers, of stradents graduated abroad. Son of Wu Ting-fang. Now Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs at Canton.
- Wu Chao-Lin, (吳昭麟).—Anhui. Born August 31, 1872. Graduated in the Military Academy (Tientsin). Member of Ministry of War since December, 1919. Second class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- Wu Chen-nan.—Kiangsu. Born 1881. A Graduate of the Naval School in Nanking, and a Naval School in England. Captain in the Navy. Was Teacher of the Navigation Department of the Naval School in Nanking. Chief of the Naval Department in Nanking, and when the Nanking Government was organized he became a Councillor of the Ministry of the Navy. Non-partisan.
- Wu Ch'eng.—Kiangsu. Born 1877. A Graduate of a Medical School at Tokio. Chief of the Sanitary Department of the Ministry of the Interior, and Chairman of the Chinese Medical Society. Has been Teacher to various Government Schools. Non-partisan. Author of The History of Opium in China, etc.
- Wu Chi-sun, (吳笈孫).—Honan. Born 1875. An intimate friend of President Hsu Shih.-chang, held several positions with him in Manchuria and on Tientsin-Pukow Railway. Member of the Ministry of Interior in the late Ching Dynasty. Secretary of Chengshihtang. Director of the Printing and Engraving Bureau. Appointed Chief Secretary to the President
- Wu Ch'i-T'ang, (吳器堂).—Kwangtung. Born 1859. Studied in an English School in Hongkong. Superintendent of Police of Shanhaikuan since 1914.
- Wu Chien, (吳健).—Kiangsu. Born 1874. Graduated from St. John's University (Shanghai) and Sheffield. M.A. (in Metallurgy), Ph.D. Prof. in the St. John's University. Assistant Engineer, Hanyang Iron Works 1907. Director, Hanyang Iron Works, and Tayeh Iron Works since 1912. Author, English-Chinese Dictionary (Pocket Ed.) published by the Commercial Press. Translated Elementary Agriculture. Third class Chiaho and Sixth class Wenhu decorations.
- WU CHING-LIEN, (吳景濂).—Fengtien. Studied in Japan. Was Chairman of the Fengtien Provincial Assembly. Represented his province in the National Council, of which he was Chairman. A member of the Tung-yi-kung-ho-tang. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Elected Speaker of the House of Representatives, June, 1917, prior to Li Yuan-Hung's dissolution of Parliament. President of the Canton Parliament, 1918.
- WU CHUN.-Member for Kansu of the National Council.
- WU CHUN-SHENG, (吳俊陞).—Born 1863. Defence Commissioner of Tiaonan, Fengtien. Lieutenant-General. Commander of the 29th Army Division. Appointed Tuchun of Heilungkiang, 1921. Second class of Merit.

- Wu Chung-hsien.—Chargé d'Affaires in Mexico.
- Wu Chung-Ying.—Military Commissioner of Anhui, May, 1912.
- Wu Erh-ch'ang.—Councillor in the Waichiaopu, April, 1912.
- Ww Fan. Director of the Bank of Hunan, 1915.
- Wu Fang.—Financial Secretary of Chêkiang, 1915.
- Wu Hsu-hua, (吳緒華).—Kweichow. Born 1878. Bachelor of Law. Studied in Japan. Principal, Law College, Kweichow, 1911. Member of Tsan Yi Yuan, 1913. Joined the Military Government and was appointed Chief, Higher Procurator's Court of Kweichow, Oct. 1916. Kweihsi Taoyin since December 1916. Editor, The More Important Cases in the Kweichow Higher Court. Non-partisan. Third class Chia Ho Decoration. First class (Canton) Memorial Medal of the Military Government.
- Wu Jen-Li, (吳氣龍).—Anhui. Born November, 1874. Educated in a Naval College. Served on the ships from 1896 to 1903 when became instructor in Peiyang Training Camps. Was Dean, Vice-Director, Director of various military schools at Yaotsun, Paoting, etc. Department Chief, Ministry of Navy, 1908. Councillor in the Ministry of Navy. Major General in the Navy. Second class Chiaho, Wenhu decorations.
- Wu Kuan-yin, (吳貴因).—Kwangtung. Born 1880.—Graduated in Political Economy, Waseda University, Japan. B.Sc in Political Sciences. Secretary to the Tutuh of Kirin 1912. Adviser to the Office of Cabinet, September, 1914. Counciller, Ministry of Interior, January, 1917. Chief, Editing Department of the same ministry. Assistant examiner, Civil Service Examination, October, 1919. Author of "Budget System for China," "The Parliament and the People," etc. Third class Chiaho, Second class Tashou Chiaho decorations.
- Wu Kuang-hsin, (吳光新 —Anhui. Graduate of Japanese Military Officers Training School. Commander-in-Chief of Upper Yangtze Valley. In 1920, when the Anfu-Chihli struggle arose, Wu attempted to capture Wuchang in order to enlarge the Anfu force, but was detected and arrested by General Wang Chan Yuan, and imprisoned at Wuchang.
- We Lien-teh, (任連德).—Kwangtung. Born 1880. Studied at Cambridge. England, (B.A., M.B., B.C., M.D.,) France, Germany. Physician and Surgeon. Director and Chief Medical Officer, North Manchuria Plague Prevention Service. Twice Delegate to International Opium Conference, The Hague. Holder of man shonours in Europe. Hon. LL D., Hong-Kong. Fellow and member of Learned Societies in Europe. Author of books on Plague and other Medical subjects. President of the National Medical Association.
- WU NAI-CH'EN, (N. T. Woo) (吳万珠).—Chekiang. Born 1831. Graduate ed from the Nanyang College, Shanghai, B.S., University of California, U.S.A., M.A., University of Wisconsin, U.S.A. Chujen. Chinshih. Teacher of Commercial courses, Government University, Peking, 1910-17. Co-Director, Bureau of Currency Reform, 1910. Commissioner on Currency Reform to London, 1911. Law Compiler, Ministry of Communications, 1910. Dean, College of Commerce, Government University, Peking, 1912. Vice-Governor, Bank of China, 1913. Director, Bureau of Currency. Ministry of Finance, 1912. Councillor, 1913. Secretary since 1918. Chinputang. Author of Finance, Book-keeping and The Problem of the Reform of Chinese Currency, Money and Banking. Third class Chiaho and Second class Tashou Chiaho Decorations.

- Wu Pao-kuel.—Brigade General of the Liang-chow military circuit in Kansu, 1915.
- Wu Pet-Fu, (吳佩孚).—Shantung. Born 1873. Obtained his degree of Hsiutsai (B.A.) at the age of 21. Graduated with honour from the Kai Ping Military Academy, near Tientsin, 1898. After a brief service under late General Nieh Shih-cheng, entered a military school of which Marshal Tuan Chi-jui was Director. After graduation, General Wu joined the Third Army Division, of which General Tsao Kun was then Commander. Was promoted to battalion commander. Participated bravely in the military campaigns in Shansi, Szechuan and Honan, since the Republic. Awarded Fuwei Chiangchun. Became Commander of the Sixth Brigade of the Third Division, early 1916. When General Tsao Kun was made Military Governor of Chihli, Wu was instructed to act for him as Commander of the Third Division. Participated in the fight against General Chang Hsun's Monarchical movement, summer, 1917. His Division was sent to recapture Yochow and Changsha from the South in the spring of 1918. General Wu was successful as these two cities were retaken by the Third Division. The return of his troops from Hunan to Chihli ir the Summer of 1920, was opposed by Marshal Tuan, resulting in the armed conflict responsible for the downfall of the Anfu Club. Appointed Vice-Inspecting-General of Chihli, Shantung and Honan, 1920.
- Wu Ping-ch'en.—Szechuan. Born 1879. Graduate of the special Law College for the gentry of Szechuan. Member of Ts'an Yi Yuan and a lawyer in Peking. Was a Secretary to high Military and Civil officials in the late Dynasty. When trouble arose in connection with railway affairs in the 3rd year of Hsuan Tung, with the assistance of the gentry he started the Society for the Protection of Railways, which appointed him Delegate to proceed to Hunan and Hupeh to rouse up the people there in resistance against the Government. Took a prominent part in the Revolution, and was Chief of the Miscellaneous Department in the War Office of Szechuan. Chief Investigator of the Bureau of Southern Szechuan. Pacificator, Magistrate of Chianwei Hsien. Sectional Chief of Criminal Procedure Department of the Department of Justice and other official posts. Member of the Senate. Kunghotang.
- Wu Ping-Hsiang, (吳炳湘).—Chief of the Metropolitan Constabulary. 1915-20.
- Wu Ping-ts'ung, (吳炳樑).—Hupeh. Graduated from the Tokio Law School with diploma. Teacher, Peiyang Law School, 1909. Delegate to the Central Legal Conference from Hupeh, 1912. Chief Justice, Local Court of Justice of Hankow, 1913. Presiding Judge, Higher Court of Justice, Peking, 1915. Chief Procurator, Szechuan, 1917. Shensi, 1918. Chief Justice, Higher Court of Justice for Kirin since 1920. Author of "Local Government." Fifth class Chiaho decoration.
- Wu Shou-chien.-Chargé d'Affaires and Consul-General in Cuba.
- Wu Ting-Chang, (吳鼎昌).—Szechuan. Director-General of Ta Ching Bank and Bank of China. Adviser to the Ministry of Industry and Commerce. Director-General of Tientsin Mint and the General Mint, Peking. Appointed Vice-Minister of Finance. 1920. Associate Delegate of the Peking Government to negotiate peace with the South at Shanghai, in 1919.
- Wu Ting-fang, (伍廷芳).—Kwangtung. Born 1842. A Graduate of St. Paul's Coilege, Hongkong; and Lincoln's Inn. London: Barrister-at-Law; I.J.D. (hon. cau.); Minister to the U.S.; Spain and Peru, 1896; Vice-President Board of Commerce, 1903; Commissioner for Revision of

Treaties, 1903; Vice-President, Board of Foreign Affairs, 1903; of Board of Punishments, 1906; Commissioner for Revision of Laws, 1905; Judge, International Court of Arbitration at The Hague, 1905; Minister to U.S.A., Spain, Peru, and Cuba, 1907; Chief Revolutionary Delegate at Shanghai Peace Conference, 1911; Minister of Foreign Affairs and Justice under Nanking Government. First Chinese Barrister; Acted as Magistrate at Hongkong; revised treaties; revised and codified laws (e.g. Company Law); directed revolutionary propaganda; negotiated peace between North and South and terms of the Manchu abdication. Appointed Minister for Foreign Affairs after the death of Yuan Shihkai. Subsequently he associated himself with the South in opposing the military domination of the Peking Government and became Minister for Foreign Affairs in the Canton Military Government, 1918 and 1921.

- Wu Tsung-Lien.—Acting Senior Secretary, Waiwupu. September, 1908.

 Acting Junior Councillor, January, 1909. Minister to Italy, August, 1909.
- WU WEN-PING.—Chief of the Constabulary Court, 1915.
- Wu Yu-lin, (Y. L. Woo), (吳衛麟).—Tientsin. Born 1875. Admiral. Graduated from the Peiyang Naval College of which he was a teacher after graduation. Departmental Chief of the Ministry of Navy. Appointed Director-General of Taku Naval Dockyard and of Peiyang Iron Works, Tientsin. Second class Wenhu, second class Packuang Chiaho, second class Tashou Chiaho decorations.
- YANG SHAO-CHUNG.—Honan. Born 1881. A Graduate of the Normal School in Honan and of the Law College in Peking. Speaker of Honan Assembly. Was Teacher to various Normal and Law Colleges. Chinputang.
- YANG CH'I-KUAN, (妈其觀).—Kwangtung. Bern May 1887. Graduated in the French Department of Hupeh Language College. Chief Secretary, Department of Finance in the Military Government 1920. Translated Modern History of the World.
- Yang Ch'ing.—Yunnan. Born 1845. A Chujen of the late Dynasty. Was sent by the Viceroy of his Province to investigate Educational Affairs in Japan, where he remained and studied for one year in a Normal School. Most of his time was employed in Educational Affairs. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. When the election of Speaker took place he was elected as Provisional Speaker of the House, being the oldest member of that House. Kuomintang. Author of the Records of Yunnan, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913. Commissioner of Trade and Foreign Affairs in the South. Councillor in the office of the Generalissimo of the Yangtze.
- YANG JUN, (場理).—Kiangsu. Studied in the Kiangsu Provincial College (Nanking). Member of Parliament, in the first and second republican parliaments. Director, Bureau of Engraving and Printing since Sept. 11, 1920. Second class Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- YANG MIEN-CHIII.—Hunan. Born 1879. Graduate of the Normal School at Hunan and Graduate of a Japanese University. Councillor of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, appointed August, 1912. Kuomintang. Author of Philosophy, Poems (six volumes). The Blind (five volumes), and Talks.
- YANG PAO-LING. (長河震).—Kiangsu. Born 1887. Studied in Anglo-Chinese Celleges of Shanghai and Soockow. After leaving school, Yang was teacher to several schools in Chinkiang and Changchow. When Viceroy Tuan Fang was in Nanking, he passed his official examina-

tion successfully by which he was sent to United States as a government student. Attended Cornell University and Purdue University and got the degree of C.E. from the latter. Returned to China in 1911. During the outbreak of revolution at Wuchang, he participated in the Red Cross work and acted as a war correspondent of the China Press Appointed by President Li Yuan-hung as Commissioner for Foreign Affairs at Wuchang. Was Dean of Civil Engineering Department of the Institute of Technology, Changsha. Departmental Chief of the National Conservancy Bureau of which Chang Chien was the Director-General. As a technical expert, Yang devoted his services to surveying the Huai River and the Grand Canal and in the Flood Relief Work of 1917 in Chihli. Appointed member of the Commission for the Improvement of the River System of Chihli.

YANG TA.—Member of the Tsanchengyuan (Council of State).

YANG TING-TUNG, (楊廷棟).—Member for Kiangsu of the National Council.

YANG TSE.—Member for Kirin of the National Council.

- YANG TSENG-HSIN, (楊增新).—Yunnan. Age 57. Chinshih Aksu Taotai, Sinkiang, 1908. Acting Commissioner of Finance, Sinkiang, April, 1912. Military and Civil Governor for Sinkiang since June 5, 1912. Second Order of Merit, First class Tashou Paokuang Chiaho and Wenhu decorations.
- Yang Tu, (楊度).—Honan. Born 1875. Chujen. Studied law in Japan. Upon his return, Yang worked up till he was Vice-Minister in the Board of Education. Since the Republic, Yang was once High Political Adviser to President Yuan Shih-kai. Was one of the Promoters of the Yuan's Monarchical project.
- YANG YI-TEH, (楊以德).—Chihli. Born 1875. Educated in private school.
 A Major-General of the Army. Chief of the Police Bureau at Tientsin.
 Chief of the Military Office in connection with the Peiyang troops, at Tientsin. Non-partisan.
- YAO CHEN, 版華).—Kweichow. Member for Shantung of the National Council. Was once Director, Peking Girls Normal School.
- YAO HUA, (她震).—Anhui. President of the Court of Revision. 1918. Noted for pro-Anfu Intrigue. Now in exile.
- YAO LIEN-K'UEI, (姚聯奎).—Anhui. Born 1860. Taming Taoyin. Chihli. since Jan. 13, 1916. Second class Tashou Chiaho decoration.
- YAO SHIH-KUANG.—Senior Councillor. Board of War, July, 1907. Acting Junior Vice-President of the Board, March, 1909. Expectant Vice-President of a Board, December, 1910. Advisory Minister to the Privy Council, August, 1911. Director of Peiyang University. Vice-President of Ministry of Interior in 1910. Vice-Chief (and for some time Acting Chief) of Bureau for Mongolia and Tibet, July, 1912.
- YAO YUEH.—Salt Commissioner for the two Kuang provinces, 1915.
- YEH KUNG-CH'O, (葉恭韓).—Kwangtung. Born in Peking, November 24, 1881. Studied in Imperial University of Peking. Was Chief of Railway Department, Ministry of Communications and Vice-Minister of the same Ministry. After being a teacher in various schools in Hupeh, he joined the Ministry of Communications and was one of the officials who planned to get back the control of the Peking-Hankow Railway from the foreigners. Appointed Counciller to negotiate between the North and the South. A delegate to prepare for the or-

ganization of the Provincial Government. Was a member of the Finance Committee; Vice-Chairman of the Railway Association; Chairman, Commission on Technical Terms of the Railways; Commission on Unification of Railway Accounting System. Vice-Minister of Communications, July 3, 1913 to 1915. Vice-Minister of Finance, 1917. Reappointed Vice-Minister of Communications. Resigned October, 1918. Commissioner to study Industry and Communications to Europe. Special Communications. August 11, 1920. Resigned, May 1921. Second class Chiaho, Tashou Packuang Chiaho, First class Wenhu decorations. Wearer of Medals from Belgium, Japan and Denmark.

YEN CHIET. (嚴智怡).—Tientsin. Born 1882. Graduated from the Tecknical College, Tokio, Japan. Was member of the Provincial Government of Chihli. Special Commissioner from Chihli to the Panama Exposition, San Francisco, 1915. Departmental Head, Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce. Appointed Chihli Commissioner of Industries, October, 1917. Second class Paokuang Chiaho and Tashou Chiaho decorations.

YEN, HAWKLING L., see Yen Hê Ling.

YEN HSLANG-WEN. (**固相文**).—Shantung. Has been General of the Second Brigade of Chihli Army and General of the 20th. Army Division. Appointed Tuchun of Shensi, May. 1921.

YEN HE-LING. (Hawkling L. Yen). (最佳的).—Yu-yao. Chekiang. Born 1830. Studied in the St. John's University, Shanghai, 1896-1903. Graduated therefrom with diploma, 1903; A.B., 1907. Instructor, St. John's University, 1903-6. Teacher, Fu Tan College, Woosung, 1907-8. Editor, St. John's Echo, 1901-3. Studied political science at Columbia University, U.S.A., 1909-11. A.M., 1909; Ph.D., 1911. Member, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1911-12. Commissioner of Foreign Affairs, Chekiang, 1912-13. Secretary, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1913-16. Councillor. Director-in-charge, Tsing Hua College. Formerly member of Constitution-Study Commission. Member Peace Conference Preparation Commission. Technical Delegate to the Paris Peace Conference. Member Office of the Cabinet in 1916. Author of A Survey of the Constitutional Development in China. Managing Editor, Chinese Social and Palitical Science Review. Second class Paokuang Chiaho and Wenhu Decorations. Second class Grand Officier of Italy. Second class Grand Officier of Greece.

YEN HSIU. (嚴修).—Tientsin. Born April 2, 1860. Educated in family school. Chinshih. Hanlin. Vice-Minister of Education in the late Ching Dynasty.

YEN HUI-CH'ING. (W. W. Yen), ().—Shanghai. Born 1877. Had early education in local schools. Studied in the Episcopal High School, Virginia, U.S.A., 1895-7 winning therefrom Gold Medal for English Composition and debating. Studied in the academic and law departments of the University of Virginia, receiving degree of B.A. and law diploma. Member of the Phi Beta Kappa Society. Professor of English, St. John's University, Shanghai, 1900-1906. Chinshih, Hanlin. One of the founders and honorary secretary of the World's Chinese Students' Federation, Shanghai. Member of various Educational and Social organizations. LL.D., Peking, 1906. Secretary to the Chinese Legation at Washington, 1908-10. Was recalled to Peking to organize the press Bureau, becoming its director. Junior Councillor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1911. After various promotions, was appointed Vice-

Minister of Foreign Affairs, April, 1912. Minister to Germany and Denmark, 1913, 1918-1920. Plenipotentiary to the Opium Conference at The Hague, May 26, 1913. Appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs, August 11, 1920. Author, translator and editor of various books most noted of which is the Standard English-Chinese Dictionary, published in Shanghai.

YEN HSI-SHAN, (周鏡山).—Shansi. Born 1882. A Graduate of a Military Staff School in Japan. Lieutenant-General with the brevet rank of General of the Army, and Tutuh of Shansi. In Japan he joined the Tung Meng Hui, and after returning from that country he was appointed Director of the Military School and Chief of the 86th Regiment. When the Revolution broke out, he took up the revolutionary cause and was elected Tutuh of Shansi. He lea an army and occupied Koupei and district. Was the first to propose that the troops should be disbanded in order to curtail expenses, and he himself disbanded more than 30,000 troops in his Province. When the rebellion in the South broke out he was a strong supporter of the Central Government. Tuchun of Shansi since 1916. Non-partisan. Author of The Discipline of the Revolutionary Army. Known as the "Model Tuchun."

YEN P'AN-CH'UN.—Fengtien. Born 1862. A Graduate of Yanchenhu School in Fengtien. Hsiutsai. A Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was an investigator of the various societies; a member of the Fengtien Tzu Yi Chu and a Vice-Speaker of the Provisional Fengtien Assembly. Chinputang.

YEN TE-CH'ING.—Councillor, Ministry of Communications, May, 1912.

YEN TUN-YUAN, (言敦遠).—Kiangsu. Vice-Minister of the Interior, October 28, 1912. Resigned, July 8, 1912.

YEN, W. W., see Yen Hui Ch'ing.

Yr Tsung-ku'el.—Hunan Born 1875. Studied in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan, representing Mongolia, and a Member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. One of the representatives sent by the provinces to request the opening of a Parliament. Was a member of the late Tzu Cheng Yuan, and was prominent in the impeachment of Prince Ching. Was connected with the Revolution started by Tang Chai-tsang. On the failure of Kang Yu-wei's reform scheme he retired into seclusion and wrote several volumes on the subject of Reforms, until the time when schools were started everywhere, when he took up teaching. While in Japan he edited a revolutionary periodical. Kuomintang. Author of Huang Hai Lou Essays and Poetry. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

YIH ERH-WEI.—President of the High Court of Justice in Szechuan, 1915.

YIN CHANG, (茂貴).—Manchu. Attached to Prince Ch'un's mission to Germany in 1901. Minister to Germany, August, 1901. Appointment renewed, December, 1904. Director of Noble's College, Peking, December, 1905. Provincial Commander-in-Chief, Kiangpei, September, 1906. Vice-President, Army Board, November, 1906. Minister to Germany for second time, September, 1908. Inspector-General of Autumn Manœuvres in Anhui, November, 1908. Proceeded to Germany, spring, 1909. Acting President, Board of War, March, 1910. Inspector-General of Divisions in vicinity of Peking, August, 1910. Minister of War in Prince Ching's Cabinet, December, 1910. Rank of General, March, 1911. Appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Forces, and sent to the front, on the outbreak of the Revolution at Wuchang. Recalled and appointed Chief of the General Staff, in place of Prince Tsai Tao,

- in November, 1911, from which post he subsequently resigned. Chief Military Secretary to the President. Member of the Tsanchengyuan (Council of State). Director of the Generalissimo's Office, Peking.
- YIN CHANG-HENG.—Szechuan. Born 1884. Graduate of the Officers' Training School in Japan. Lieutenant-General of the Army with the brevet rank of a full General. Second Order of Merit. Decoration of Wenhu, second class. Was Tutuh of Szechuan, and Occupation Commissioner of Szechuan Frontier. Pacification Commissioner of Szechuan Frontier, and Acting Tutuh, September, 1912. Suppressed disturbances in Szechuan. Defeated Tibetan troops and recovered the frontier of Szechuan. Resigned his membership from political parties. Author of General Principles for Military Officers, Military Morality, etc.
- YIN JU-CHI. Member for Chekiang of the National Council.
- YING TE-HUNG, (應應関).—Vice-Minister of Finance, June, 1912. Chief Civil Administrator, Kiangsu, November 19, 1912; resigned, September 6, 1913. General Director of Military Affairs of Kiangsu, July 25, 1913.
- YU JEN-FENG, (家人原).—Childi. Born 1874. Graduated from the Railway Department of the Pei Yang Military Academy. Has been Engineer of the Peking-Mukden, Peking-Kalgan. Canton-Hankow railroads. Since the Republic, Yu was connected with the Ministry of Communications and was appointed Assistant Managing-Director of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway. Managing-Director, Peking-Hankow Railway, 1920.
- YU JIH-CHANG, (David Z. T. Yui), (余日章).—Hupeh. Studied in Wenhua College, Wuchang, and St. John's College, Shanghai. Teacher at Wenhua College for some time. Studied in America and got the degree of M.A. Member of several well-known Societies in America. Delegate for Foreign Affairs of President Li Yuan-hung. General Secretary of the National Committee of the Chinese Y.M.C.A. up to date.
- Yu Hua-lung, (子化龍).—Chihli. Educated in the Surveying School, Paoting. Departmental Head, Ministry of War since Sept. 3, 1920.
- Yu Hung-ch'i.—Shantung. Born 1876. Graduate of the High Normal School of the Government University at Peking, and a Chujen. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- Yu Lang.—Prince. A noble of the Imperial House. Vice-President, Board of Police, October, 1905. Assistant Comptroller Hatamen Octroi, September, 1906. Vice-President, Board of Interior, November, 1906. Prince of the Third Order, February, 1908. Charged with others with the formation of the new Imperial Body Guard, December, 1908. Commander of Peking Gendarmerie, January, 1909. Head of the General Staff. June, 1919 Grand Councillor, August, 1910. Chief of General Staff (with Prince Tsai Tao) in Prince Ching's Cabinet, an office from which he was removed on November 1, 1911.
- YU PAO-SHAN.—Vice Minister of the Interior. Organizer and Controller of the National Plague Prevention Service.
- Yu Tao-hsuan.—Anhui. Graduate of a Japanese Law College. A member of the Tung Meng Hui, and one of the Anhui members of the National Council.
- YU WEN-TING .- Chief of the Bureau of Printing and Engraving, 1913.
- YU YUN-LUNG, (由雲龍).—Yunnan. Born August 1887. Graduated from the Imperial University (Peking). Salt Commissioner for Yunnan since

- September, 1, 1916. Fourth Order of Merit, Second class of Chiaho decoration.
- YUAN CHIA-P'U.--Financial Commissioner of Yunnan, May, 1912.
- Yuan Chung-shu.—Councillor, Constitutional Department of Cabinet. June, 1911. Vice-Minister of Communications, February, 1912. Retired on formation of first Republican Ministry. Chief Private Secretary to President Yuan.
- Yuan Hsi-T'ao, (袁希德).—Kiangsu. Born 1865. A Graduate of the Shanghai Lungmen College, and was appointed to proceed to Japan to investigate educational affairs. Chujen of the late Dynasty. Was two years a member of the Educational Committee of his native town; three years a member of the Shanghai City Municipal Council; two years a member of the Kiangsu Educational Society; and three years a Sectional Chief of the Chihli Educational Society; and three years a Sectional Chief of the Republic was appointed Chief of the Department of General Education. Has for years devoted himself to educational affairs. Non-partisan. Vice-Minister of Education, 1915.
- Yuan Jung-sou.—Chekiang. Born 1881. Graduate of the Political Science Department of the University at Tokio. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan, and editor of the Kuominkungpao. Was Professor of Political Science in the Frontier College. Non-partisan. Author of many Essays on Politics published in various papers.
- YUAN K'E-TING, (袁克定).—Honan. Eldest son of President Yuan Shihkai. Expectant Taotai, employed upon special service in Manchuria. 1906. Junior Secretary of Board of Commerce, April. 1907. Sustained a serious accident while in Honan, in the spring of 1911, as the result of a fall from a horse. Went to Germany in 1913 for medical treatment. Director-General of the Kailan Mining Administration.
- Yuan Ping-huang.—Hunan. Born 1882. Graduate of the Police College of Sinkiang. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan for Sinkiang. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.
- YUAN TA-HUA. (袁大化).—Anhui. Judicial Commissioner, Shantung, May, 1906. Financial Commissioner, Honan, December, 1906. Acting Governor, August, 1907. Acting Governor, Shantung, March, 1908. Mourning, April, 1908. Governor of Sinkiang, November, 1910. Resigned, April, 1912, and ordered to take command of troops in Sinkiang and assist the Tutuh to restore order. Appointed to the Council of Regency on the abortive restoration of the Manchu Dynasty, July, 1917.
- Yur, David Z. T., see Yu Jih-chang.
- YUN PAO-HUI, (恒寶惠).—Peking Councillor of the Ministry of War.
 Chief Secretary to the Cabinet since 1920.
- YUNG Kow-HSIN.—Civil Governor of Yunnan, 1915.

CHAPTER XXXII.

MISCELLANEOUS.

FOREIGN DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICES.

LIST OF HIS MAJESTY'S DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICES IN CHINA.

Place.	Rank.	Name.	Date of Appoint ment.
Peking.			
	Extraordinary and	Sir Beilby F. Alston,	
Minister Plenipotentiary			1 March, 1920.
Counsellor		R. H. Clive, C.M.G.	1 Jan., 1920.
Naval Attaché		Capt. John P. R. Mar-	,
		riott, R. N., C.M.G.	31 March, 1920.
Militar	y Attaché	Lt. Col. H. B. H. Orpen-	
		Palmer, D.S.O., C.M.G.	15 Dec., 1920
Comme	rcial Counsellor	H. H. Fox, C.M.G.	
Chinese Secretary		S. Barton, C.M.G.	12 May, 1911.
1st Sec			
Comme	rcial Secretary	H. J. Brett	1 April, 1918.
2nd Se		G. E. Hubbard	20 Feb., 1920.
Asst. Chinese Secretary		H. I. Harding	1 April, 1919.
3rd Secretary		R Dunbar, M. C.	3 Dec., 1919.
Vice Consul & Accountant		A. J. Martin	1 March, 1920.
Chaplai	n	Rt. Rev. Bishop, F. L. Norris	
Physici		G. Douglas Gray, M. D.	1 March, 1920.
Local Vice Consul		A. H. George	1 April, 1919.
,,	"	E. S. Bennett	1 April, 1919.
	Vice Consul and		
	r Assistant in Chan-		
cery		H. I. Prideaux-Brune	1 April, 1919.
	ary Assistant	G. H. Collins	1 April, 1919.
Student	Interpreter	H. N. Steptoe	15 May, 1919.
"	,,	M. Milton	27 Aug., 1919.
,,	22	E. H. Brenan	27 Aug., 1919.
,,	"	E. C. Miéville	17 Oct., 1919.
22	"	H. J. Macdonald	21 Nov., 1919.
,,	,,	R. A. Hall	10 Feb., 1920.
,,	,,	S. G. Beare	10 Feb., 1920.
,,	,,	W. C. Cassels	24 March, 1920.
;;	"	A. L. Scott	5 May, 1920.
,,	"	S. L. Burdett	22 May, 1920.
1 moy.	"	G. A. Herbert	3 Aug. 1920.
Consul		P C T CALC	00 T 1010
Consul		B. G. Tours, C.M.G.	29 Jan., 1918.

Place. Rank.	Name.	Date of Appoint- ment.
Canton.		
Consul-General	J. W. Jamieson, C.M.G.	1 July, 1920.
Vice Consul	E. A. Sly	8 April, 1920.
Local Vice Consul	W. A. Alexander	10 Oct., 1917.
Temporary Assistant	L. W. Guthrie	10 Oct., 1917.
Changsha.	T 03	1010
Consul	L. Giles	3 Sept., 1918.
Chefoo.	C C A Kinh	00.75 1000
Changtu	C. C. A. Kirke	22 May, 1920.
Chengtu. Consul-General	W M Hamlett Cas C	1.0 1. 1016
Lòcal Vice-Consul	W. M. Hewlett, C.M.G.	1 Oct., 1916.
Chinkiang.	L. M. King	12 Sept., 1919.
Consul	W. J. Clennell	07 Tl. 1000
Chungking.	W. J. Cleman	23 July, 1920.
Vice Consul	W. S. Toller	29 May, 1918.
Foochow.	77. 5. 20101	20 May, 1010.
Consul	H. Phillips, O.B.E.,	17 Dec., 1920.
Hangchow.	,	
Consul	V. L. Savage	
Hankow.		
Consul-General	H. Goffe, C.M.G.	
Vice Consul	S. Wyatt-Smith	
Local Vice Consul	J. W. O. Davidson	
Harbin.		
Consul	H. Porter	31 July, 1920.
Local Vice Consul	J. C. Hill	16 Feb., 1917.
Ichang.		
Consul	J. L. Smith	7 Jan., 1918.
Kashgar.	75 1 77 77 771	
Consul-General	Major P. T. Etherton,	oc Nr. 1000
T 1 37'	I. A.	26 Nov., 1920.
Local Vice Consul Kiukiang.	N. Fitzmaurice	8 Feb., 1919.
Consul	C. A. Combe	18 May, 1920.
Kiungchow & Pakhoi.	C. A. Combe	10 May, 1920.
Consul	C. D. Smith	19 July, 1918.
Mukden.	C. D. Siliton	10 0 419, 2020.
Consul	F. E. Wilkinson, C.M.G.	1 April, 1920.
Nanking.	1. 11.	
Consul	B. Giles, C.M.G.	4 Nov., 1914.
Newchwang		
Consul	H. H. Bristow	12 June, 1919.
Ningpo & Wenchow.		
Vice Consul	V. L. Savage	12 June, 1919.
Shanghai.		
Consul-General	Sir E. Fraser, K.C.M.G.	20 Jan., 1911.
Commercial Counsellor	H. H. Fox, C.M.G.	1 April, 1920.
Judge of Supreme Court	Mr. Justice Skinner	
4	Turner	
Assistant Judge	Peter Grain	10 D 1007
Crown Advocate	H. P. Wilkinson	10 Dec., 1897.
Consul	C. G. Garstin	4 Feb., 1920.

Place. Rank.	Name.	Date of Appoint- ment.
Vice Consul		The state of the s
(Assessor)	A. D. Blackburn	11 July, 1920.
Vice Consul (Land Office)	J. F. Brenan	24 Jan., 1920.
Vice Consul (Shipping Office)	E. G. Jamieson	
Local Vice Consul	E. W. P. Mills	2 June, 1920.
Local Vice Consul (Ass't.		
Assessor)	J. H. Hutchison	11 July, 1919.
Temporary Assistant	H. V. Williams	
Swatow.		
Consul	H. F. King	
Tengyueh.		
Consul	O. R. Coales	
Tientsin.		
Consul-General	W. P. Ker, C.M.G.	17 May, 1917.
Vice Consul	H. F. Handley-Derry	18 Nov., 1916.
Temporary Assistant	W. S. Ekins	18 Nov., 1916.
Tsinanfu.		
Consul-General	J. T. Pratt, C.M.G.	16 Aug., 1913.
Tsingtao.		
Vice Consul	H.A.F.B. Archer	27 Aug., 1919.
Wuchow.		
Consul		
Wuhu.		
Consul	The state of the s	
Yunnanfu.	TI A 044	07 0 4 1010
Consul-General	H. A. Ottewill	27 Oct., 1918.

FOREIGN LEGATIONS AND CONSULATES. BELGIUM.

H. Exc. M. Robert Everts, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Baron Jean de Villenfagne de Sorinnes, Councillor. M. Joseph Pieters, Assistant Interpreter.

M. C. Kauze, Chancellor.

Lieutenant Roger de Prelle de la Nieppe, Commanding the Legatron Guard.

Consulates.

Shanghoi (C. G.) Consul General; M. Ch. Feguenne, Consul; M. Nassel, Vice Consul; Tientsin (C. G.) M. Ern. Franck, Consul General; M. Lafontame, Vice Consul; M. Deknoop, Vice Consul; M. Arn. Mertens, Interpreter; Hankow (C.) M. Van Cutsem. Consul; Hongkong (C. G.) c/o French Consulate General; Amoy (C.) c/o British Consulate; Harbin (C.) c/o British Consulate; Chefoo (C.) M. Moulioukine, Consul

BRAZIL.

M. J. de P. Rodrigues Alves, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

M. H. P. Alves de Araújo, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plen-

ipotentiary. (absent).

M. W. de Araújo Pinho, Secretary of Legation.

CUBA.

H. E. M. J. A. Barnet, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary. (absent).

Monsieur G. Sotolongo, Chargé d'Affaires.

M. P. Sentenat, Chancellor (absent).

M. A. López, Vice-Consul attached to the Legation. (absent).

DENMARK.

M. H. de Richelieu, Attaché of Legation. Shanghai (C.G.) T. Raaschou.

FRANCE.

M. A. J. de Fleuriau, Envoyé Extraordinaire et Ministre Plenipotentiaire

M. Maugras, Premier Secrétaire.

M. Leger, Deuxième Secrétaire. (Absent).

M. Riviere, Troisième Secrétaire.

M. Lepice, Consul Adjoint. M. Rhein, Deuxième Interprète.

M. Deniker, Interprète.

M. Milon de Peilon, Chancelier. M. Knight, Attaché Commercial.

Commandant Tambrun, Attaché Militaire. Capitaine Roques. Adjoint Aéronautique. Lt. de Vaisseau Monconduit, Attaché Naval.

M. Bussiere, Médecin de la Légation.

Consulates.

Shanghai (C. G.) M. Wilden; Hankow (C.) M. Lecomte; Swatow (C.) M. Goubault; Foochow (C.) M. Auge (Intérimaire); Harbin (C.) M. Lepissier; Lungchow and Nanning (C.) M. Troy; Tientsin (C.) M. Saussine; Cunton (C.) M. Beauvais; Chungking (C.) M. Leurquin; Mengtsze (C.) M. Robert; Yunnanju (C.) M. Guerin; Hoihow (C.) M. A. Hauchecorne; Pakhoi (C.) M. Beynaud; Chengtu, (C.) M. Baudez; Hongkong, (C.) M. Reau.

ITALY.

Count N. Nani-Mocenigo, Chargé D'Affaires.

Signor M. Bensa, Secretary Interpreter.

Signor F. Ramondino, Interpreter.

Col. E. Beaud, Military Attache.

Commander Pardo, Naval Attache (Commanding the Legation Guard).

Docteur Di Giura, Physician.

Father Leonetti, Chaplain.

Consulates.

Shanghai (C. G.) de' Rossi; Tientsin (C.) Nani-Mocenigo; Hankow (C.) Ros; Canton (C.) Eles; Harbin (C.) Gibello-Socco.

JAPAN.

Mr. Yukichi Obata, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Mr. Isaburo Yoshida, Councillor of the Legation.

Mr. Shiro Yamanouchi, First Secretary.

Mr. Iyemasa Tokugawa, First Secretary.

Mr. Susumu Fukasawa, Third Secretary.

Mr. Yei Nakahata, Third Secretary.

Mr. Teijiro Tamura, Third Secretary. Mr. Koichi Nishida, First Chinese Secretary. Mr. Motohachi Yagi, Vice-Consul.

Mr. Eijiro Fukada, Attaché.

Mr. Yokichi Okuma, Attaché. Mr. Saitaro Koga, Chancellor.

Mr. Ikichi Takashima, Chancellor. Mr. Kiyoshi Ishikawa, Chancellor.

Mr. Kanetsugu Imai, Chancellor. Mr. Kazuwo Nitta, Chancellor. Mr. Kuichi Yoshiwara, Chancellor.

Mr. Buryo Yoshioka, Chancellor Mr. Hajime Iwoki. Chancellor.

Mr. Jiro Otani, Chancellor.

Major-General Otohiko Higashi, Military Attaché. Major Daisaku Kawamoto, Assistant Military Attaché. Captain Takashi Sakai, Assistant Military Attaché.

Captain Saburo Yasumi, Naval Attaché. Lieutenant Commander Teijiro Sugisaka, Assistant Naval Attaché.

Dr. Matsutaro Kanno, Physician.

Mr. Taro Kımimori, Financial Attaché.

Lieutenant-Colonel Yahiko Kamada, Commander of the Guard.

CONSULATES.

Consulate-General at Harbin:

Shiro Yamanouchi, (Consul-General); Atsutaka Maruta, (Eleve-Consul); Bunichiro Tanaka, Teijiro Mizutani, Takeo Kashimura, Kiichiro Yamamoto, and Shuuji Osawa, (Chancellors); Junichiro Mochizuki, (Interpreter); Seizaburo Senda, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate-General at Kirin:

Kanzo Morita, (Consul-General); Tsukuri Tanaka, Kuninori Ohno, Gyookoo Fukushi, (Chancellors); Rikichi Furukawa, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate-General at Chientao:

Yosakichi Sakai, (Consul and Acting Consul-General); Yoshiro Owaku, and Shinichi Kondo, (Vice-Consuls); Koo Endoo, Shizue Takeuchi and Noritomo Isoda, (Chancellors); Gishiro Masuo, (Interpreter); Keisho Nishimura, (Police-Inspector).

Branch Consulate at Chutsuchie:

Shoichi Kawaminami, (Consul-in-Charge); Konokichi Moori, Takeshi

Branch Consulate at Towtaokow:

Kookei Suwa, (Vice-Consul).

Branch Consulate at Hunchun:

Ikusaburo Akisu, (Vice-Consul); Takeo Nakamura, (Chancellor).

Consulate-General at Mukden:

Shoosuke Akatsuka, (Consul-General); Daizo Yoshiwara, (Vice-Consul); Akira Omi, (Eleve-Consul); Fumio Ohsaki, Takaichi Nakano, Kiyokado Kawauchi, Motora Onoda, Matajuuro Abe, Yayoki Sakauchi, Rokuro Goto, (Chancellors); Yuntaro Koike, (Interpreter).

Consulate at Tiehling:

Yoshizo Nezu, (Consul-in-Charge); Masaichi Saito, (Chancellor).

Consulate at Liaoyang:

Senzo Kishima, (Vice-Consul and Acting Consul); Takayoshi Sasaki and Yoshinori Yagashiro, (Chancellors).

Consulate at Newchwang:

Yaoichi Shimizu, (Consul); Kyuukichi Okamoto, Kuniki Ishizaka and Naozumi Tateishi, (Chancellors).

Consulate at Antung:

Masataro Irie, (Consul); Kenjiro Kaneko, Jusaburo Yoshida and Kikutaro Ando. (Chancellors); Fujio Inomata, (Interpreter).

Consulate at Liaoyuanchow:

Masaji Ikebe, (Consul); Taro Minakawa and Masayasu Hashimoto (Chancellors); Jingoro Obara, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Hsinmintu:

Hiroaki Takeuchi. (Consul); Risaku Ueno, (Chancellor).

Branch Consulate at Sifena:

Yuuzoo Matsumura, (Consul-in-Charge); Harukiyo Motoi, (Police-Inspector).

Branch Consulate at Hailung:

Ryuuji Asayama and Suehiko Takai, (Chancellors); Koojiro Konoeda. (Police-Inspector.)

Branch Consulate at Tonghoa:

Tatsumi Honda, (Consul-in-Charge); Bensaku Ozawa, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Changchun:

Gion Murakami, (Consul); Renzo Kasuya, (Vice-Consul); Wasaburo Otani, Sessei Koyanagi, Naojiro Nishikida and Masaki Numa, (Chancellors).

Branch Consulate at Nangan:

Yoshitaka Hida, (Consul-in-Charge).

Consulate at Tsitsihar:

Seiichiro Yamazaki, (Vice-Consul and Acting Consul); Saburoji Saito, (Chancellor); Suero Shimomura, (Interpreter); Hatsujire Murakami, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Chihteng:

Taiyo Hoojoo, (Consul); Seiichi Fujita, (Chancellor); Juugo Ishii, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate-General at Tientsin:

Tatsuichiro Funatsu, (Consul-General); Sentaro Edo. (Eleve-Consul); Kyoozoo Motono, (Eleve-Consul); Saburo Yoshikawa, Naojiroo Kawashima, Masayoshi Urakawa and Akiroo Ishiwara, (Chancellors); Hatsutaro Hanasato, (Police-Inspector); Jitsuki Maruyama, (Assistant Police-Inspector).

Consulate-General at Tsinan:.

Yasusaburo Mori, (Consul-General); Tatsuo Kawaai, (Elere-Consul); Sutejiro Ikushima, Ryoozoo Taniya and Mineo Nomoto, (Chancellors); Komazo Sakaida, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Chefoo:

Yoshiaki Tomita, (Consul); Motoi Arai, (Chancellor); Rikitaro Kato, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate-General at Shanghai:

Keiichi Yamazaki, (Consul-General); Kiyoshi Uchiyama, (Vice-Consul); Kenjiro Hayashide, (Vice-Consul); Hiroshi Kawamura, (Eleve-Consul); Shingo Tamura, Gihoo Seki, Denshiro Yokota, Ryuuzo Seigenji, Saijiro Shimada and Katsutoshi Shimada, (Chancellors); Tawo Toyoda, (Police-Inspector); Saroku Kumamoto, (Assistant Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Soochow:

Uheiji Kurematsu, (Consul-in-Charge); Kajima Oguri, (Assistant Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Nanking :

Seigen Iwamura, (Consul); Tsuneo Hattori, (Chancellor); Sankichiro Miyachi, (Interpreter); Kihei Nagamatsu, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Hangchow:

Chootaro Seino, (Consul-in-Charge); Koozen Tokuyama, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Kiukiang:

Kuragoro Aihara, (Consul); Ken Dobashi, (Chancellor); Motosaburo Toyama, (Assistant Police-Inspector).

Consulate-General at Hankow:

Asanoshin Segawa, (Consul-General); Chunsaku Hayashi, (Vice-Consul); Takatoshi Itoh and Iwao Kakegawa, (Chancellors); Eimei Kuramoto and Teiji Yoshitake, (Interpreters); Kyooya Niisaka, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Shasi:

Yasubei Tomita, (Consul-in-Charge).

Consulate at Ichang:

Masakichi Kusa, (Vice Consul and Acting Consul); Jiroo Kurahashi and Toshizo Kawamura. (Chancellors); Magoji Saito, (Assistant Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Changsha:

Muraichi Ikenaga, (Vice-Consul and Acting Consul); Shiro Kanoo, (Chancellor); Ichiji Harada, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Chungking

Suezo Bando, (Consul); Yasuzo Okada, (Chancellor); Nakanoyuke Tanaka, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Chengtu:

Kaichiro Kunihara, (Consul-in-Charge).

Consulate-General at Foochow:

Kyuujiro Hayashi, (Uonsul-General); Eizoo Iwazaki, (Vice-Consul); Taku Katagiri, (t'hancellor); Hideo Yoshii, (Interpreter); Juukichi Sasamoto, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Amoy:

Keinosuke Fujii, (Consul); Renzoo Suzuki, (Eleve-Consul); Hanroku Nagaoka, Heibei Miyagi, (Chancellors); Matanojo Furuyama and Unzo Koike, (Police-Inspectors).

Consulate-General at Canton:

Eisuke Fujita, (Consul-General); Shoohei Morioka, (Vice-Consul); Tomotari Fujita and Toichi Araki, (Chancellors); Takashi Horiuchi, (Interpreter); Ryuuzoo Tani, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Swatow:

Shooroku Uchida, (Vice-Consul and Acting Consul); Washiro Ura and Akira, Domyoo, (Chancellors); Goro Imamura, (Police-Inspector).

Consulate at Yunnan:

Toshifusa Fujimura, (Consul-in-Charge).

NETHERLANDS.

Sir W. J. Oudendijk, K.C.M.G., Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, Jonkheer, J. W. C. Quarles van Ufford, Secretary of Legation.

C G. Riem, Interpreter, A. Kok, Chancellor, Capt. K. L. Rozendaal, Military Attaché, Capt. G. J. von Loenen, Commandant of Legation Guard.

Consulates. Shanghai (C.G.) J. H. de Reus.

NORWAY.

H. E. J. Michelet, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plentipotentiary, T. Knudtzou, First Secretary.

PORTUGAL.

J. Batall.a de Freitas, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plentipotentiary, Julio Brandao Paes, Second Secretary, J. F. das Chagas, Secretary Interpreter, Shanghai (C. G.) Alfredo Casanova; Canton (C. G.) Amadeu da Silva; Amoy (C. A.) Cezarino Carvalho; Foochow (V.-C.) French Consul in Charge; Pakhoi (French Vice-Consul in Charge); Hongkong (C. G.) Cerveira de

Albuquerque; Tientsin (Russian Consul in Charge); Hankow (British Consul in Charge); Harbin (C.) S. Skidelsky.

SPAIN.

Don Francisco Agramonte, Chargé D'Affaires. Lt. Col. Don E. Herrera de la Rosa, Military Attaché.

Consulates.

Shanghai (C.) Miguel Maluquer.

SWEDEN.

Monsieur David Bergström, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

Monsieur R. T. Essén, Secretary of Legation. Monsieur S. H. Pousette, Secretary of Legation.

UNITED STATES.

Jacob Gould Schurman, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary Albert B. Ruddock, Secretary of Legation Willys R. Peck, Chinese Secretary of Legation Ray Atherton, Second Secretary of Legation
Henry I. Dockweiler, Second Secretary of Legation
Clarence J. Spiker, Vice Consul
Major Walter S. Drysdale, Military Attache
Major John Magruder, Assistant Military Attache Major Wallace C. Philoon, Assistant Military Attache Commander C. T. Hutchins, Naval Attache Julean Arnold, Commercial Attache Lynn W. Meekins, Assistant Commercial Attache Howard Bucknell, Jr., Student Interpreter David C. Berger, Student Interpreter Maxwell M. Hamilton, Student Interpreter F. J. Chapman, Student Interpreter Robert L. Smyth, Student Interpreter George Atcheson, Jr., Student Interpreter Culver B. Chamberlain, Student Interpreter Colonel L. M. Gulick, Commandant, Legation Guard

Consular Service.

A E. Carleton, American Consul, Amoy Dillard B. Lasseter, American Vice Consul in Charge, Antung Ernest B. Price, Vice Consul in Charge, Canton Walter A. Adams, Vice Consul in Charge, Changsha Stuart K. Lupton, Consul, Chefoo Paul R. Josselyn, Consul, Chungking Max D. Kirjassoff, Consul, Dairen, Manchuria George C. Hanson, Consul, Foochow J. C. Huston, Vice Consul in Charge, Hankow Douglas Jenkins, Consul, Harbin Wm. H. Gale, Consul General, Hongkong Albert W. Fontius, Consul General, Mukden John K. Davis, Consul, Nanking K. De MacVitty, Consul, Saigon, Indo-China Ransford S. Miller, Consul General, Seoul, Korea Edwin S. Cunningham, Consul General, Shanghai Myrl S. Myers, Consul, Swatow Stuart J. Fuller, Consul General, Tientsin C. E. Gauss, Consul, Tsinan David B. Macgowan, Consul, Vladivostok.

URUGUAY.

M. Vicente Marrio Cario, Chargé D'Affaires.

CHINESE ORDERS AND DECORATIONS.

Grand Decoration :

Worn only by the President of the Republic.

Orders of Merit.

I. Grand Order of Merit.

(This is given only to ex-Presidents of the Republic and Heads of Foreign States).

II. First Order of Merit.

III. Second ,, ,, ,

IV. Third ,, ,, ,

VI. Fifth ,, ,,

Decorations.

Chinese decorations are divided into two kinds namely the Chia-ho (which means Golden Crop) Decoration for officials in the Civil Service, and the Wen-hu (whick means Striped Tiger) Decoration for military officers. But sometimes the Chia-ho Decoration is conferred on military officers just as the Wen-hu Decoration is occasionally conferred on civil officials. Of the two kinds of decorations, each is divided into nine grades and in both kinds the highest is the First Class and the Ninth Class comes last. The Chia-ho Decoration is, however, full of variety, for the First, Second, Third, Fourth and Fifth Chia-ho Decorations are sub-divided into those which carry the Pao-kuang (Pao means "Precious" and Kuang means "brilliance") and those without it. And although both the First and Second Classes of Chia-ho and Wen-hu Decoration scarry the Ta-shou (which means the Great Sash), the Second Class Chia-ho Decoration is given sometimes without the sash. A Chia-ho Decoration which carries both the Ta-Shou and the Pao-Kuang is higher than the one without either Ta-Shou or Pao-Kuang or both. So, the hignest Chia-ho Decoration is the First Class Ta-shou Pao-kuang Chia-ho Decoration or the First Class Golden Crop Decoration with Precious Brilliance and the Great Sash. The following is the full list:—

I. First Class Chia-ho Decoration.

(This is divided into two grades, the one with the Pao-kuang and the other without. But generally the Great Sash is given with the decoration).

II. Second Class Chia-ho Decoration.

(This is divided into four grades (a) one that carries both Brilliance and Sash, (b) one that carries Brilliance without the Sash, (c) one that carries the Sash without Brilliance and (d) one devoid of both the Sash and Brilliance.)

III. Third Class Chia-ho Decoration.

(This is divided into two grades namely the one with Brilliance and the other without it.)

IV. Fourth Class Chia-ho Decoration. (Same as the Third Class).

V. Fifth Class Chia-ho Decoration.

(Same as the Third Class).

VI. Sixth Class Chia-ho Decoration.

(There is only one grade and no other classification).

VII. Seventh Class Chia-ho Decoration. (Same as the Sixth Class).

VIII. Eighth Class Chia-ho Decoration. (Same as the Sixth).

XI. Ninth Class Chiu-ho Decoration. (Same as above).

The nine classes of Wen-hu decorations are very simple. Only the First and Second Classes of Wen-hu Decorations have the "Great Sash" which in all cases is conferred invariably together with the decoration and never without it.

COMMEMORATION DAYS OF THE REPUBLIC.

The following days have been proclaimed as general holidays in commemoration of events connected with the establishment of the Republic in China:—

January 1. Establishment of the Nanking Government

February 12.... Union of North and South.

April 8...... Opening of the first Parliament.

July 12. Chang Hsun's defeat on the occasion of the attempt

to restore the Monarchy (1917).

October 10. Anniversary of Outbreak of First Revolution.

FOREIGN RESIDENCE IN PEKING.

Peking is not an open port or place of trade, and foreigners other than members of the Diplomatic Body, the Customs Service, Missions, and teachers in schools and colleges cannot, therefore, base their right to reside outside the Legation area in the capital upon any treaty stipulation. By Article X of the Japanese Commercial Treaty with China, signed at Shanghai in October, 1903, the Chinese Government undertook to open of its own accord a place of international residence and trade in Peking "in case of and after the complete withdrawal of foreign troops stationed in the province of Chihli and of the Legation Guards." As foreign garrisons are still maintained in Peking and in North China by the Powers, this condition has not yet come into force. The residence of foreigners other than the classes enumerated above has been tolerated by the Chinese authorities under certain conditions, as the result of a compromise with the Foreign Legations.

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE.

CHINESE CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE.

Chinese Chambers of Commerce exist at the following places abroad: Singapore, Batu Pahat, Penang, Nagasaki. Manila. Batavia, Sourabaya, Samarang, Djogja (Java), Rangoon, Pangoon, Pantianak, Soengelpinjoe, Perak, Selangor, Sola (Java). Boeleleng (Java). Preager Regent (Java), Macapsar, Vladivostok, Ampenan, Sandakan, San Francisco, Padang, Baroes (Sumatra), Tandjong, Bandong, Cochin China, Deli Medan (Sumatra), Osaka, Kobe, Vancouver (B.C.). Palembong (Sumatra), Yokolama, Soekaboemi (Java), Bangkok, Khabarovsk, Rikolak, Sungkowang (Eastern Borneo). Panama, Toelengagoeng (Java), Mexico, and New York.

BRITISH CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE.

SHANGHAL.

Honorary President:— Sir Everard Fraser, K.C.M.G., H.B.M. Consul-General

Hon. Vice-Presidents :- { H. H. Fox, C.M.G., Archibald Rose, C.I.E.

Chairman :- E. F. Mackay, (Butterfield & Swire)

Vice-Chairman: H. H. Girardet, (Reiss & Co..)

Committee - H. E. Arnhold, (Arnhold Bros & Co., Ltd.)
H. H. Trenchard Davis (Commercial Union Assee.

Co., Ltd.)

A. H. Gordon, (British Electric & Eng. Co., of China, Ltd.)

L. W. Hutton, (Harvie, Cooke & Co.) H. W. Lester, (Dodwell & Co., Ltd.)

C. G. S. Mackie, (Gibb, Livingston & Co., Ltd.)

F. R. Scott, (Mackenzie & Co., Ltd.)

G. W. Sheppard, (Jardine, Matheson & Co., Ltd.)

G. H. Stitt, (Hongkong & Shanghai Bank) G. N. Wilson, (Asiatic Petroleum Co., Ltd.)

Secretary:— E. M. Gull.
Assistant Secretary:— P. Campbell.

LOCAL BRITISH CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE.

Honorary Secretary, F. R. Smith, Amov Canton R K. Batchelor, Treasurer, F. G. Lownds, Changsha Albert Rouse. Secretary Chefoo W. A. Lewis, Chinkiang A W. Peake. Chungking Sec. '& Trea. T. Pearson. Dalny Foochow H. S. Brand, Secretary, The Secretary Hankow P. C. Elsom. F. Howard Ford, Harbin Kiukiang W. S. Bungey, Mukden J Kitto, Newchwang A. L. Davidson, Peking G. Thornton, Swatow Tientsin D. B. Walker, Henerary Secretary Chairman, A. J. H. Carey, Tsinanfu Tsingtao R. H. Kekford, Hongkong General Cham- G W. Williams, The Secretary. ber of Commerce.

RESOLUTIONS OF BRITISH CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE.

The Associated British Chambers of Commerce in China held annual conferences at Shanghai in 1919 and 1920. The resolutions unanimously adopted at the 1920 Conference (November) were as follows:

1. RIVER SYSTEM OF CHIHLI:

That the conference resolves to communicate to H.M. Minister in Peking the satisfaction with which it views the work already accomplished by the Commission for the Improvement of the River System of Chihli, urges the importance of the continuance of the Commission, and to this end requests H. M. Minister to endeavour to arrange that the necessary steady financial support be accorded, either by earmarking a portion of the Customs or Salt Surplus revenues or by such other means as may be conveniently devised.

2. Concessions at Tientsin and Hankow

That this Conference views with grave concern the attitude of the Chinese Government, which, in assuming control of areas formerly under foreign jurisdiction, has deprived Treaty Power nationals of their rights in regard to the ownership of land and municipal representation. This Conference accordingly urges upon H.M. Government the supreme importance of safeguarding to the fullest extent the Treaty rights of British subjects residing and doing business in China and of resisting every encroachment upon these rights. It further urges upon H.M. Government the absolute necessity of arriving at a satisfactory understanding with the Chinese Government as to the future administration of these areas on such terms

as will ensure that the interests of British property-owners and residents shall be in no way prejudiced and the peace and good order of the other Concessions fully safeguarded.

3. CHINA COMPANIES:

That this conference considers it desirable that inquiry be made into the advisability of legislation being enacted whereby the word 'British' or other word or words of similar import be appended to the names of all China Companies, present or future, following the word 'limited' and that the Secretary to the Association be instructed to institute these inquiries at as early a date as possible.

4. THE MAIL SERVICE:

That, whilst gladly recognizing that there has recently been some improvement in the mail service between China and the United Kingdom, the Conference desires to call attention to the fact that it is still ubject to frequent delay and is deplorably irregular, and urges the responsible authorities to make every effort to put the service on a satisfactory basis.

5. MERCHANTS AND MANUFACTURERS:

That this Association, being in the main composed of merchants, many of whom, however, are sole agents for some of the biggest manufacturers in Great Britain, desires to place on record its anxiety to co-operate in the fullest practicable way with manufacturers in the advancement of the Empire's commercial and manufacturing interests.

6. CROWN LEASES:

That this Conference deplores the prolonged delay in arriving at a satisfactory decision regarding the extension of Crown Leases in the British Concessions at Canton, Hankow and Tientsin, which is seriously affecting British trade interests, and urges H.M. Government to effect an early settlement of this important question.

7. Copyright

That in connexion with the resolution passed at the last Conference urging the advisability of instituting Copyright Laws in China, this Conference now desires to express the opinion that further representations should be addressed to the Chinese Government with a view to securing its adhesion to the Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works created under the Convention signed at Berne on September 9, 1886, by the Governments of Great Britain, Belgium, France, Germany, Hayti, Italy, Liberia, Spain, Switzerland and Tunis.

8. YANGTZE CONSERVANCY:

That as a preliminary to the appointment by the Chinese Government of a Conservancy Board to improve the navigation of the Yangtze, as recommended in the resolution passed at last year's Conference, this Conference would strongly urge the nomination of a technical commission to make a preliminary study of the whole question with a view to formulating general proposals as to the lines on which this work should be taken in hand.

9. CHINESE RAILWAYS:

That in view of the inability of the principal railways of China to handle satisfactorily the volume of cargo awaiting transport—which inability is due in part to faults in organization and in part to lack of material—this Association desires to support the efforts of the Railway Authorities to

(1) Improve their organization in respect of prevention of fraud, more regular running of trains, and direct handling of cargo without recourse to transportation companies, and

(2) Obtain sanction for the expenditure necessary for the purchase of additional rolling stock, the building of more goods sheds and the double tracking of certain sections of the lines.

10. Wireless in Hongkong:

That in view of the fact that the Hongkong Government has approved the use of Diaphones and Wireless Position Finders as used in European. American and Canadian waters, and intends shortly to install these at the approaches to Hongkong Harbour, this Conference is of opinion that China, through the Maritime Customs, should similarly install such aids

to navigation on the China coast.

Further, that weather signals and cable communications should also be considered in connexion with the Wireless Position Finders more especially in view of the recent frequent stoppages of the Swatow-Hongkong-Shanghai Telegraph services, and that a sufficiently powerful wireless installation should be established at Swatow in conjunction with one at Hongkong at the earliest possible moment to provide telegraphic and wire-less communication with Hongkong and other places which is at present inadequate.

DEFINITION OF TERM "SHIPMENT":

That this Conference is of opinion that in view of the utmost importance attaching to the standardization of the clauses on bills of lading relating to 'Shipment,' every effort should be made to obtain unanimity of opinion on the point, not only amongst Chambers of Commerce throughout

the East, but also if possible in all countries.

With this object in view this Conference recommends that a special committee be appointed by the Associated British Chambers of Commerce in China and Hongkong consisting of one representative of each of the shipping, banking and merchant interests (with power to add to their number) to inquire into and make recommendations to this Association on all questions relating to the term 'Shipment,' also 'responsibilities or shipowners in connexion with Bills of Lading.'

TARIFF REVISION AND COAST TRADE DUTIES:

That this Conference desires to express the view that the additional revenue accruing from any revision of the existing import duties should be held in trust until such time as the Chinese Government shall have shown itself capable of maintaining order and protecting trade interests

throughout the country.

At the same time it desires to express the opinion that when the time for such revision shall arise, advantage should be taken of the opportunity so presented to press for the reorganization of the whole system of taxation of trade in China on the lines suggested in the Association's letter of April 21, 1920, and that as a preliminary and practical step in this direction the Chinese Government be pressed to abolish forthwith the taxation now levied by the Chinese Maritime Customs on all goods carried from one port to another in China.

Affiliation with the Association of British Chambers or COMMERCE IN GREAT BRITAIN.

That this Conference recommends that the Associated British Chambers in China and Hongkong be affiliated with the Association of British Chambers of Commerce in Great Britain.

SUPPORT OF BRITISH EDUCATIONAL AND MEDICAL MISSION WORK IN

That in view of the importance from a national standpoint of ensuring the adequate maintenance and development of British educational and medical work in China this Conference urges upon British merchants the necessity for unified effort to that end.

As a means of applying the above principle the Conference recommends

the adoption of the following proposals:—
(1) That the Associated Chambers shall entrust to a central committee the work of formulating proposals for the support of British educational institutions and hospitals in China and of allocating such funds as may be contributed for the purpose.

That prior to the issue of an appeal to members of the Associated Chambers for contribution towards the above objects the said committee shal submit a statement showing the amounts which it considers to be urgently needed under each head, together with proposals as to the basis on which contributions placed at its disposal should be apportioned.

(3) That a central fund be opened at Shanghai into which funds to be placed at the disposal of the above committee shall be paid.

(4) That in view of the impossibility of dealing in an adequate manner with every phase of educational and medical work in China the committee's efforts shall be concentrated on the following lnes:-

(a) The support of British schools giving a high-class secondary

education to Chinese students.

(b) Assistance to British medical missions in their present financial difficulties, due to unfavourable exchange rates and other causes which threaten to interfere seriously with their philanthropic

work in China.

(5) That a certain proportion of the funds contributed be set aside as reserve fund from which contributions may be made for such charitable purposes, other than educational or medical work, as may seem to have a specially strong claim to the sympathy and assistance of British merchants in China.

15. THE CONSORTIUM.

That this Conference welcomes the formation of the new Consortium and especially the proposal to invite Chinese financial co-operation in its workings which, it believes, will meet the criticism that the new Consortium only represents foreign financial interests. That this Conference believes that while China's financial re-establishment lies in her own hands and cannot be entirely effected from without, the new Consortium should be of the greatest service to the Chinese people and foreign trade.

FAMINE RELIEF AND SURTAYES.

This Association of British Chambers of Commerce in China and Hongkong agrees to the proposed 10 per cent. surtax on Customs Import Dues for famine relief for a definitely limited period of twelve months, provided that the distribution of the funds so raised be made subject to adequate foreign supervision and publication of detailed accounts, and protests on principle against the recent imposition of numerous surtaxes now being levied which have been imposed without adequate notice being given or time limit stated.

AMERICAN CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE &c.

American Asiatic Association, 627 Lexington Avenue, New York, John Foord, Secretary.

American Chamber of Commerce of China, Shanghai; J. B. Powell, secretary (the Chamber publishes a bulletin for circulation among members). American Chamber of Commerce of Tientsin, Tientsin; address the secretary.

American Association of China, Shanghai; address the secretary. American Association of North China, Tientsin; address the secretary (pub-

lishes a monthly bulletin).

American Association of North China, Peking Branch; address the secretary. American Merchants Association of Harbin; address care American Consulate.

American Association, Hankow.

FOREIGN POSSESSIONS IN CHINA.

British: Hongkong, Weihaiwei.

French: Kwangchouwan.

Japanese: Formosa, Kwantung, Kiaochao (taken from Germany).

Portuguese: Macao.

HONGKONG.

A free port. The most important foreign possession in China, for many years the pivot of the Far Eastern trade, and practically its banking and commercial centre. The colony comprises the island of Hongkong, separated from the mainland by a narrow strait, ceded to Great Britain in 1841. Kowloon, a strip of territory on the mainland, was ceded

in 1860, and to this was added in 1898, under lease for 99 years, the peninsula south of a line drawn between Deep Bay and Mirs Bay, together with the islands of Lantao and Lammas. In all the concession covers an area of 390 square miles, including the island of Hongkong, 29 square miles, and has a population of 436,000 of whom from 8000 to 9000 are Europeans. The total tomage entering Hongkong harbour in 1918 was 8,543,496 tons, comprising 21,803 vessels.

Governor and Commander-in-Chief: Sir Reginald Stubbs, K.C.M.G.

WEIHAIWEI.

The territory of Weihaiwei was leased to Great Britain by China by a convention signed at Peking on July 1, 1898. It is situated in the province of Shantung, and comprises the island of Liukung, all the islands in the Bay of Weil aiwei, and a belt of land ten miles wide along the entire coastline. Total area, 285 square miles. Population, 146,000. In addition to the leased territory there is a sphere of influence which comprises that portion of the province of Shantung lying east of the meridian 121.40, an area of 1500 square miles.

RETURN OF VALUE OF TRADE, 1919.

(Taking Exchange at 4/- to the dollar or \$5 to the £.)

Imports by Steamers Imports by Junks	\$ 2,272,734 3,101,407	=	£ s. d. 454,546 16 0 620,281 8 0
Total Imports	5,374,141	==	1,074,828 4 0
Exports by Steamers Exports by Junks	2,332,328 403,344	=	466,465 12 0 80,668 16 0
Total Exports	2,735,672	=	547,134 8 0
Total Trade	8,109,813	===	1,621,962 12 0

Commissioner: (Vacant).

KWANGCHOUWAN.

A strip of territory on the coast of Kwangtung, with the islands of Tunghai and Nanchou. Total area, about 200 square miles; population, 170,000. The concession is under the administration of the Governor of Indo-China.

FORMOSA (TAIWAN).

This island was ceded by China to Japan in 1895 by the Treaty of Shimonoseki. Total area, 13 500 square miles; population, 34 millions.

KWANTUNG PROVINCE.

Territory at the southern extremity of Liaotung Peninsula (Manchuria). Capital, Dairen (Tairen, formerly Dalny), Originally leased to Russia, March 27, 1898, for 25 years, subject to extension by mutual agreement. By the Treaty of Portsmouth, 1905, the lease was transferred to Japan, and in 1915 it was agreed that the lease should be extended to 99 years from the original date of the cession of the territory (i.e. 1898). Area, 1300 square miles; population (1911), 488,089, excluding military and naval forces.

KIAOCHAO.

Leased in 1898 to Germany for a period of 99 years. Area 193 square miles; population, 165,000, including the sphere of interest, which comprises a 50-kilometre zone from all points of the leasehold territory. As a result of the outbreak of war between Germany and the Powers of the Triple Entente Japan presented, August 15, 1914, an ultivary colling type. ultimatum calling upon Germany to surrender Kiaochao in the interest of the peace of the Far East. Germany refused, and a joint Anglo-Japanese expedition attacked Tsingtao, which surrendered on November 7, 1914.

BUDGET OF THE JAPANESE CIVIL ADMINISTRATION AT TSINGTAO, 1921.*

Total Revenue	Gold Yen	23.513.255
,, Expenditures		23,513,255
Extraordinary Expenses	"	8,110,846
Maintenance Expenses	2.2	15,402,409

COMPARISON WITH 1920 BUDGET.

D.	1921 Budget	1920 Budget
Revenue	23.513.255	20,138,771
Shantung Railway	. 21,255,602	
Various Works at Tsingtao	2.257.653	1,624,045
Expenditure	23,513,255	20,138,771
Civil Administration	2,359,258	3,943,872
Railway ,,	19,485,887	15,946,923
Communication Dept.	1,668,110	1,147,976

REVENUE.

	1921	1920
Total	23,513,255	20,138,771
Railway	21,255,602	18,514,726
Passengers	3,128,650	2,775,037
Freight	8,335,687	7,427,850
Warehouse	149.100	105,150
Coal	5,214,750	4,120,741
Railway	2,025,000	2,400,000
Wharf	1,517,637	1,201,860
Miscellaneous	309,681	180,631
Hospital	75,097	107,277
Different Works at Tsingtao	2,257,653	1,634,045
Electric	628,589	545,008
Postal	1,026,827	637,131
Stamps	3,835	2,274
Abattoir	259,509	270,778
Waterworks	313,450	186,808
Forestry	25,443	22,046
v		

MACAO.

At the southern extremity of the Sikiang (West River) delta. 40 miles from Hongkong, the Portuguese first settled here in 1557, and held the territory from the Emperor of China for an annual rental of Tls. 500 until 1848, when the Governor refused to continue the subsidy and expelled the Chinese authorities. Portuguese sovereignty over the territory with its dependencies of Taipa and Colowan was recognised by China in 1887. Area, 11 square miles; population, 78,000, of whom 5000 are Portuguese. The harbour has for some time been silting up, but in 1912 dredging work was undertaken with a view to maintaining a four-mile channel of 11 feet in depth and 45 yards wide. In 1915 the Government bought a dredger and two tugboats in order to increase the channel to a depth that would make it available for the largest river-boats and ultimately overseas shipping. The main revenue of the Colony is derived from the opium monopoly and gaming establishments.

TRADE MARKS.

The absence of any Trade-mark laws in China led the Powers to protect their respective subjects trading in the country by mutual application of the regulations governing the countries of the Trade Marks Union. At

^{*}For Eastern Review, February, 1921.

the same time they have endeavoured to persuade the Chinese Government to promulgate the necessary laws on the subject. Thus in the Mackay

Treaty, September, 1902, Article VII read:

"Inasmuch as the British Government affords protection to Chinese trademarks against infringement, imitation or colourable imitation by British subjects, the Chinese Government undertake to afford protection to British trade-marks against infringement, imitation or colourable imitation by Chinese subjects.

The Chinese Government further undertake that the Superintendents of Northern and of Southern Trade shall establish offices within their respective jurisdictions under control of the Imperial Maritime Customs where foreign trade-marks may be registered on payment of a reasonable fee."

The Treaty between China and Japan, signed October 8, 1903, stipulated

(Article V) :-

"The Chinese Government likewise agree to make such regulations as are necessary for preventing Chinese subjects from infringing registered trade-

marks held by Japanese subjects.

The Chinese Government likewise agree to make such regulations as are necessary for affording protection to registered copyrights held by Japanese subjects in the books, pamphlets, maps and charts written in the Chinese language, and specially prepared for the use of Chinese people.

It is further agreed that the Chinese Government shall establish registration offices where foreign trade-marks and copyrights, upon application for the protection of the Chinese Government, shall be registered in accordance with the provisions of the regulations to be hereafter framed by the Chinese Government for the purpose of protecting trade-marks and copyrights.

It is understood that Chinese trade-marks and copyrights, properly registered according to the provisions of the laws and regulations of Japan.

will receive similar protection against infringement in Japan.

This Article shall not be held to protect against due process of law any Japanese or Chinese subject who may be the author, proprietor or seller of any publication calculated to injure the well-being of China."

Article IX of the Treaty, also signed on October 8, 1903, between the

United States and China, read :-

'Whereas the United States undertakes to protect the citizens of any country in the exclusive use within the United States of any lawful trademarks, provided that such country agrees by Treaty or Convention to give like protection to citizens of the United States:—

Therefore the Government of China, in order to secure such protection in the United States for its subjects, now agrees to fully protect any citizen, firm or corporation of the United States in the exclusive use in the Empire of China of any lawful trade-mark to the exclusive use of which in the United States they are entitled, or which they have adopted and used, or intend to adopt and use as soon as registered, for inclusive use within the Empire of China. To this end the Chinese Government agrees to issue by its proper authorities Proclamations, having the force of law, forbidding all subjects of China from infringing on, imitating, colourably imitating or knowingly passing off an imitation of trade-marks belonging to citizens of the United States, which shall have been registered by the proper authorities of the United States at such offices as the Chinese Government will establish for such purpose, on payment of a reasonable fee, after due investigation by the Chinese authorities, and in compliance with reasonable Regulations.'

Articles X and XI dealt in a similar way with patents and copyright. Reciprocal protection of trade-marks in China has been arranged by special Agreements between Great Britain on the one part and Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, and the United States on the other.

In accordance with its Treaty undertakings, the Chinese Government set about to frame Trade-mark Regulations. The first draft drawn up by the Ministry of Commerce in 1904 proved unacceptable to the representatives of the several Powers concerned, and in 1905 the foreign Ministers

submitted to the Chinese Government a code embodying the views of their respective Governments. After an exchange of correspondence with Prince Ching, the subject was allowed to drop until November, 1906, when a second draft set of Regulations was submitted by the Chinese Government. This draft, which was based on the rejected Code of 1904 rather than on the suggestions of the Powers, was also repudiated by the Powers concerned, and during 1907 and 1908 the matter was from time to time brought to the attention of the Chinese Government. No definite action on the part of the latter ensued, and the subject was again allowed to drop, while the British Government was negotiating an Agreement with Japan for reciprocal protection of trade-marks in China.

China is still without Trade-mark Regulations having the force of law.

SHIPPING.

Chinese shipping is confined to Far Eastern waters, and in this respect shows no advance on the conditions prevailing in 1516, when the first European ship reached China. In those days Chinese vessels carried the produce of the country to Singapore, where it was transhipped to Arab sailing ships. With the exception of vessels plying to Rangoon the Chinese Mercantile Marine is still rarely seen west of Singapore. The discovery that China possessed one of the finest harbours in the world in Hongkong was made by the British, for until the occupation of the island in 1840 its waters were little used except by Chinese fishermen. Hongkong shipping statistics date from 1844. In the following year the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company established regular sailings between Hongkong and England (with transhipment at Suez until 1869).

The first steamship company to be formed in China was the Hongkong, Canton and Macao Steamboat Company (1865), which still serves these ports and the West River. A second British company followed two years later in 1867—the China Navigation Company—with headquarters at

Shanghai.

China's premier business enterprise—the only steamship company of any proportions—is the China Merchants Steamship Company, founded in Shanghai in 1872. It began operations with two steamers chartered for the transportation of rice from the Southern provinces. This venture did not prove profitable, and in 1877, with a view of extending its business, the company purchased the fleet of the Shanghai Steam Navigation Co. from Messrs Russell and Co. It thus gained possession of seventeen vessels and a considerable amount of landed property, wharves, etc., at various ports. The fleet was resold to Messrs Russell and Co. during the Franco-Chinese War to evade seizure, and repurchased at the conclusion of the war for the same sum. It was run at a loss until the appointment as Director-General of Mr. Sheng Kung-pao in 1885. From that time until 1904 the shareholders received a substantial return upon their investment. From 1904 onwards the company's operations again showed unsatisfactory results, owing, it is alieged, to the dominance of the official directors nominated by the Ministry of Communications. In 1911 Dr. Wu Ting-fang was appointed Managing Director with a view to reorganizing the company's business. On the outbreak of the Revolution a proposal made by the Republican party to raise money on a mortgage of the company's property gave rise to fears that foreigners, who are not allowed to hold shares. would obtain control of the company, and only a small sum was obtained These fears were revived when capital on the security of the business. was called for, in order to carry through a reorganization scheme, and the Government was forced to intervene in the affairs of the company. Negotiations for the sale of the business to a new company were resumed, but were broken off in 1913, and in June of that year the shareholders agreed to a scheme for the reconstitution of the Board of Directors. The company now possesses a fleet of 31 ships of an aggregate of 59,332 tons. A

rough estimate places the value of its property at Tls. 25,000,000-Tls. 13,000,000 being represented by land, and Tls. 12,000,000 by steamers. The headquarters of the company have always been in Shanghai, but there are also wharves and various interests of the company at Chungking, I-chang, Hankow, Kiukiang, Chinkiang, Wuhu, Nanking, Ningpo, Wenchow, Amoy, Swatow, Foochow. Canton, Hongkong, Chefoo, Newchwang and Tientsin.

Other purely Chinese shipping companies operate on a much smaller The Cheng Ku Fleet of Steamers, Chefoo, is the second largest Shipping interest. The Ningshao Steamship Company has two scale. Chinese Shipping interest. steamers of 1500 and 999 tons respectively, which ply between Ningpo and Shanghai, and has now extended its service up the Yangtze to Hankow. Two companies, the Yuen On and the Shiu On, maintain the "Kwong" service between Hongkong and Canton. The Kwang Sang S. S. Co., operates steamers between Swatow and Amoy, and Bangkok, Saigon, Singapore, and Penang securing a large share of the Coolie traffic. The Szechuan Steam Navigation Company solved the problem of steam navigation on the Upper Yangtze for commercial purposes by means of the Shutung, which plied alone for some years between Ichang and Chungking, with a cargo flat There are now a number of steamers on this run. Numerous services of launches are maintained by Chinese companies in inland waters

The Kailan Mining Administration owns several steamers, and employs others on a long-time charter This company, a joint Anglo-Chinese enterprise, took over the shipping interests of the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company, which dated from 1887, when the company was Chinese owned. Its two steamers are of 1605 and 1243 tons respectively. The company owns the ice-free port of Chinwangtao, with anchorage for steamers drawing 22 ft. of water.

Messrs Mackenzie & Co., and the Robert Dollar Co., run specially constructed steamers between Ichang and Chungking, through the Yangtze

The Pacific Trade. In 1915 the withdrawal of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company from the Pacific-its fleet was sold to the Atlantic Transport Company—led to the formation of a new company to engage in the trans-Pacific passenger and cargo trade. The organisers were mainly Chinese, but the capital, \$10,000,000, was to be shared equally between Chinese and American shareholders, and the ships sail under the American flag Look Tin Eli, President of the Canton Bank, San Francisco, is President of the new company. The service was inaugurated on October 30, 1915, by the China, a Pacific mail boat purchased from the Atlantic Transport Company. The Pacific Mail Steamship Company has now resumed its sailings to Japan and China.

The shortage of tonnage in the Far East during the war brought into existence a number of shipping schemes, not all of which have as yet The Java-Pacific Company, a new line managed by the Java-China-Japan Line, started with a monthly service from Batavia via Hongkong and other ports to San Francisco. The Bank Line re-entered the trans-Pacific freight trade in November, 1915, with one boat.

Motor Boats.—There has been a marked extension of motor-boat traffic in South China waterways, especially along the West River and its tributaries in Hongkong's trade field. A motor-boat service has been established as far as Pinglo, 80 miles up the Kueikiang or Cassia River, half-way way between Wuchow and Kweilin, Kwangsi province, with an extension up the West River. At Pinglo, it may be noted, traffic reaches a country tapped by headwaters and streams flowing into the Yangtze River through The service between Wuchow and Nanning is maintained with some interruptions all through the year, although at low water the difficulties of navigating the narrows and rapids in the West River are great. In the summer the motor boats do the round trip from Wuchow (340 miles) in about four days, but in winter the single trip up river may take almost as long. During parts of the year a service is run between Wuchow and

Lungchow, 90 miles above Nanning. Boats have run to Posé, 150 miles up the Yukiang. Liquid fuel is burnt on the upper reaches of the West River instead of kerosene oil. The boats on the service range up to 60 tons burden. Another service under Inland Steam Navigation Rules plying between Wuchow and Liuchowfu on the Liukiang, a tributary of the Pakho, which runs into the West River at Sünckow, was maintained in 1914 by six large motor boats, four under the British and two under the Chinese flag. Another run contemplated was between Liuchowfu and Changan, 175 miles up the Liukiang, together with a possible extension of the service another 100 miles farther up to Kuyi, which is almost on the borders of Kweichow.

At Tientsin motor-boats are used by the native water police for patrolling the Haiho (Peiho) and by foreign steamship companies. There are also

a few privately owned craft.

At Amoy motor craft are used for the journey across the harbour between Kulangsu and Amoy, the boats being for the most part the native sampan fitted with a 14-18 k.p. engine.

SHIPPING REPORT.

It will be interesting to recall some of the conditions as they have

existed just prior to, during, and after the Great War.

For four or five years before the war, it may be said that shipping the world over and particularly on the China Coast, was in a flourishing condition from an Owner's point of view. Whilst naturally coastwise charter rates fluctuated between on an average Mex \$2. to \$4. per ton deadweight, for, say, Coal, Japan to Hongkong, and on this basis for other trades, such as Seeds and Beans from Newchwang to Swatow; and Rice, Bangkok to Hongkong; yet Ocean rates of freight by regular liners both to New York via Suez, Pacific Coast ports and London Conference steamers had remained practically stable for a considerable period.

The full significance of what the war would mean in the shipping world was not recognised until the German "'U" Boat Campaign started in all

seriousness and became so considerably effective.

The price of tonnage began to soar in the late Spring and Summer of 1915; from this time on rates and the prices of tonnage continued to

increase until the Armistice was signed.

Prior to the war, the price of shipbuilding in British shipyards for ordinary tramp tonnage was from £12 to £16. per ton dead-weight, and by the Spring of 1918 the cost in British ship-yards for building a steamer amounted to £60/70 per ton. At this time Japanese tonnage was in great demand and steamers were built irrespective of cost and sold for £100. per ton dead-weight, and judging from the number of orders, which the Japanese received from the U.S. for large freight carriers for delivery up to May 1920, the cost of ship-building in the States must have been about the same, if not more.

The cost of ship-building in British yards has again come down to comparatively little more than it used to be in pre-war days, despite the high cost of material and labour, and new ships have changed hands at little more than £20 per ton dead-weight. This has been due to the extraordinary slump in shipping that has occurred since November 1918. and which reached its lowest pitch during the earlier part of 1921.

It may be interesting, perhaps, to make a few comparisons in freight

rates and in charter rates during the period under review.

London Rates. In the Spring of 1914 the average rate on general cargo from Tientsin, or Shanghai, to London was 40/- a ton. As the war progressed and the Submarine Campaign became more serious, rates naturally rose until in the Autumn of 1918 many hundreds of tons of cargo were shipped to London on the basis of £40, £50.—and even £60.—a ton. These rates are again down, to little more than pre-war rates.

Pacific Rates.—Before the war, Pacific rates averaged from G.\$5\frac{1}{2} to G.\$6. per ton. By the Summer of 1917 more cargo could be obtained

than tonnage could be found at G.\$50. per ton, rates having risen from \$16.- in February in 1917 to \$60.- and \$70.-by the end of that year. Cargo was shipped irrespective of whatever rate was asked, and it is the shortage of foreign tonnage that resulted in the tremendous impetus given to the port of Kobe as a transhipping centre for almost the entire East, from Vladivostok as far as Java. The result was not a happy one from the shippers' point of view, and did not enhance the reputation of upstart Japanese Owners, Brokers, and Shipping Offices. Rates across the Pacific are now again down to normal, and whilst the nominal Conference rates are quoted at G.\$ 12½ per ton, space is freely offering at \$6/7 per ton.

New York Via Suez or the Panama Canal.—Rates prevailing for several years prior to the war were on the basis of 37/6 to 45/- a ton. For one reason and another, this route was left almost alone by Owners during the war, and consequently the few steamers available asked whatever rate they wanted. The highest rate we can recall was in the neighbourhood of 750/- per ton. These rates have now been transferred to a gold dollar basis, and current rates are G.\$ 11/15 which are slightly in excess of pre-war rates. One can, therefore, see at a glance that with the higher running expenses for maintenance of a vessel, there can be little, if nothing, left over for Owners. Indeed, for the last six months steamers have been plying the world over at an average loss of 15/- per ton deadweight per trip. It is obvious that none but the most stable of owners can afford to maintain a service under these circumstances. Whilst the mmediate outlook is not bright, yet one cannot help but regard the future with optimism. The economic shock which the world of commerce sustained during the time of the war has taken a very much longer time to recover than was ever anticipated. One can see, however, that it is gradually coming back to it own level, and we think that within two years from date, there will be a great improvement throughout the world, but until this occurs, shipping must of a necessity be subject to considerable fluctuation and uncertainty.

Charter Rates.—Coastwise Time Charter rates went as high as Yen 35.00 per ton D/W per month. Recently the same business has been done at Yen 2.25 and Mex Dollars 1.80 per ton D/W per month—foreign tonnage commanding from \$3.50 to \$5.00 per ton D/W per month.

STEAMSHIP COMPANIES.

The following steamship companies ply to and from Chinese waters:

1. Mail Steamers.

- 1. Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Co. (P. and O.) British.

 London to China and Japan. Fortnightly, with Intermediate Service, fortnightly.
- 2. Canadian Pacific Railway Co. (C.P.R.). British. Vancouver to Hong-kong. Monthly, with one Intermediate steamer.
- 3. Nord-Deutscher Lloyd (N.D.L.). German. Bremen to China and Japan. Fortnightly. Abandoned during the war.
- 4. Messageries Maritimes (M.M.). French. Marseilles to China and Japan. Fortnightly.
- 5. Nippon Yusen Kabushiki Kaisha (N.Y.K.). Japanese. Japan to China and Europe, to North and South America and to Australia.
- 6. Tokyo Kisen Kabushiki Kaisha (T.K.K.). Japanese. San Francisco to Japan and China. Weekly.
- 7. Osaka Shosen Kaisha (O.S.K.). Japanese. Japan to China, India, Europe, and America (via Suez).
- 8. Pacific Mail Steamship Co. (P.M.S.). American. San Francisco to Japan and China, Shanghai to Calcutta and round the world Service

II. Register and "Conference" Lines.

(The flags sailed under are given in brackets.)

Barber Steamship Lines, Inc. (British). Ben Line (British). British India S.N. Co. (British)-Apcar Line. Chargeurs Réunis (French). China Mutual S. N. Co. (British). East Asiatic Co. (Danish).
Eastern and Australian Steamship Co. (British). Robert Dollar and Co. (British and American). Gellatly, Hankey and Co. (British)-Mogul Line. Glen Line (British). Great Northern S.S. Co. (American). A Holt and Co. (British)--Blue Funnel Line. Lloyd Triestino (Italian). Navigazione Generale Italiana (Italian). Portland and Asiatic Steamship Co. (American). Shire Line (British)-Royal Mail Steam Packet Co. John Warrack and Co. (British). Java-Pacific Co. (Dutch).

Occasional Sailings.

Admiral Line (American). American Asiatic Steamship Co. (British). American and Manchurian Line (British). American and Oriental Line (American). Anglo-American Oil Co. (British). Anglo-Saxon Petroleum Co. (Dutch). Asiatic Steam Navigation Co. (British). Axel Broström (Swedish). Banan Steamship Co. (British). Bank Line (British). Charles Barrie and Son (British). China-Java-Japan Line (Dutch). C. T. Bowring and Co. (British).
T. and J. Brocklebank (British). Bruusgaard, Kiosterud and Co. (Norwegian). Bullard, King and Co. (British). Burrell and Son (British)-Bank Line. James Chambers and Co. (British). J. Christensen (Norwegian). Clyde Shipping Co. (British). John Cory and Sons (British). Eastern and Australian Steamship Co. (British). Ellerman and Bucknall S.S. Co., Ld. (British). Gow, Harrison and Co. (British). Greenshields, Cowie and Co. (British). Green Star Line (American). Hugh Hogarth and Sons (British). Indra Line (British).
Hans Kiaer and Co. (Norwegian).
A. F. Klaveness and Co. (Norwegian). James Little and Co. (British). Los Angeles Pacific Navigation Co. (American). J. Mathias and Sons (British). F. S. Miller (British). Norwegian Steamship Owners' Co-operative Association (Norwegian). Soc. An. Nazionale di Servizi Maritimi (Italian). Nanyo Yusen Kaisha (Japan). Northern Steamship Co. (Russian).

Occidental and Oriental S. Co. (British).

Ocean Steamship Co. (British). Park Steamship Co. (British).

Prince Line (British).
Purdie, Glen and Miller (British). Rankin, Gilmour and Co. (British).

Association of Scandinavian Shipowners (Norwegian). Sivewright, Bacon and Co. (British). Swedish East Asiatic Co. (Swedish). Compañia Maritima "Unión" (Spanish).

Waterhouse Line (American).

Andrew Weir and Co. (British).

W. Wilhelmsen (Norwegian). O. and W. Williams and Co. (British).

J. F. Wilson and Co. (British). Wright, Graham and Co. (British).

The following steamship companies operate mainly or exclusively in Far Eastern waters :-

1. China Merchants Steam Navigation Co. (Chinese).

2. China Navigation Co. (British).

- 3. China and Manila Steamship Co., now the Philippine S.S. Co. (American).
- 4. China-Siam Steam Navigation Co. (Chinese). 5. Chinese Engineering and Mining Co. (British).
- 6. Compagnie Asiatique de Navigation (French).

7. Dairen Kisen Kaisha (Japan). 8. Douglas Steamship Co. (British).

9. (Hamburg-Amerika Line.) Shanghai-Tientsin, Wuhu, Canton Yangtze services. Abandoned during the war.

10. Harada Steamship Co. (Japanese).

11. Hongkong, Canton and Macao Steamboat Co. (British).

12. Hoong On Steamship Co. (British).

13. Indo-China Steam Navigation Co. (British). 14. Java-China-Japan Line (Dutch).

15. Kawasaki Kisen Kaisha (Japanese).

16. Kwong Line (Chinese).

17. Messageries Cantonaises (French).

18. Mitsui Bussan Kaisha (Japanese).

19. Ningshao Steam Navigation Co. (Chinese).

20. Nisshin Kisen Kaisha (Japanese).

21. Philippines Steamship Co. (American). 22. Russian Volunteer Fleet (Russian).

23. San Peh. S.N. Co. (Chinese).

24. South Manchuria Railway Co. (Japanese).

25. Straits Steamship Co.

26. Taito Steam Navigation Co. (Japanese).

27. Tien Hsin Steamship Co. (Chinese).

The American Shipping Board Fleet consists of steamers operated by:

Struther and Dixon, Inc.,

Admiral Line,

China Pacific,

Pacific Mail,

and Green Star S.S. Corporation.

INLAND WATERS STEAM NAVIGATION: VESSELS REGISTERED, 1916 to 1920.

	On R	egister a	t End of	Year			1920		
PORT	1916	1917	1918	1919	New Regis.	With	On Re	gister at Year	End of
	1010		1010	1010	try	drawals	Foreign Flag	Chinese Flag	Total
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Antung	10	10	11	5	12	10	5	2	7
Dairen	3	1	3	3	16	16	1	2	3
Newchwang			•••		11	10	•••	1	1
Tientsin	20	21	26	23	4	5	12	10	22
Lungkow	24	40	56	•••	2	•••	1	1	2
Chefoo	$\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$	5	5	5	17	17	•••	5	5
Kiaochao	2	3	1	4	1	4	1		1
Chungking.	$\frac{1}{7}$	2	3	4	1	1	3 2	$\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 9 \end{vmatrix}$	4
Shasi Changeha	67	$\frac{6}{78}$	5 83	8 85	5 11	10	$\frac{2}{28}$	58	86
Hankow	200	210	207	212	42	16	53	185	238
Kiukiang	44	34	46	47	17	19	9	36	45
Wuhu	34	32	34	42	8	4	23	23	46
Nanking	12	11	12	17	3		8	12	20
Chinkiang	60	50	42	71	11	10	28	44	72
Shanghai	350*	340	352	339	99	64	112	262	374
Soochow	13	13	13	12	1		8	5	13
Ningpo	31	28	26	25	3	7	1	20	21
Wenchow	7	6	4	5	1	•••	•••	6	6
Santuao				1		•••	1	***	1
Foochow	31	30	34	34	1	3	8	24	32
Amoy	32	24	28	28	15	8	15	20	35
Swatow	42	48	52	54	7	0.7	13	48	61
Canton	490	512	514	534	45	37	22	520	542
Kongmoon.	7	8	9	10	11	6	12	3	15 2
Samshui	18	95	$\frac{2}{20}$	$\frac{2}{22}$	10	2	10	20	30
Wuchow Nanning	13	$\frac{25}{13}$	12	$\frac{22}{20}$	10 4		4	20	24
Kiungchow	10	10	1	1	29	30	***	20	
TETUING CHOW		•••	1	1	20	00	***		
Total	1,523	1,550	1,601	1,613	387	281	381	1,338	1,719

^{*} Amended.

THE MOTOR CAR IN CHINA.

Just when the first motor car was brought to China is an obscured fact in the present rapid development of the distribution of the vehicles in the nation but the assertion may safely be made that motor cars were brought into the British colony of Hongkong and the International Settlement at about the same time, between 1901 and 1904.

As was the case with China's first railway, the introduction of the motor car met with many difficulties both physical and mental and it may be said that its distribution was of little or no commercial importance until 1913. Beginning with that year the imports steadily increased and the

demand has been keeping a step ahead since that time.

In 1913 the importation totalled Tls. 485,182; in 1914, Tls. 521,955; 1915, Tls. 376,610; 1916, Tls. 686,725; in 1917, Tls. 914,547. Then came the more rapid growth of 1918, 1919 and 1920, when the total value of the motor cars brought into China was respectively Tls. 1,265,886 Tls. 2,158,998 and Tls. 3,780,785. Any difference in the increase in the tael rate of exchange may be regarded as being offset by the falling off in the prices of the motor cars due to mass production and other effects of increased demand.

During the period before the war, the motor-car market of China was almost solely in the hands of British and continental makers. As a natural consequence of wartime activities, the British and European makers were unable to supply the demand and as early as 1915 the American makers gained a supremacy which they have been able to retain. An indication of this may be found in the value of the motor vehicles which came into China during the year of 1919. Great Britain, including Hongkong, exported cars to China of a value of Tls. 45,823. The United States to whose actual figures must be added those of Japan, a point of distribution, the Philippine Islands and Canada, a point of transhipment, sent in approximately Tls. 2,000,000 in motors, allowing a part of the Canadian totals to Great Britain. This does not include motorcycles, in which the United States has about two-thirds of a trade valued in 1919 at Tls. 72,078, and in 1920 at Tls. 96,035.

The actual number of motor cars in China at the present time is difficult to estimate due to the size of the country and also to the invasion of the trade into some of the smaller centres. Motor car statistics published in England, the United States and elsewhere credit the country with from 2,000 to 4,000 vehicles, whereas the actual number is approximately 7,000. This number is changing rapidly and can only be estimated. Shanghai has approximately 3,500 cars, Peking 1.000, Tientsin 800, Hongkong 700, and the remainder are scattered in cities as Nanking, Hankow, Nantungchow, Tsingtao, Dairen,—actually Japanese territory,—in the province of Manchuria and Mongolia, Foochow, and Wusieh.

Motor car service and distributing establishments are located in Peking, Tientsin, Shanghai, Hongkong, and Canton. The largest of these are located in Shanghai, where each has equipment to do coach building, major repairs and replacements and to give practically factory service in cars, tyres and accessories. Within the past few years body building has come to be one

of the largest factors in the local motor trade,

Motor trucks or lorries have just broken the field in China and are being used in a small way in the port cities by general business firms and by truck transportation companies. The actual number of vehicles in use probably does not exceed 250 but the potential possibilities for motor freight and passenger transportation are large. Trucks are now being sold for operation in the Gobi Desert of Mongolia, in Manchuria, and in Central and South China.

The obstacle that retards the development of the motor car industry in China is that of traversible highways. While it is true that at one time China possessed a national highway system of some 2.000 miles of roads, these have degenerated into wheelbarrow and tow paths and are unsuitable

for motor transportation. The Chinese have not taken rapidly to the construction of highways and the development of motor roads has been sporadic and in widely separated parts of the country. For a single area Peking has probably the most mileage of roads that are suitable for motor traffic, the Peking-Tungchow road, extending a distance of 16 miles being probably the most important. The entire road total, however, outside the Treaty Ports did not exceed 250 miles in 1920. A military mud road is traversible by motor from Tientsin to Paotingfu. Nanking has a short motor road from the city walls to the Ming Tombs. Nantungchow, a small commercial centre in Central China on the Yangtze River, has the most striking development in native roads, where more than fifty miles of highways have been constructed and are being rock surfaced. Shangkai has the Rubicon Road, a municipal highway of the International Settlement, and a Chinese toll road, extending from Shanghai to Woosung. Hongkong has a motor road of foreign construction and Canton is now making plans for the extending of her motor highways both within the city and in the surrounding country. Foochow is building more motor passable streets in the city and is running a motor passenger line in the principal districts. The Tientsin-Peking highway has been surveyed and is under construction. Other motor roads are being projected in Anhui and other provinces. Streets in Shanghai, Peking, Tientsin, Hankow, Canton, Hongkong, and Foochow are well adapted to motors. Canton has torn down her city wall to make way for a boulevard.

Motor fuel in China sells at from 80 cents to \$1.15 Chinese currency a gallon according to the rate of exchange. Native chauffeurs are paid wages ranging from \$20 a month, Chinese currency. On the whole they are not as reliable as chauffeurs of other countries and have no knowledge of the working parts of the vehicle. Car prices are governed by exchange and similar models of the same make purchased at different dates will have

varying prices.

Tyre manufacturers of Great Britain and the United States have found China a profitable market for both their motor car and rickshaw products and the majority of them have their direct representatives in the field. Representation for motor cars—and the majority of the well-known makes of British, American and Continental cars are represented in China—is as a general rule placed with foreign dealers in the country. There are a few Chinese motor car distributors who have direct representation of foreign cars.

While the majority of the motor cars in China are to-day foreign owned there is an increasing demand from the Chinese themselves. This demand has brought changes in body design by the distributors as the native purchasers want a car which will be luxurious in appearance and fittings. Many are buying closed cars equipped with silk curtains, mirrors, Chinese vanity boxes and other accessories which are tabooed in other nations. Colours demanded are reds, blues, light yellows and others that are brilliant and extremely noticeable.

China is in its motor car infancy and the development of roads and a raising of the standard of living in the country will bring a large demand from the nation. A cultivation of the market will bring present and future returns of satisfactory proportions. While the American makes now predominate in the market, increased activity is being shown by the British

and European makers and competition is becoming keen.

INSURANCE.

The progress insurance has made in China during the past two decades is a true reflex of the progress of the trade of the country, and particularly of foreign trade. Without the latter the former could scarcely make any advance. In such a country as China with its big population, its busy

ports and its growing industry, the future of the insurance business, whether possibilities seem almost limitless. Of course, the greatest progress is made in the ports and in those places where foreigners have settled and are allowed to trade. In Shanghai there are innumerable insurance companies British and continental firms whose head offices are in Great Britain and on the Continent, British concerns whose head offices are in the Dominions, British concerns which are now China Companies, that is, which while being in every way British, are registered in China. insurance first played the greatest part in the insurance history of China, simply because the trade relationships between the Chinese and foreign nations was confined to the coast ports and consisted of import and export, but with the development of ports and the great strides trade has made in those places where extraterritoriality has secured to the foreigner adequate protection, fire insurance has perhaps come to a good second place. Industry within the confines of the concessions and settlements has been steadily built up, and Chinese, feeling greater security under foreign protection than their own, have helped in this development. Fire risks became increasingly great, and fire insurance found a suitable and eventually profitable employment in these growing places. And finally, the individual, first the foreigner, living in a land which was not as free from disease as his own land, and who felt the need of greater and more protection than was offered by the firm in whose employ he was, no matter how generous the terms on which he was engaged, sought the security of a good life insurance company. And last of all came the Chinese who, having more to gain and more to lose in their relations with the West, also sought protection and welcomed insurance companies.

The individual Chinese has unlimited faith in foreign institutions, and though, perhaps out of patriotism, he first supported Chinese insurance companies, which, fired by the success obtained by foreign companies sought to emulate it or secure a share of the business that was going, he eventually returned and insured his property or life in foreign companies. And it was not without justification that he did so, for, with very few exceptions, and those exceptions have often had foreigners in control or as advisers, the Chinese insurance company has been a ghastly failure. As examples we need but refer to several well-known insurance companies which, purely Chinese in their capital and management, opened with a flourish of trumpets ad died an ignominious death. One failed, paid three per cent. to its policy holders and nothing to the shareholders; two more failed and paid nothing; a fourth declared itself bankrupt and then its directors and managers could not be found. None of these concerns ever published a balance sheet or a financial statement of any kind, and indeed it is impossible to-day to secure figures from Chinese concerns. These cases could be multiplied, and the procession of failures was so great that Chinese themselves lost most of their faith in them and gave their business to foreign houses.

During the past year or two there have been two important changes in four of the most important insurance companies in China. The North China Insurance Co., Ltd. and the Union Insurance Society of Canton Ltd. amalgamated, and though the Shanghai Life Insurance Co., Ltd. and the China Mutual Life Insurance Co., Ltd. are still separate entities, they are now under one management. All these companies, covering insurance of different kinds, were powers in the land; their ramifications were extensive, and much the same can be said of other British companies like the Yangtze Insurance Co., Ltd., the Far Eastern Co., Ltd., the New Zealand Insurance Co., Ltd., and others.

Though figures are not available for Chinese companies, British firms are compelled to issue statements, but to combine these to show what strides insurance has made would be an almost impossible task. All that can be done in an article which is limited in its scope, is to show the figures of one or two companies, which can be taken to be more or less representative of the whole.

One well-known British insurance company, marine and fire, in 1900 had an income of Tls. 770,168.19, and funds in hand of Tls. 1,648,572. These figures steadily increased, with the exception of the years 1906, 1918 and 1919, which showed slight falling off, until they stand to-day higher than ever at Tls. 5,975,137.31 and Tls. 9,559,073, respectively. The biggest increases have been during the past decade, and as said at the commencement are thoroughly representative of the trade of China.

As far as life insurance is concerned the figures are confusing in that policies have been transferred into sterling and back again at the request of holders, until many of the figures are in taels, dollars, sterling, and even roubles. But taking the figures of the two biggest firms in China, it will be found that for the past five years the increase in life insurance is almost phenomenal, and what is more interesting still is that it is done chiefly amongst Asiatics, as distinct from Foreigners.

One of these concerns had a total insurance of Tls. 31,177,998 in 1916, and in 1920 this has been reduced to Tls. 14,643,941, but by transference to gold policies, the total gold policies, additional to the Tls. 14,643,941, amounted to £4,199,230 and Roubles 758,415. The second insurance company in 1916 had a total insurance of Tls. 18,385,744.17 and in 1920 a total of Tls. 26,535,379.

Little more remains to be said, save that in a growing country like China insurance is but in its infancy, and the possibilities, let it be reiterated, are beyond measure.

THE NORTH MANCHURIAN PLAGUE PREVENTION SERVICE.

Following the Pneumonic Plague outbreak in Manchuria in the winter 1910-11, permission was given by the Powers for a portion of the Maritime Customs Revenue of Manchuria, amounting to Roubles 78,000 per annum, to be diverted from the meeting of loan and indemnity obligations and spent upon the establishment and maintenance of a Government Plague I'revention Service in North Manchuria. The Commissioner of Customs at Harbin is to act as Treasurer.

The Plague Prevention Service has been placed under the control of Dr. Wu Lien-teh, M.A., M.D., B.C. (Cantab.) Five central plague hospitals have already been established. The Harbin Hospital has been constructed to meet the requirements outlined by the International Plague Conference. It was erected at a cost of Tls. 50,000. It contains quarantine, suspect, and plague wards for males and females, accommodation being provided for 30 plague cases, 20 suspects, and 250 contacts. Up to the end of 1913, 10,169 patients suffering from diseases of a general character had been treated.

The Lahasusu Hospital was completed in November, 1912, and has been used as a general hospital since October 15, 1912. This hospital is situated in a prominent position at the bend of the River Sungari just before its junction with the River Amur. It consists of a two-storied building for the medical officer above, and an out-patient department below, as well as separate quarantine, plague, and suspect blocks. The hospital has accommodation for 42 in-patients.

The Sansing Hospital was officially opened on June 17, 1914, but patients had been treated since June, 1915. The hospital, comprising six separate blocks, has accommodation for 60 patients.

The Taheiho Hospital was officially declared open on July 19, 1914, but had received patients since October, 1913. It is a two-storied building, on the ground floor of which are laboratories, out-patient departments, operation

room, and dispensary; on the upper floor are the living quarters of the medical officers. There are two isolation blocks capable of accommodating twelve patients each. Two medical officers, one a woman, are stationed at Taheiho.

The new Quarantine Hospital of Newchwang was opened in July 1920 and added to the list of Hospitals under the direction of the Manchurian Plague Prevention Service. This Hospital has been built mainly to cope with the frequent outbreaks of Cholera in Korea and Japan and has accommodation for 40 patients, besides 500 persons in the isolation camps.

Dr. Wu Lien-teh, the Director and Chief Medical Officer of the service, was in charge of the work at Harbin during the pneumonic plague epidemic of 1910-11, and also acted as Chairman of the International Plague Conference.

THE SECOND OUTBREAK OF PLAGUE IN MANCHURIA.

After a lapse of ten years a second outbreak of Pneumonic Plague cccurred in Manchuria as a result of some bubonic affections in the sandy wastes of Mongolia and Siberia in September 1920. One case of Bubonic Piague was successfully treated at the Railway Hospital at Manchouli.

In October a few more suspicious deaths were reported from Hailar

120 miles east of Manchouli and the staff of the Manchurian Plague Prevention Service at once visited the spot to investigate. The diagnosis was that of Bubonic Plague, traceable to a Russian family who had had dealings with Manchouli The doctors were able to note the gradual change of the plague from the bubonic form to the septicaemic and later to the pneumonic form. Strict anti-plague precautions were taken and fifty lives were lost, but two of the contacts escaped to the mining camp of Dalainor and spread infection broadcast owing to most insanitary way of housing the miners, 40 to 60 persons being huddled together in one underground hut, the windows of which were never opened because of the cold (minus 25 to 35 degrees Centigrade). Manchouli lying 21 miles away was reinfected and lost from January to May 1100 lives. Tsitsihar, the capital city of Heilungkiang, was also attacked and lost 2000 people. The neighbourhood of the Chinese Eastern Railway was more or less infected, but thanks to the presence of trained medical officers of the Plague Prevention Service and the co-operation of the Russian doctors the mortality was nowhere serious except at Harbin. This city, now the largest in Manchuria, has a population of 300,-000, having grown enormously since the outbreak of the world war, but the sanitary arrangements have not marched hand in hand with its rise in wealth and prosperity. The first case in Harbin was reported on January 22. In February the number of cases gradually increased, as more cases escaped from the infected regions in the west. In March it was very bad and the plague reached its maximum intensity towards the middle of April after which it subsided. Altogether 3,000 lives were lost in Harbin. Strong quarantine measures were adopted both in Harbin and Changchun at the Railway stations. Only 150 third class tickets were issued daily at Harbin after medical examination, and when the passengers reached Changchun they were subjected to five days' detention. As a result of these measures only a few cases occurred at Changchun, and the South Manchurian and Peking Mukden lines were saved from the Plague. Altogether the epidemic of 1920-21 was responsible for the deaths of 9,000 persons as compared with 60,000 in the epidemic of 1910-11. Only one-tenth of the total expenses incurred in 1910-11 was spent on this occasion. So it may be said that the establishment of the Manchurian Plague Prevention Service has fully justified its existence and if the general education of the masses goes kand in hand with medical progress, so that a proper understanding of hygienic needs may be instilled into the minds of the people, China may soon hope to suppress her two great enemies—famine and plague.

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BRITISH COMPANY LAW IN CHINA.

As company law has hitherto been unknown in China (a Company Law was first promulgated by mandate on January 1, 1914) it has been necessary for foreign commercial interests to organize corporations in their own countries or in Far Eastern countries other than China. As a result of the facilities afforded, the larger number of companies operating in China are organized in Hongkong under British Colonial Acts. Thus corporations could be organized in Hongkong with non-British capital and non-British directors, and would operate in China free from all control, as exterritorial rights left each director amenable only to the laws of his own country. With the outbreak of the war the incongruity of a non-British company doing business as a British corporation in China became so conspicuous that it was found necessary to deal with the problem. An Order in Council was promulgated in November, 1915, to take effect on January 1, 1916, and a new Hongkong law was passed in keeping with the Order-in-Council. The text of the China (Companies) Order in Council, 1915 appeared in the 1919 Edition.

FREEMASONRY.

Freemasonry is one of the oldest foreign institutions in China. In 1849 Hongkong and Shanghai were united in the "Province of China" under the English Constitution. In 1879 the first District Grand Lodge of North China received its patent, and since then the craft has steadily grown in numbers and influence. Under the U.S.A. Constitution Masonry was introduced into China in the 'sixties with the formation of the "Ancient Landmark" Lodge of Shanghai. A charter was granted in 1915 for the inauguration of a District Grand Lodge under the American Constitution. The ceremony took place in November, 1915, in the presence of more than three hundred Master Masons—a record gathering since the memorial service held on the death of the Grand Master, King Edward VII. The History of Freemasonry in Shanghai and Northern China, by R. S. Ivy, District Grand Master of Freemasonry in North China, contains a complete list of all regular lodges, Royal Arch Chapters, etc.

CUSTOMS REVENUE AND TRADE STATISTICS. CHAPTER XXXIII.

MARITIME CUSTOMS REVENUE, 1911 TO 1920.

Coast Trade Tonnage
Hk. Tls. H
2,334,927 1,371,614
2,399,406 1

Inclusive of Opium.

+ Under this head are included Export Duties on Chinese Produce for Home consumption carried from port to port in vessels of Foreign type and junks iterased to trade under the Treaty Tarde. The amount of these Duties (as estimated by taking it as double the Coast Trade or Half Duty paid on the Produce at the ports where it is delivered) may be found in the Table below, in the column of "Duties on Chinese Produce exported to Chinese Ports"; and the entire Revenue may, with tolerable correctness, be apportioned between the Foreign and Home Trades as shown in the second half of the Table:

YEAR.	DUTIES ON CHINESE EXPORTED TO	ON CHINESE PRODUCE EXPORTED TO		REVENUE.	
	Foreign Countries.	Chinese Ports.	Foreign Trade.	Home Trade.	Total.
Andrews on the second of the s	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tl8.
	8,135.021	4,487,738	29,656,393	6,523,432	36,179,825
	8,525,549	5,285 599	32,332,085	7,618,526	39,950,612
	9,069,983	4,578 552	36,652,355	7,317,498	43,959,853
	8,536,250	4,511,420	32,150,395	6,767,130	38,917,525
	10,404,283	5,035,426	29,194,567	7,553,139	36,747,706
	11,743,802	4,798,812	30,566,093	7,198,218	37,764,311
	11,678.982	4,702,680	31,135,409	7,054,020	38,189,429
	11,491,100	4,497,024	29,599,509	6,745,536	36,345,045
	1.1 671, due	5,164,118	38,262.983	7,746,177	46,009,153
	12.907.980	4.967,856	42,368,151	7,451,784	49,819,885

MARITIME CUSTOMS REVENUE OF EACH PORT, 1920.

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145,145,298 34,021,007 26,410,946 44,348-445 13,249-959 57,325-115 8,409,000 2,554,100 198,105,004 138,248,675 138,249-656 5,699,233 48,009,009,555 50,009,235 14,009,009,009,509,101 14,256,475																
Shishman 12,464,280 269 418-027 2,469,549 227 79,531-642 486,565 50,240 50,240																
SOCIONOW 502-470 414-955 421-31 432-96-39 67-977 11,591-998 67-977 11,591-998 67-977 11,591-998 67-977 11,591-998 79,340-965 79,340-969 79,340-965 79,340-969														18,833,046.039		
HANGCHOW 7, 36, 56 - 76																
16,986 59,966 5																
161-1500		79,840-965				9,504-257										
SANTELLA 128,989-215 9.006-140 68,858-407 224,631-343 6,148-251 44,872-249 5,275.300 9,167.800 230,271.173 237,671.580 1,024.169 513,564 528,706.528 528,7		161.500														
ANOY 308,099-519 10,089-246 11,987.378 471,757 097 64,8428 25,515.912.064 41,897.378 471,757 097 64,482.08 126,564.622 5,427.123 39.932.100 2,686.200 99.165.883 114,183.746 11,096.162 2,242,187.280 11,096.162 2,242,187.28																
Nation	1													518,820.773		
CANTON																
Kowloon 168,685.537		1,046,297-467	41,504.285	980,728.030				19,383.700	10,643.800	2,242,192.407		11,096.162	-			
Lappa Lapp	Kowloon		168,685.537*	OF 1 50 707	70,335.357*	****	_			100 176 007						
Lapta Lapt	T	103,473.230	164 000 700		06 600 477 1	-	-	_		129,136.027						RAIL WAY COLLECTION.
SAMSHUT 25,997.091 48,702.619 25,697.091 48,702.619 25,997.091 48,702.619 25,997.091 48,702.619 25,997.091 48,702.619 25,997.091 48,702.619 25,997.091 48,702.619 25,690.965 481.818 6,706.392 1,738.500 2,789.500 30,888.626 87,849.474 1,975.511 1,975.511 1,948.889 503,792.442 WUCHOW 158,872.297 168,875.457 33,119.244 125,109.993 340.885 18.167.016 917.800 2,261.600 193,249.725 314,414.066 1,179.761 14,948.889 523,792.442 WUCHOW 10,991.000 10,991.000 2,261.600 193,249.725 314,414.066 1,179.761 14,948.889 523,792.442 WUCHOW 10,993.000 10,991.000 10		130 961 518					_	1.714.000	1 161 200 1	158 044 009		1,596,121				
Wuchow 158,872.297 168,875.457 33,119,244 125,109,993 340,385 18,167.016 317.800 32,251.600 32,267.29 33,200 32,600 31,3414.066 1,179.761 14,948.889 523,732.442 17,948.889 523,732.442 17,948.889 523,732.442 17,948.889 523,732.442 17,948.889 523,732.442 17,948.889 523,732.442 17,948.889 17,347,883.079 17,486.815 17,486.815 18,167.016 31,021.887 18,167.016 31,021.887 18,167.016 31,021.887 18,167.016 31,021.887 18,167.016 31,021.887 18,167.016 31,021.887 18,167.016 31,021.887 18,167.016 32,021.82 32,625.997 33,200 32,600 31,655.653 35,352.821 32,687.832 32,68						481.818	6,706,392						_	120,711.611		
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	***	158,872.297	168,875.457	33,119.244				917.800	2,261.600	193,249.726		1,179.761				
Pakhoi 45,028.992 13,021.887 21,471.998 11,730.242 56.971 427.370 2.231.200 308.500 68,789.161 25,487.999 742.905 95,020.065 4,672.043 LUNGCHOW 2,801.950 182,984.132 3,583.872 2,590.329 — 28 600 370,535.682 13,264.765 99,608.670 2,568.625 486,068.742 1,194.472 — 7,361.456 3,393.906 76,565.208 17,495.057 5,625.226 99,685.491 749.060 748.060	37						2,525.097									
LUNGCHOW MENOREZ 185,062.221 1													· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			
Mengtsz 185,062.221 9,642.203 182,984.132 3,583.872 2,590.329 — — 28 600 370,636.682 13,254.765 99,608.670 2,568.625 486,068.742 10,755.362 7,561.456 7,565.202 59,078.793 39.005 17,496.057 5,625.226 99,685.491 Mengtsz Szemao — 59,078.793 1,7486.815 — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —		45,028.992				56.971		2,231.200								
SZEMAO		185,062,221				2 590 329										
TENGYUER - 59,078 393 - 17,486.815 76,565.208 17,495.057 5,625.226 99,685.491 TENGYUER. Hk Tls 23,297,391.759 1,898,994-591 13,268,953.266 4,606,882.384 1,347,883.079 1,136,044.713 1,640,224.344 151,519.616 39,554,452.448 7,793,441.304 1,636,131.865 835.859.553							_		20 (100				2,000.020			
		~.							-	-			5,625.226			
Toral Ht. Tts. 25,196,386.350 17,875,835.650 2,483,927.792 1,791,743.960 47,347,893.752 2,471.991.418 49,819,885.170‡‡	Hk Tle.	23,297,391.759	1,898,994.591	13,268,953.266	4,606,882.384	1,347,883.079	1,136,044.713	1,640,224.344	151,519.616	39,554,452.448	7,793,441.304	1,636,131.865	835,859,553			
	TorstHk Tils.	25,196,	386.350	17,875,8	35.650	2,483,92	27.792	1,791,74	13.960	47,347,8	93.752	2,471,9	91.418	49,819,885.170‡‡		

^{*} River Dues. † Total, Hk. Tl. 651.878,544. ‡ Including Junk Duties, Hk. Tls. 55,124,781. \$ Including Junk Duties, Hk. Tls. 397.3265. ¶ Including Junk Duties, Hk. Tls. 125,030,782,684. † Including Likin and Chingfei Tax: Import, Hk. Tls. 125,673.52 ±0.07.78: 124,960,022; Export, Hk. Tls. 32,234,725 ±Loc. Tls. 35,847,174; Total, Hk. Tls. 144,602.077 = Loc. Tls. 160,807.106.

¹¹ Including Likin and Chingiei Tax: Import, Hk. Tls. 56,654.396 = Loc. Tls. 63,290.185; Export, Hk. Tls. 13,496.671 = Loc. Tls. 15,077.503; Total, Hk. Tls. 70,151.067 = Loc. Tls. 78,367.686. 11 529 Drawbacks presented for cash payment during year, amounting to Hk. Tls. 82,848.775, are not included in the above total collection.

N.B.—The Kowloon and Lappa Custom Houses collect Foreign Tariff Duty and Convention Likin on all Opium carried by junks from Housekone and Macoo inwards, i.e., to Chinese Ports whether open or not open to Foreign shipping: Native Tariff Duty on all goods from Hongkong and Macoo sent by junks to Chinese Ports not open to Foreign shipping: Native Tariff Duty on goods outcards, i.e., to Hongkong and Macoo whether from the consequence of the conseque



NATIVE CUSTOMS REVENUE, 1918 TO 1920.

	1918.	1919.	1920.
	$Hk.\ Tls.$	$Hk.\ Tls.$	$Hk.\ Tls.$
Newchwang	115,882.436	87,608.930	99,077.320
TIENTSIN	1,121,931.377*	1,298,985.989*	1,194,841.544*
Снегоо	88,016.173	90,703.788	87,133.191
ICHANG	39,115.609	52,147,887	34,467.308
Shasi	8,127.306	12,098.716	17,242.870
Kiukiang	343,792.512	421,706.186	424,138.436
Wuhu	762,536.814	1,042,426.129	992,621.891
SHANGHAI	232,399.882	256,992.670	292,422.669
NINGPO	121,016.049	111,191.837	116,255.709
Wenchow	51,577.805	50,015.585	48,113.486
SANTUAO	83,439.316	91,055.232	90,070.472
Fоосноw	236,192.726	224,126.094	244,625.290°
Амоч	84,728.601	101,921.233	109,119.265
SWATOW	121,719.241	122,093.916	136,481.943
CANTON	299,645.184	273,449.748	264,175.519
Kongmoon	56,911.135	72,875.001	68,691.619
Wuchow	177,349.769	148,069.764	132,578.039
Kiungchow	19,601.199	23,518.042	22,834.807
Ракног	10,052.202	12,721.556	10,643.675
TOTALHk. Tls.	3,974,035.336	4,493,708.303	4,385,535.053

^{*} Not including the Outward Transit Dues collected on behalf of and remitted to the Maritime Customs.

TOTAL MARITIME CUSTOMS REVENUE OF EACH PORT, 1916 TO 1920.

94	CUSTOMS REVENUE OF EACH PORT.
1920.	Hk. Tls. 188,526,392 92,760,563 149,570,508 299,216,388 205,291,648 17,657,217 50,373,524 1,129,577,218 909,095 4,902,715,585 729,944,994 476,187,675 5,019,901,694 37,089,926 410,079,994 1,761,285,424 401,504,131 60,988,339 55,792,434 54,103,162 511,640,852 126,313,032 5671,002,919 670,792,569 780,909,416
1919.	Hk. T/s. 128,893,080 108,303,770 196,442,871 273,638,859 262,471,806 29,920,015 72,175,164 1,345,215,832 1,354,727 4,55,924,197 747,526,944 362,448,231 5,203,386,496 55,906,612 452,734,830 1,666,794,108 602,386,496 58,011,965 47,952,622 273,105,818 100,236,721 4,219,599,096 692,577,479 1,182,837,769
1918.	Hk. Tls 161,645.885 86,753.502 81,204.921 350,729.465 254,760.059 33,446.453 80,336.001 893,746.871 342.303 3,562,196.478 505,488,967 4028,953,735 42,432.015 443,499.315 1,412,905.771 443,499.315 1,412,905.771 478,424.592 98,727.947 63,655.240 60,585.644 304,868.942 138,120.643 3,267,829.694 602,530.077 586,979.813
1917.	##. T78. 78.860.817 67.958.421 275.588.835 397.551.276 415.877.616 27,961.220 40,337.650 1,099,807.799 1,226.252 5,088,517.821 506,321.046 287,620.266 4,269,037.959 41,423.707 478,887.751 1,864,620.214 466,713.103 40,980.176 78,517.990 46,949.555 522,725.879 63,076.455 532,725.879 63,076.455 532,725.879 63,076.485
1916.	Hb. T7/s. 31,921.321 44,573.827 213,572.325 297,806.979 348,432.868 21,882.369 21,704.445 742,739.119 678.861 2,031,843.906 664,596.420 268,335.174 4,421,855.096 44,208.003 495,066.849 1,698,666.854 520,428.520 113,583.145 520,428.520 624,513.179 79,702.670 4,011,017.665 640,619.347. 545,953.261
PORT.	AIGUN SANSING HARBIN SUTENHO HUNCHUN LUNGCHINGESUN ANTUNG TATUNGKOW DAIREN NEWCHWANG CHINWANGTAO TIENTSIN LUNGKOW CHEROO K AOCHOW CHEROO K AOCHOW CHANG SHAST CHANG

(Continued on next page).

TOTAL MARITIME CUSTOMS REVENUE OF EACH PORT, 1916 TO 1920.--Continued.

1920.	Hh. 71s. 760,662.397 458,008.965 18,835,046.030 18,928.215 114,364.164 537,408.437 62,334.379 88,843.957 528,706.528 518,820.773 11,109,889.878 2,542.287.525 239,020.894 129,136.027 191,598.173 2191,598.173 2191,598.173 210,575.442 120,575.442
1919.	Hh. 778. 751,869.578 403,666.543 14,289,736.506 513,736.799 266,746.660 412,610.946 66,239.622 137,540.565 557,024.317 466,706.316 1,049,737.067 2,471.934.198 213,617.826 88,983.696 143,599.412 118,67.73.209 124,388.983 155,756.033 100,143,617 3,839.691 4,642.301 4,642.301 85,470.648
1918.	##. T78. 289,011.119 345,968.100 10,903,047,488 247,262.762 239,425.116 405,544.883 51,608.658 114,355.010 441,195.749 347,867.890 316,440.786 2,280,940.809 216,934.441 79,42.9013 132,814.327 134,92.71.25 118,249.241 73,542.288 4,71,022.480 128,228.279 118,249.241 73,542.288 4,71,022.480 128,228.279 118,249.241 73,542.288 4,788.259 40,267.673 4,855.907 63,496.354
1917.	##. T78. 552,949,975 387,330,124 11,214,573,627 233,412,218 233,412,218 237,269,006 390,963.855 60,075,544 128,713.352 455,907.781 365,405.184 961,635.745 2,332,322.770 2,332,322.770 2,532,322.770 2,532,322.770 144,744,215 172,239,036 172,239,036 172,239,036 172,239,036 172,339,036 163,73,168 5,373,168 69,373,168 69,373,168 69,373,168 69,373,168 69,602,291 60,600.291
1916.	385,522.199 381,056.837 11,324,517.645 222,535.685 313,699.562 479,835,506 61,343,474 132,884,542 592,709,451 126,880,535 1,124,792.902 2,222,722,726.891 192,719.013 55,162.683 126,880,535 55,162.683 126,890,535 55,162.683 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,890,535 126,927,260 81,230.086 3,845,477 345,744,445 50,271,206
PORT.	Nanking Chinkiang Shanghai Shanghai Soochow Hangehow Ningpo Wenchow Santuao Foochow Amox Swatow Canton Kowloon Railwax Collection Lappa Kowloon Railwax Collection Lappa Kowloon Railwax Collection Canton Canton

VALUE OF DIRECT FOREIGN TRADE OF EACH PORT, 1919 AND 1920.

		1919.			1920.	
PORT.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
	Hl. 1710	HI, ','	Hl. TI.	Hl. TII.	111, 111	HE 778.
Arctive	11 N. 1 US.	777 010	807 110	51 166	0 220 970	962 882 6
SANGUM	16,201	1 661 565	1 678 533	30,400	533,210	572,526
MANCHOTT	1 579 836	1,00T,000 5,055,000	6 828 080	2 27, 469	4 990 930	7 591 699
-,	53.106	650.361	703.467	289.588	283.870	573,458
DISTRICT SUIFENHO	11,391,547	6,492,338	17,883,885	4,458,689	5,734,574	10,193,263
HUNCHUN	709,312	377,912	1,087,224	240,607	201,311	771,918
LUNGCHINGTSUN	2,234,406	1,080,972	3,315,378	1,647,436	593,585	2,241,021
Antung	31,603,758	20,914,189	52,517,947	33,615,108	19,197,302	52,812,410
TATUNGKOW	11,768	29,995	41,763	6,640	2,318	8,958
DAIREN	89,521,323	108,569,533	198,090,856	71,040,883	111,322,789	182,363,672
NEWCHWANG	6,086,955	10,486,529	16,573,484	7,105,140	3,219,264	10,324,404
CHINWANGTAO	3,369,663	3,549,105	6,918,768	2,501,459	4,605,211	7,106,670
Tientsin	66,882,879	27,526,379	94,409,258	69,854,893	18,245,320	88,100,213
LUNGKOW	5,197	284,222	289,419	4,319	219,954	224,273
CHEFOO	4,439,760	5,491,529	9,931,289	4,808,362	8,845,825	13,654,187
KIAOCHAO	17,543,367	25,460,149	43,003,516	20,694,474	19,316,608	40,011,082
CHUNGKING	674,586	331,388	1,005,974	543,447	174,360	717,807
WANHSIEN	15,183	5,329	20,512	29,970	5,340	35,310
ICHANG	288,056		288,056	542,442	1	542,442
SHASI	227,507	126	227,633	443,677	212	445,889
CHANGSHA	2,566,711	1,617	2,568,328	1,884,521	2,750	1,887,271
Yосноw	2,097		2,097	8,402		8,402
HANKOW	37,458,744	14,487,606	51,946,350	42,916,391	11,342,818	54,259,209
Kitkiang	1,508,085	1,146	1,509,231	2,127,535	1,427	2,128,962
Weff	2,248,978	1,112,257	3,361,235	2,305,725	651,567	2,957,292
NANKING	3,120,556	6,759,529	9,880,085	4,411,399	6,648,383	11,059,782
CHINKIANG	3,800,175	540,719	4,340.894	5,614,557	287,009	5,901,566
SHANGHAI	261,701,074	259,728,759	521,429,833	383,917,526	193,795,412	577,712,938
Soochow	49,945	1	49,945	43,024	'	42,024
				3)	Continued on next	(Jodde.)

VALUE OF DIRECT FOREIGN TRADE OF EACH PORT, 1919 AND 1920. (Continued).

		1919.			1920.	
PORT.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
Намесном	Hk. Tls. 146,476	Hk. 118.	Hk. Tls. 146,476	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tis.	Hk. Tls.
NINGPO	3,126,431	3,670	3,130,101	3,121,325	2,018	3,123,343
WENCHOW SANTHAO	21,162	6,984	28,146	7,647	00	7,655
Foothow	5,396,808	4,704,786	10,101,594	3,838,437	4,939,023	8,777,460
AMOX	9,285,995	1,828,372	11,114,367	9,139,563	2,476,295	11,615,858
SWATOW	51,121,914	64,676,057	95,797,971	32,509,218	13,950,507	25,291,863
Kowloon	21,855,769	15,135,616	36,991,385	20,476,342	14,839,144	55,315,486
", RAILWAY TRAFFIC	1,968,465	825,827	2,794,292	2,867,433	1,372,815	4,240,248
LAPPA	7,933,466	5,170,602	13,104,068	12,724,715	5,065,092	17,789,807
NonGMOON	2,503,031	1,086,766	9 068 778	5,115,621 9 408 776	1,454,106	6,569,727
Wuchow	11,276,891	5.583,155	16,860,046	11,838,349	5 914 115	17 752 464
NANNING	746,115	1,826,527	2,572,642	668,853	1.773,756	2,442,609
KIUNGCHOW	2,559,058	2,577,474	5,136,532	2,911,346	2,300,449	5,211,795
Ракноі	1,802,994	1,964,513	3,767,507	1,962,009	2,090,542	4,052,551
LUNGCHOW	68,789	13,830	82,619	63,878	24,844	88,722
MENGISZ	8,526,807	9,886,638	18,413,445	9,620,901	12,252,083	21,872,984
TENGYUEH	3,505,271	2,029,375	5,534,646	4,042,570	1,605,280	5,647,850
TOTALHk. Tls.	679,529,544	630,809,411	1,310,338,955	799,960,206	541.631.300	1.341.591.506
Re-exports abroad from Shang-	11,296,232			15,254,376		
Re-exports abroad from all	21,235,631			22,455,600		
the other Ports						
Total Re-exports	52,531,863	630,809,411	32,531,863 1,277,807,092	37,709,976	541,631,300	37,709,976 1,303,881,530

FOREIGN TRADE OF CHINA:

IMPORIS (GROSS) AND EXPORTS FOR 1918, 1919, AND 1920.

Grouped According to the Plan for a Common Nomenclature Adopted by the International Conference on Commercial Statistics Held at Brussels 1910.

IMPORTS.

э т.	RADE	SIAI	-601161	-IMIF OR	TD.			
Value.	Hk. Tls.	103,094 102,000 2,346	9,459 131,344 5,183	5,026		1.1	341,814	37,917
Quantity.		1,262 3,422 333	3,114 10,957 14,079	4,193		1 1	1	11,550 1,086 1,24
Value.	Hk. Tls.	14,409	8,390 160.264 2,708	3,633		11	406,304	11,550
Quantity		523	2,893 15,218 18,174	5,537		11	1	285
Value.	Hk. Tls.	18,955 60,893 180	9,814 31,753 5,898	2,948		11	411,232	73 2,111 285
Quantity.		2,685	3,067 3,289 39,171	2,226		1 1	1	
Cuantity.		No.	, , ,	•		Piculs "	Value	Piculs
	I.—Living Animals.	1. Horses 2 Cattle 3	5. Pigs 6. Poultry 7. Other United Animals (including Mulas	Fish and Crustacea)	II.—FOOD AND BEVERAGES.	8. Meat, Fresh 9. Poultry and Game, Dead 10. Meat, Prepared or Preserved (includ-	ing Lard and Preserved Poultry and Game)	11. Fats, Edible
	Quantity. Value. Quantity Value. Quantity.	Quantity, Value. Quantity Value. Quantity. Hk. Tls.	Cattle No. Cattle No. Cattle Cattle	Catale Character Catale Catale Catale Catale Character Character Character Catale Catale Character C	Heartest Palue Quantity Value Quantity Value Palue Quantity Value Value	Horses Catale C	Horses	Heart Fresh Picules Picules

-		•				
Classifier of	1918.	18.	16	1919.	16	1920.
Quantity.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		HI MI		נוזי יווי		111. 111.
Jozons	400 063	760 250	464 693	858 997	101 690	11 K. 1 US.
Diculs	1	202,00	22,551	572,068	44 817	913 709
	14.757	566.209	8 293	577, 563	11,010	570 318
	2,556	137,225	1.536	60.871	1.470	67.243
Value	1	109,338	. 1	15,543	î	64,572
Piculs	1,450,960	12,615,182	1,416,028	11,253,572	1,757,455	13,361,596
Pieces	2,378,071	19,974	1,335,534	12,464	2,193,817	17,894
rems	2,010	016,12	1,041	1.4,048	1,410	03,010
Piculs	46	248	20	88	5,429	33,304
:	1	1	-	9	-	1
	4,901	25,305	7,212	34,719	7,472	40,107
	22	73	292	1,119	10,153	29,791
	43,455	86,874	3,881	7,899	33,249	82,195
_						
• 60	17,872		13,975	137,477	217,952	706,415
33	6,984,207	22.778.143	1,809,905	8.301,052	1.163.519	5,477,444
:	144,384	722,051	272,683	1,249,965	521,085	2,383,629
	1	-	1	1	1	1
Piculs	3,428	29,965	8,100	76.275	10,315	73,356
3.3	71.872	948,205	74,444	796.862	78,193	962,756
3.5	94,864	308,471	99,631	263,103	124,746	428,721
33	413,760	1.214,598	128,419	397,741	147,335	477,769
	701.836	3,473,291	180,562	965,179	202,808	1,141,831
3.3	2,093	4,108	6,581	7,608	7,861	17,120
	547,448	2,378,341	518,187	1,870,563	672,236	2,902,286
Jatties	6,341,849	1,181,545	808,625	165,923	459,913	92,706
Piculs	3,392	78,799	405	21,720	143	6,840
* And Dried Vegetables.	t-	0		idnuts.	0.00	
Dozens Dozens Piculs Piculs Piculs "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" ""		2,7	2,7	Quantity. Value. 400,063 Hk. Tls. 400,063 T60,250 14,757 566,209 2,556 12,6125 1,450,960 12,613,182 2,378,071 19,974 2,378,071 27,975 46 248 4,901 25,305 5 86,874 17,872 126,425 5,984,207 722,051 74,384 722,051 71,872 39,965 71,872 39,474 413,760 1,214,598 70,836 3,473,291 70,836 3,473,291 70,93 3,473,291 70,93 3,473,291 70,93 3,473,341 5,341,349 1,181,545 5,341,849 1,181,545 7,878,341 1,87,799	Quantity. Value. 400,063 Hk. Tls. 400,063 T60,250 14,757 566,209 2,556 12,6125 1,450,960 12,61322 1,378,071 19,974 2,378,071 19,974 4,901 25,305 5 86,874 17,872 126,425 5,984,207 722,051 7,345 39,965 71,872 22,778,143 144,384 1,214,598 70,836 3,473,291 3,095 3,473,291 5,341,349 1,181,545 5,341,849 1,181,545 3,392 78,799	Quantity. Value. Quantity. Value. 400,063 760,250 464,623 858,227 14,757 566,209 8,293 377,563 2,556 177,225 1,536 60,871 1,450,960 12,615,182 1,416,028 11,253,572 2,578,071 19,374 1,535,534 12,644 4,901 27,975 1,344 14,849 45,455 86,874 3,881 7,899 17,872 126,425 3,881 7,899 17,872 126,425 13,975 1,119 43,455 86,874 3,881 7,899 17,872 126,425 13,975 1,249,965 5,428 72,016 22,778,143 1,899,305 8,301,052 144,384 722,051 272,683 1,249,965 71,872 3,473,291 180,562 965,103 413,760 1,214,998 1,234,965 1,244,44 701,836 3,473,291 180,562 16,581

The average value of the Hk.Tl. was as follows: 1918: 5/3 To and G.S. 1.26; 1919: 6/4 and G.S. 1.89; 1920: 6/9; and G.S. 1.24.

			0.0																	
1920.	Value.	Hk. Tls.	169,796	950,958	2,375,743	(15,858		12,495,618	2,740,566	1,025,294	2,289,915	226,198	194,954		896.294	263,793	267,903	1,019,509	454,547	277,471 catties,
	Quantity.		587,870	47,865	107,700	800,108		1	1	1	1	-	1		298 98	104,400	. 1	846,913	17,405	7.18, 2.324,112; in 1920, 277,471 catties,
1919.	Value.	Hk. Tls.	281,841	1,528,506	2,186,356	103,131		11,984,278	2,178,307	943,258	1,748,277	208,518	243,244		1 320 261	218,504	399,435	1,042,899	253,318	
13	Quantity.		802,839	81,762	100,375	974,088		1	-	1	1	1	1		35 949	92,819	1	1,142,417	19,383	269,718 catties, value Hk.
1918.	Value.	Hk. TIS	407,718	993,675	1,946,116	764,084		12,697,419	1,537,695	1,133,700	1,861,383	166,742	113,474		1 000 411	188.437	463,616	770,244	258,171	1919, 269,718 ca
	Quantity.		755,536	50,291	86,041	926,303	1	1	-	1		1			292 02	67.987	1	846,741	11,231	4,010,497 in
Classifier	Quantity.		Pounds	Piculs	Piculs	Gallons	1	Value	2000 4	33					D:070	Catties	Value	Piculs		value Hk.718.
	DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.		38. Cocoa, Prepared (including Chocolate).	35. Tea		42. Oils, Vegetable	44. Other articles of food (including	70	4r Wines		47. Spirits as beverages (Spirits of Wine, Brandy, Liqueurs, etc.)	48. Waters, Spring and Mineral, Natural or Artificial, Gaseous or otherwise.	49 Other beverages (Juice of Citrons and Oranges, Lemonade, etc.)	III.—Materials, Raw or Prepared.	~	5: Ivery			54. Hair and Feathers	* Including Gin eng (in 1918, 359 447 catties, value Hk.71s, 4,010,497; in 1919,

Fig. 1. 1919, 424,209 (in 1918, 239.47 cattles, value III. 18, 431.59 (in 1920, 1931), and saw-of and Agaragar (in 1918, 765.55 piculs, value III. 1819, 424,209 picu

The arecings value of the H&T. reas as follows: 1918, 5/3 To and G.S. 1.36; 1919; 6/4 and G.S. 1.39; 1920; 6/99, and G.S. 1.24.

IMPORTS.—Continued.

1918. 1920.	Quantity. Value. Quantity. Value.	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	148,668 308,299 258,576 576,124 187,326 471,156 37,229 225,916 76,000 375,930 92,554 367,745 4,303 2,291 50 31 — 47,745 258,034 57,312 615,430 202,775 352,364 119,463 274 316 39 — 67,312 67,312 119,463 274 316 39 — 67,845 119,463 119,463 4,623 28,137 — 674 904 904 970 57,844 68,904 29,543 51,682 9,445 5,337 11,766,715 28,321 12,346 358,026 8,951,497 493,941 11,766,715 28,321 1,878,780 114,955 6,907,551 53,219 2,715,323 10,0455 678,524 1,104,718 6,998 307,866 1,093 7,739 1,047,281 6,998 307,866 1,004,567 75,388
Cla	Description of Goods.	Plants, Living Fodder (includ Bran Oil-cake Hops Beetroot, Suga Seeds India-rubber Resin, Gum, et Trobacco Timber of all Timber Charcoal Charcoal	69. Uye-woods, Tanning Bark, and other colouring and tanning maeterials "" 68. Wood Pulp """ 70. Iron Till Lead """ 72. Xinc """ 74. Manganese """ 75. Manganese """ 76. Common Metals :

IMPORTS.—Continued.

						•			
	1920.	Value.	Hk. Tls. 150,464 5,828,303	313,003 214,554 26,798 60,976,905	15,324,038 — 1,887,570 137,952	453,666 18,476,726	280,531 — 11,498,811	71 180	3,184,537 1,311,581 1,547,047 28,018,029
	1	Quantity.	14,685 359,611	15,091	1,341,519	695,938	22,520	12 050	3.395,780 1.563,174 1,736,931 9,001,944 1230: 6/95 and G.S. 1.26,
	1919.	Value.	$Hk.\ Tls.$ 201,994 2,482,889	188,605 154,635 28,097 53,156,409	13,042,186 	229,610 6,870,674	436,167 	730 Az	
	16	Quantity.	17,784		1,523,231	251,631	29,813	713	83,797
	1918.	Value.	Hk. Tls. 65,312 2,138,014	282,858 146,527 6,463 32,147,072	13,118,288 — 994,080 122,000	250,355	248,647	7.50	3.101.663 1,067.730 1,124.384 5,204.079 1.36; 1919: 6/
THE CTATES:	16 Quantity.		5,171	3,943	1,118,481 	199,929	16,515	2 448	65,165 ————————————————————————————————————
7777	Classifier of	Quantity.	Piculs ",	Value "Piculs Value	Tons — Piculs	Value Piculs	Piculs Value	Dianle	Value Piculs Value ,,,
	DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.		8: Zinc Metals Other Metols Stones, crude or cut, but not	mounted (including Coral and Fine Pearls) 24. Marble and Alabaster 25. Other Stones 86. Oils, Mineral, and their derivates	87. Coal and Coke	H	94. Jute 95. Hemp and Flax 95. Ramie and other textile fibres 97. Other Materials	IV.—MANUFACTURED PRODUCTS.	99. Soap Total Soap Total Tota

	DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier	1	1918.	11	1919.		1920.
		Quantity.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
				Hk. Tls.		Hk. Tls.		Hk. Tls.
103	Chemical products (including Alcohol	Value	-	1,285,825	!	1,632,761		2,391,476
104.	Medicines	11.7%	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	5,320,363	1 20	5,880,614	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	6,994,791
105.	Cigars and Cigarettes Tobacco, other kinds (including Ex-	Mulle	7,60,03,03	40,020,024	7,945,451	72,334,120	8,229,830	00,011,00
	tracts of Tobacco)							
107	~	Pieces Dionle	1,998,826	9777 953	2,062,725	921,218	956,372	8,026,980
103	Shoes and Boots, Leather	Pairs	916,940	2,909,668	414,818	1,425,537	189,181	581,137
11).	Gloves, Leather	6 2	9,978	4,818	11,768	10,664	10,423	15,252
111.	Leather, other manufactures	V atue Piculs	3.743	874,461	3.990	1,045,666	6,438	1,227,167
113	Silk	1	: 1				`	707 000
114.	., Cotton	Value	1	59,146,161	1	79,134,082	1	84,507,676
115	,, Jute		1		-			1
116.	Hemp, Flax, Ramie, and other		-	MA-CHICAGO AND			1	
117	Cordson textile libres	Piculs	52,316	667,221	74,639	1,018,656	64,819	746,083
118.	ods.	Value	`	5,055,769	`	6,473,656		10,509,028
116.	", Silk, Natural or Artifici-	;		2,725,005		2,969,728	1	2,240,412
120	Cotton	:	1	100,178,307	1	141,980,116		170,864,279
121.	Fabrics of Jute		1	1	1	1	1	
122.	" Hemp, Flax, Ramie, and	Value	1	2,526,991	1	4,159,414	1	4,073,494
				001				770 017
193.	Embroideries, Lace, and Trimmings	33	1	668,568		599,804	1	200,911
	* including Wool and Cotton Unions (in 1918, value III: 778, 2,389,455; in 1919, value III: 778, 5,582,777, in 1920, value III: 778, 5,544,934)	8, value IIk.	TTs. 2,382,455;	in 1919, value	Hk. Tls. 3,582.	value Hk. 778, 2,382,455; in 1919, value Hk. 778, 3,582.737, in 1920, value Hk. 778, 6.59	due Hk. Tls.	6,544,934)

| Including Silk and Cotten Ribbons (in 1918, value III. Ths. 63,612; in 1919, value III. Ths. 214,366; in 1920, value III. Ths. 137,499), The average value of the III. was as follows: 1918: 5/8/16, and G.S. 1.26; 1919: 6/4 and G.S. 1.39; 1920: 6/92 and G.S. 1.2h.

1920.	Value.	Hk. Tls. 1,110,015 811,854	5,715,575	1,687,046 2,041,799 262,119	14,404,650	612,640 141,609	1	222,014	965,424	314,044 3,495,331	1,642,244	19,854,288 26,763,803
11	Quantity.	601,587	l	1	1 1	111	1	2,810,109	1	305,882	1	3,874,015
1919.	Value.	$Hk.\ Tls.$ 1,933,798 214,014	6,190,187	1,580,407 1,609,241 302,934	10,860,211	480,186 91,609	1	461,979	1,291,748	2,055,880	981,596	14,309,790 26,007,126
1	Quantity.	1,929,019	l	1				6,533,470		239,054	1	2,748,355
1918.	Value.	Hk. Tls. 1,959,619	5,407,015	790,835 1,159,694 211,723	7,430,297	412,487	1	528,759	1,258,905	1,511,598	898,085	21,772,757
16	Quantity.	1,968,563	1	1	1	111	-	8,190,654	1	156,985	1	1,155,547
Classifier	Quantity.	Dozens Piculs	Value			Value ",	1	Pieces	Value	Boxes	Value	Piculs Value
DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.		124. Hosiery			_					Looking Class,		147. Iron and Steel Bars, Rods, Plates, etc. Piculs 1,155,547 10,981,464 2,748,355 14,309,790 3,874,015 148 , other manufactures Value 7 the appraisance of the IRET, was as follows: 1918: 518.5, and 638 196: 1919: 611, and 638 196: 611, and 638 196: 611, and 638

	DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier	16	1918.	18	1919.	16	1920.
		Quantity.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
				Hk. Tls.		Hk. Tls.		Hk. Tls.
149.	Manufactures of Aluminium	Piculs	240	39,953	1,759	286,769	1,038	70,023
150. 151.	", Copper	Piculs	10,329	409,369	32,392	996,629	63,757	1,454,576
152	,, Nickel	Piculs	15,978	208,750	19,621	177,067	13,833	168,215
155.	Jewellery, Goldware and Silverware,	:	0,401	0,00	3,00,6	1	11,402	7,100
L	metals	. Value	1	41,711	1	59,301	1	108,812
150.	Jewellery, other kinds (including gold, silver, or nickel plated)		}	231,160	1	286,247	1	308,338
157	Machinery:— Locomotives and Tenders	Value	1	732,424		10,426,470		3,431,922
158	Road Engines	, , ,	1	407	ı	48,701	-	3,659
159.	Electrical Machines and Apparatus Propelling Machinery (other than	33		4,808,355	1	6,110,028	-	8,404,316
	ves, Road E					O Climinadadis		
	mps, etc	,,	phonone	757,469	-	1,640,303		2,376,122
161	ools	33		349,108	[499,853		761,073
162.	Machines: Weaving, Trimming, Bleaching, Printing; for Dyeing							
	4							
	Looms and other machinery used in the textile industry	•		1,808,887		3,905,821		7,060,094
163.	Machines (Hand or Treadle): Sewing. Embroidering, and Knitting.	:	1	311.228	ı	628,840	1	1,048,596
	The average value of the Hk.Tl. was as follows: 1913; 5/376 and G.S. 1.26; 1919; 6/4 and G.S. 1.39; 1030; 6/92 and G.S. 1.24.	ollows 1918: 5	13 7 and G.	8 1.26; 1919: 6	14 and G.S 1.	.89; 1920: 6/92	and G.\$ 1.24.	

Classifier 1918. 1920.	Quantity. Quantity. Value Quantity. Value. Quantity. Value.	Hk. Tls. Hk. Tls.	Value — 19,352 — 3,271 ", — 167,506 — 524,739 ", — 5,019,367 — 8,417,416	,, 00,,200	Value 2,011,998 —	,, — 1,537,404 — 2,510,041 — ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,	377.887 — 528,609 — 1,	,,, 274,081 — 365,181 —	D	Value 14,169,581 2,652,419 2,552,519 2,552,519 2,552,519 2,552,519 2,552,519 2,552,519 2,552,519	(7.088 13,521,202 4,686,509 17,194,369 5,575,912 8,818,607 3,	Value – 25,061,351 – 36,165,908	Dijects of art and for collections
	Quantity.	Hk. T3		1					357.008	4 221	13,521,202	2	-
Dana recommend			Machines: Sugar-making and Befining, Distilling, Vinegar-making, Brewing, and Malting Machines, Agricultural other kinds, and Parts of.	16/ Tools				175. Ships and Boats	175. Scientific Instruments and Apparatus.	Arms and Munitions	20	All other manufactured products*	18!. Objects of art and for collections

200,162) and Postal Parcels (in 1918, value Hk. T'lx. 3,357,212; in 1919, value Hk. T'lx. 4,719,542 in 1920, value Hk. T'lx. 4,671,148.

The average value of the Hk.Tl. was as follows: 1918: 6/87,6 and 6.8 1.26; 1919: 6/4 and 6.8 1.39; 1920:

6/93 and G.\$ 1.24.

1920.	Quantity. Value.		23.022,152 — 100,602,785 — 27,944,728 — 25,751,603	977,281,474			
1919.	Value.	Hk. Tls.	32,910.493 49,014,547 18,168,150 13,079,160	792,701,894			
61	Quantity.			1			
1918.	Value.	Hk. Tls.	408,955 22,629,175 819,387 13,495,054	614,996,374			
I	Quantity.			i			
Classifier	Quantity.		Value ","	Hk. Tls.			
DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.		GOLD AND SILVER, UNWROUGHT, AND GOLD AND SILVER COINS.	Gold, Unwrought Silver, " Gold Coins Silver "	Total			

182. 183. 184. 125.

EXPORTS.

.000			
1920.	Value.	##. T/ls. 24,444 2,134,199 2,134,199 32,685 2,212,576 705,496 3,274,391 5,374,70	261,301
16	Quantity.	396 57,407 37,183 9,687 297,549 5,290,612 153 321,450 46,160 	104,402 104,402 1.24.
1919.	Value.	Hk. T/s. 26,950 878,082 145,568 20,997 2,269,450 653,806 653,806 16,950 10,295,133	47,953
11	Quantity.	585 54,552 26,705 7,110 302,714 2,947,435 376 381,925 29,709 — — — — — — — — — — — — —	57,084 LS
1918.	Value.	Hk. Tls. 17,183 864,389 1294,389 1294,787 2,143,540 663,255 653,255 4,291,799	35,259
18	Quantity.	28,852 23,714 4,996 259,512 2,875,505 2,875,505 8,028 8,028 1,815,461	34,905 16,794
Classifier	Quantity.	No. "" "" "" Piculs " Piculs Value Piculs Piculs " "	33
Date and Months	DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	1 Horses 2. Cattle 3. Sheep 4. Sheep 6. Poultry 7. Other Living Animals (including Mules and Asses, but not including Living Fish and Crustacea) 11. Fish and Came, Dead 10. Meat, Presh Beverved Poultry and Game) 11. Fats, Edible 12. Margarine and Artificial Butter 13. Margarine and Artificial Butter 14. Butter 15. Cheese 16. Caviare 17. Fish, Crustacea, and Shell-fish 18. Eggs of Poultry and Game 19. Unney 20. Wheat 21. Wheat 22. Wheat 23. Careals:	

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Including Dried Lilv Flowers (in 1918, 24.671 piculs, value Hk. Tls. 295, 282.; in 1919, 25.606 piculs, value Hk. Tls. 298.583; in 1920 31.952 piculs with Tls. 377.175); and Essential Oils (in 1918, 10.860 piculs, value Hk. Tls. 1,432,725; in 1919, 10.699 piculs, value Hk. Tls. 1,169,804; in 1920, 10.699 piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 10.860 piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 10.860 piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 10.860 piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 20.877, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs, value Hk. Tls. 25.757, and Tseential Oils (in 1918, 24.671) piculs 1920: 6/4 and G.\$ 1.89; The average value of the Hk.Tl. was as follows: 1918: 5/876 and G.S 1.26; 1919:

value 15.175

EXPORTS.—Continued.

1920.	Value.	Hk. Tls.	1			16,912,333	ı	1 103 251		7,879,675	43,437	284,821	44,266,471	1	16.380.431		1,141,266	0,379,244	7,460,200	223,280		1
	Quantity.		-			1	1	l	-	1	120	1.791.121	20,468,599	1	3,748,268	1	340,723	010,120	1	184,189		
1919.	Value.	Hk. Tls.		1			19,845,790	1.219.807	1	6,333,451	44,136	2,186,999	47,481,873	1	22,762,117		2,395,009	201,121,1	5,907,301	238,034		1
18	Quantity.		1	1			1		;	;	100 110	1 687 240	22,837,151	1	5,055,857	1	232,337	20,011	1	196,315		1
1918.	Value.	Hk. T'ls.	1	1			20,377,438	861 064		7,617,689	34,705	268,095	31,865,949	1	5.648.180		2,616,970	4,010,002	5,316,320	237,688		1
18	Quantity.		1	1			1	1 1	1	1	100 00	1 223,927	17,621,431	1	1.480.409		219,905	200,000	1	179,767		
Classifier	Quantity.		I	ı			Value	Value	1	Value	D:	Ficus	6 6	1	Piculs	1	Piculs	33	Value	Piculs		1
DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.		10 WAton Coming Mineral Motorell		oranges, Lemonade, etc.)	III.MATERIALS, RAW OR PREPARED.	50. Skins, Raw, Preserved, or Tanned, and		52. Bones and Horns	53 Manure (including Chemical Manure)			57 Bran		59. Hops	61. Seeds	India-rubber	63. Resin, Gum, and Vegetable Wax		Timber)	Charcoal	67 Dye-woods, Tanning Bark, and other	The constructing and canning materials

the Hk.TT, was as follows: 1918: 5/8 17 and G.S. 1.26; 1919: 6/4 and G.S. 1.39; 1920: 6/93 and G.S. 1.26.

	DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Quantity.	19	1918.	19	1919.	1	1920.
		Classifier	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
				Hk. Tls.		Hk. Tls.		Hk. Tls.
ω. 9	~	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
69	Ore Copper	1	1	1	1	1		1
5.5	,, Iron	Piculs	6,261,062	1,359,596	10,589,375	2,402,524	11,292,407	2,611,760
70.	y, Lead	•	15,495	49,158	2,270	6,698	39,534	135,766
7.2	Monday	33	6,103	0,230	+0	7	150,729	150,780
74.	other kinds	Piculs	695.085	7.848.544	245 017	1.686.492	530 204	1 633 141
	-				10,01	100000	, , , , ,	1,000,1
75	Aluminium	1	1	1	!		1	1
76.	Copper	Piculs	44,710	833,649	9,153	186,372	3,162	696,62
77.	Tin	3.3	145,817	11,009,067	146,025	8,428,133	189,940	11,098,167
78.	Iron and Steel	33	2,804,024	16,731,097	2,710,231	8,175,024	3,065,365	7,284,348
79.	Nickel	1	1	1	1		. 1	1
89	Lead	Piculs	0,942	122,541	178	1,955	5,455	81,508
81.	Zinc	33	2,129	27,787	1,804	24,198	1,619	13,458
82.	Other Metals	6.6	1,485,750	6,531,258	228,093	1,264,263	391,776	1,568,548
œ.	Frecious Stones, crude or cut, but not							
	mounted (including Coral and Fine	1771		1				
84.	nd Alabaster	anna A		330 361	1	500 007	1	OAE OKE
85.	Other Stones	Piculs	114.430	88.365	820 69	53,405	87 401	59 165
86	Oils, Mineral, and their derivatives	1	1		2006	8 1	101,101	202,000
87:	and Coke	Tons	1,801,632	9,292,733	1.515.943	7.700.681	1 989 290	12,417,172
8	Lime	1	1		2 26 1		1,000,1	
88	:	Piculs	503,091	421,929	170,132	138,969	173,792	141,025
25	Sulphur	1	-	1	1	1	1	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
C	Textiles :	•	0					
00.	W 001	Piculs	368,960	12,238,731	425,291	13,957,517	151,105	5,044,136
34.	SIIK	33	755,557	87,654,561	345,608	113,957,908	229,799	
	The average value of the Hk.Tl. was as follows: 1918. 5/3+7c and C.S. 1.26: 1919. 611, and C.S. 180. 1990. 619.	allows: 1918.	5/87 and G.	8 1.26: 1919 . 6	11. and 6.8 1	10/9 . 1090 . 6/01	and C & 101	

1919: 6/4 and G.S 1.39; 1920: 6/93 and G.S 1.24.

		U	J 13 I	OM	LD	110	211	سدر	D	1 A	11		10	-0.0	-13.	A I	0.1	νŢ	Ď.				01	,	
1920.	Value.	Hk. Tls.	338.035	300,914	1	24,317,477	4,949,734	-	A 502 52A	3,534,148	1	1	240,128		2,315,847		I	310,458	893,825	1	3,957,162		405 070	405,072	
16	Quantity.		10.810	55,887	1	37,453	1	1	000	25,900	Bayeres	Australia	5,595,681		-		1	1		1	281.670		6696	1,0,1	and G.\$ 1.24
1919.	Value.	Hk. Tls.	252,953	278,289	1	23,250,228	4,862,446	1	0000	2,158,082			147,067		1,885,097		1	214,206	736,591	1	3.934, 807	1	220 100	030,170	.39; 1920: 6793
	Quantity.		9.223	41,885	1	39,464	`	1	200 00	717,02	1		4,973,153]	1	1	-	282,227	. 1	5 6/12	0,040	/4 and G.S 1
1918.	Value.	Hk. Tls.	163.427	232,737	1	18,911,247	4,384,945	1	1 015 010	1,915,612		1	117,515		1,408,632		1	163,177	558,248	1	3,037,942		295 099	020,023	6 1.26; 1919: 6
19	Quantity.		5 747	39,917	-	34,559		1	4	14,292		-	1	1	1,235,439			1		1	225.862		705	0,480	5/8 To and 6.8
Classifier of	Quantity.		Piculs		1	Piculs	Value	1		Ficuls Volue		1	Pieces	~	\ Value		1	Value	***	1	Piculs	Ì	Discila	Licats	llows: 1918:
DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.			116. Thread Hemp, Flax Ramie, and other	117. Cordage	Piece Goods, Woollen	119 ,, ,, Silk, Natural or Arti- ficial	120. ,, ,, Cotton	Fabrics of Jute	122. " Hemp, Flax. Ramie, and	other textile abres 123. Embroideries. Lace, and Trimmings		Hats, Trimmed,			128 Dresses, women s					:	100. ,, other kinds including Card- board	Paperware and	137. Books and Music, Engraved or	128. Other products of the graphic arts	"he average value of the Hk.Tl. was as follows: 1918: 5/3 To and G.S. 1.26; 1919: 6/4 and G.S. 1.39; 1920: 6/93 and G.S. 1.24.

101	•	Ŭ	0.0-	0111	~ -	1041	יבע				10,1	. 1 (,,,,	-122		Οī	(TD	•						
1920.	Value.	TT1 M1	ПК. ТІВ.	1	473 253	5,623,664	1	1	1	299,407	615,054	1	1	100,000	1	1		730,949		1	1	ļ	1	
	Quantity.			1	78.851.471	441,431	1	1	1	13,109	157,574	. 1	1 455	1,457	1	1		26,220		1	1	1	1	and G.S 1.24.
1919.	Value.	11, m/s	110. 100.	i	550,453	4,533,052	ı	ı	1	336,889	279,879	.	017 560	700,000	1	1		409,063		1	1	1	1	9; 1920: 6/93
	Quantity.			ì	70,012,507	410,545	1	-	1 :	14,652	48,560	1	0000	2,004	1	-		16,234		1	1	1	-	" and G.\$ 1.5
ග ්	Value.	Hl. Til.	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	1	424,532	2,161,409	1	-		247,376	879,071	1	147 246	2,	}	1		478,920		1	I	1	1	1.26; 1919: 6/
1918.	Quantity.			1	59,812,171	283,214	1		0	9,816	261,853	1	1 332	-	1	1		22,098		1	1	1	1	5/8 7 and G.8
Classifier of	Quantity.			1	Pieces	, Piculs	1	1	1	Piculs	"	1	Diculo		1	1		Catties		1	1	1	1	ollows: 1918:
DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.			139 Articles in marble, plaster, cement,	Floor tiles, and	John Larthenware or Force- lain			144. (rlass, Window		147 Iron and Steel Bars. Rods. Plates etc.		149 Manufactures of Aluminium	" Coppe		. Lead		and similar articles in precious	metals	silvar or night which alotal	Machinery :-		Road Engin	153 Electrical Machines and Apparatus.	the average value of one Hk.Tt. was as follows: 1918: 5/375 and G.S. 1.26; 1919: 6/4 and G.S. 1.39; 1930: 6/33 and G.S. 1.24.

	DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier	Ä	1918.	15	1919.	7	1920.
		Quantity.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
0				Hk. Tls.		Hk. Tls.	-	Hk. Tls.
160.								
	Electrical Machines). Boilers. Tur-							
		1	1	1	1	1	1	1
161.		1	1	1	1	1		1
162.	Weaving,						1	
	Bleaching, Printing; for Dyeing							
	Ribbons,							
	bing, Carding, Dressing, Spin-							
	Looms and							
	used in the textile industry	Value	1	704	1	84	1	169
163	Machines (Hand or Treadle): Sew-							
	ing, Embroidering, and Knitting	1	1	1		ı	1	ı
164.	Machines: Sugar-making and Re-							
	fining, Distilling, Vinegar-making,							
	Brewing, and Malting		1	1	- Anna Anna Anna Anna Anna Anna Anna Ann	•		I
165.	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
166.	", other kinds, and Parts of	Value	1	180,252		59,514	1	61,809
167.		1	-	1	1		1	1
	Vehicles:							
168.	Carriages and Wagons for railways							
	and tramways	1	1	Accounts	1	1	1	1
169.	Motor-cars	1	1	1	1	1	-	1
170.	Motor-cycles and similar vehicles	1	-	1	1	1	Magazina	1
171.		1	1	1	1		1	1
172.	Pag	Volue	-	2.878	1	7 042	1	2.425
173	Shins and Boats			21 405		16.071		7.377
174	Musical Instruments	,		77,100		10,011		
:	The acceptance institute of the HkTl was as follows: 1918, 513.2, and G. & 196, 1919, 61, and G. & 139, 1990, 6191, and G. & 199,	Hours 1918	5/8 1 and G.8	9 . 6161 . 96 1	Land G. 8 1	16/9 . 0601 . 68	and 6.8 19%.	ł
	at an annual property of the common of an income one	TOTAL TANADA	and all all	Times town	# drew cree	2010 . compt 600	Willy Grow Army.	

1920.	Value.	Hk. Tls.	35,228,151 10,015,836 35,241,209 23,699,574	643,816,070
	Quantity.	111111	1111	1
1919.	Value.	Hk. Tls. 73,790 18,945,513 512,672	4,966,276 1,990,592 4,930,153 6,977,826	649,674,258
118	Quantity.		1111	1
1918.	Value.	8,975 	2,264,081 5,457,452 17,578 7,171,850	500,793,992
17	Quantity.	111111	1111	1
Classifier of	Quantity.	Value Value	Value "	Hb. Tls.
Description of Goods.		Scientific Instruments and Apparatus 176. Clocks and Watches, and Parts of 177. Arms and Munitions 179. Gunpowder and other explosives 180. All other manufactured products* 181. Objects of art and for collections V.—Gold And Shiver, Unwrought, and	Gold And Silver Coins. 182. Gold, Unwrought 183. Silver, " 184. Gold Coins " 185. Silver "	TOTAL

* Including Pestal Parcels in 1918, value Hk. 71s. 1,015,039; 1919, value Hk. 71s. 2,266,300; 1920, value Hk. 77s. 1,221,253.

The average value of the Hk.Tl. was as follows: 1918: 5/5 in and G.S. 1.26; 1919: 6/6 and G.S. 1.39; 1920: 6/95, and G.S. 1.25.

VALUE OF DIRECT TRADE WITH EACH COUNTRY, 1916 TO 1920.

			DIME	I INAD.	E WILLI	DITOIL	COUNTRI	. 10
	1920.	Total, Hk. Tls.	005 776 770	14.575,612		6,393,599	2,841,879	24,342,078 14,591,650
	1	Hk. Tls.	159,313,335 136,462,043	9,838,792	3,750,104 2,643,495	179,164	7,803,083	10,565,203
1920.	1919.	Total. Hk. Tls.	005 106 840	9,767,632		4,666,116	3,164,197	21,376,448
01 0161		Hk. Tls.	153,631,544 131,495,296	5,053,426	2,879,927	422,060 2,742,137	10,115,656	6.864,316
111000	1918.	Total. Hk. Tls.	979 179 837	8,812,709		4,552,783	2,367,390	11,156,903
		Hk. Tls.	162,191.816 116,988,021	4,284,993	2,759,281	395,360	10,331.544 6,400,522	8,564,897
	1917.	Total, Hk. Tls.	274 445 434	9,593,561		4,083,900	2,919,931	15,552,644
		Hk. Tls.	158,602,488 115,842,946	4,654,092	2,461,976	553,852	6,877,792	4,515.641
	1916.	Total, Hk. Tls.	272,833,274	8,832,816	000	0,020,001	3,575,936	7,655.058
		Hk. T's.	153,347,624 119,485,650	5,136,244 3,696,572	3,584,751 : 443,830	552,346	4.602,845	5,320,322
	COUNTRY.	HOWOTOWORK	Exports to 119,485,650	Macao : Imports from Exports to	French Indo- China:— Imports from Exports to	SIAM :— Imports from Exports to	SINGAPORE, STRAITS. ETC:— Imports from Exports to	DUTCH INDIES: Imports from Exports to

* The Imports from Hongkong come originally from, and the Exports to that Colony are further carried on to, Great Britain, the Continent of Europe, America, Japan, Australia, India, the Straits, etc., and Coast Ports of China.

VALUE OF DIRECT TRADE WITH EACH COUNTRY, 1916 TO 1920.—(Continued).

1920.	Total. Hk. Tls.	5	41,252,310	19 024 219	177 524 488	00,000,000	3 390 855	5,287,585	7,179,047	nage).
	Hk. Tls.	32,494,059 8,758,251		1,476,650	151,719,952 45,804,356	1,645,937	2,778,294	283,963	5,417,744	Continued on next nage).
1919.	Total. Hk. Tls.	C C L	56,583,118	11 947 887	11,447,001	202,910,121	9 061 777	3.404.762		(Continue
	Hk. Tls.	26,980,705 9,599,413		740,638 10,507,249	64,292,239 57,186,242	314,068 182,275	572,929	183,584 3,221.178	368	
1918.	Total. Hk. Tls.	200 41	14,020,700	z 497 Q15	75 154 889	101	898 6	598,704	163,866	
	Hk. Tls.	7,988,896		380,062	49,890,293 25,264,589	8	9,868	192 598,512	11	-
1917.	Total. Hk. T'!s.	72 020 571	10,303,00	1 484 219	78 078 894	967.469	341.793	1,746,246	20	
	Hk. Tls.	26,989,184 6,950,387		130,717	51,989,135 26,089,759	247,539	340,113	67,424	50	_
1916.	Total. Hk. Tls.	040 447 07	03,044,040	9 948 530	105 971 575	1 100 501	3 037 301	2.288.046	24,820	-
	Hk. Tls.	52,754,841 6,589,999		88,211	70,353,029 34,918,546	1,181,614	1,588,004	2,160,350	24,499	
COUNTRY.	British India :	Imports from Exports to	TURKEY, PERSIA, EGYPT, ADEN, ETC:	Imports from Exports to	GREAT BRITAIN :— Imports from Exports to	Norway:— Imports from Exports to	Sweden: — Imports from Exports to	DENMARK:— Imports from Exports to	Germany : Imports from Exports to	

VALUE OF DIRECT TRADE WITH EACH COUNTRY, 1916 TO 1920.-(Continued).

		DIREC:	TRAD	E MITI	1 EACH	COUNTR	X Y .	1019	
1920.	Total. Hk. Tils.	14,322,510	8.242.881	25,2.2.2.2		64,114	3.542.910	5,860,332	(e).
1	Hk. Tls.	3,757,383	4,969,994	4,878,519 21,016,444	18,940 45,174	1,020	3,481,930	341,934 5,518,398	(Continued on next page).
1919.	Total.	1,869,605	4.215.973	27 661 708		4,700	976.976	6,135,848	(Continued
1	Hk. Tls.	111,030	228,761	5,375,809	3,205	479	15,838	991,556	
1918.	Total. Hk. Tls.		1	32 038 535		21,061	13.700	9,991,454	
	Hk. Tls.	1,110	1	1,568,858	2,610		13,663	356,674	
1917.	Total. Hk. Tls.	59,981	7.597	07 845 020		21,409	4 357	4,37	
	Hk. Tls.	33,625	7,597	2,309,160	2,130		5,695	467,999	
1916.	Total. Hk. Tls.	1,336,391	7,704	30.099.843		19,355	1,950	6,665,914	
	Hk. Tls.	230,393	7,704	2,837,884	5,397	307	1,468	359,936 6,305,978	
COUNTRY.		NETHERLANDS:— Imports from Exports to	Belgium:— Imports from Exports to	France :— Imports from Exports to	SPAIN (INCLUDING GIBRALTAR:— Imports from Exports to	PORTUGAL: Imports from Exports to	SWITZERLAND:— Imports from Exports to	ITALY:— Imports from Exports to	

VALUE OF DIRECT TRADE WITH EACH COUNTRY, 1916 TO 1920.—(Continued).

	1020		DIRECT	TRADE	WITI	H EACH	COUNTE	RY.	
	1920.	$Totdl.$ $Hk.\ Tls.$	2.363,542	4,848		7,771,255	3,535,815	12,794,806	33,660,117
	,-	Hk. Tls.	2,081,605	238		3,511,835	380,577	5,732,681	10,314,374 23,345,743 .049,404 (Continued on next page)
	1919.	Total, Hk. Tls.	1,031,736	47.612		7.241,120	3,194,544	24,899,586	32,049,404
10 1000		Hk. Tls.	1,031,736	13,199 34,413		1,724,603 5,516,517	95,281	12,228,251	9,431,450
COCINTER, TOTO	.18.	Total, Hk. Tls.	1	718.81		3,406,463	1.858.235	15.714.492	24.142,623
TITOTI COCI	1918.	Hk. Tls.	11	12,734		1,434,106	265.008 1,593,227	4,676,830	10.457,222
TITLE MITTE	1917.	Total Hk. Tls.	1.035	513,492		16,371,789	7.240.055	36.842.905	20,361,940
- 1	1	Hk. Tls.	1,035	35,679		2,933,515	154,193	8,094,348 28 748 557	11,843,006
OF PIREOF	1916.	Total. Hk. Tls.	23.835	4 279 513		27.179.999	4 104 735	55 644.766	15,106,135
VALUE OF	7	Hk. Tls.	23,747	56,696 4,222,617		6,735,186	314,505	18,588,221 37,056,545	8,504,624 6,601,511
	COUNTRY.		AUSTRIA AND HUN- GARY:— Imports from Exports to	Russia, European Ports : Imports from Exports to	RUSSIA & SIBERIA BY LAND FRON-	INER:— Imports from Exports to	Russia, Amur Ports:— Imports from Exports to	Russia, Pacific Ports:— Imports from Exports to	KOREA:— Imports from Exports to

VALUE OF DIRECT TRADE WITH EACH COUNTRY, 1916 TO 1920 .-- (Continued).

1920.	Total Hk. Tls.	371,063,763	3,882,969	21,221,363		210,310,413	8.631	- 23
	Hk. Tils.	129,135,866	1,498,024	20,182,100	143,198,962 67,111,451		2,081	257,372 196,514 (Continued on next page)
1919.	Total, Hk. Tls.	441,947,029	4,538,165			211,355,383	4 919	
	Hk. Tls.	246,940,997	2,547,911	18,887,366	110,236,706		867	10,493
1918.	Total. Hk. Tls.	402,252,670	5,346,751	14.461.177		135,820,249	200	202,6
1	Hk. Tls.	238,858,578 163,394,092	3,193,524	10,355,562	58,686,044 77,134,205		46	202,589
1917.	Total. Hk. Tls.	327,440,710	5,268,964	11,780,869		155,747,006	43 866	44,543
1	Hk. Tls.	221,666,891	1,706,679	9,094,347	60,960,777 94,786,229		5,178	44,532
. 1916.	Total, Hk. Tls.	273,412,978	3,367,912.	3,407,458		125,904,504,	986	86.542
1	Hk. Tls.	112,922,258	2,292,875	1,539,353	53,823,799 72,080,705		949	86,537
COUNTRY.	JAPAN (INCLUDING	FORMOSA): Imports from 160,490,720 Exports to 112,922,258 PHITEPENE	Islands:— Imports from Exports to	Canada : Imports from Exports to	U.S. OF AMERICA (I N C L. H A- WAII':— Imports from Exports to	MEXICO AND CENTRAL AMERICA (INCLUDING PA	Imports from Exports to	South America :— Imports from Exports to

	1022		DIRECT	TRADE W	ТН	EACH C	COUNTRY.	
	1920.	Total. Hk. Tls.	9 479 036	์ ว	1,0,400		1.303.881.530	
		Hk. Tls.	1,005,236	292	799,960,206	37,709,976	762,250,230 541,631,300	
TO 1926 (Continued).	1919.	Total. Hk. Tls.	0x6 29x 1	L,000,1	49,907		1 977 807 099	
6 TO 1926.		Hk. Tls.	633,782 733,448	49,907	679,529,544	32,531,863	646,997,681 630,809,411	
COUNTRY, 1916	1918.	Total. Ht. Tls.	907 700 0		125,022		040 776 113	
EACH COU	1	Hk. Tls.	956,545 1,340,951	7,464	577,643,803	22,750,721	554,893,082 485,883,031	
DE WITH EACH	1917.	$Total. \ Hk.\ Tls.$	1 619 575	77 77	6,10		1.012,450,404	
DIRECT TRADE		$Hk.\ Tls.$	585,205 1,027,370	15,839 41,891	577,381,339	27,862,565	549,518,774 462,931,630	
VALUE OF DI	1916.	Total, $Hk. Tls.$	299 001 0	Ž,	51,564		998 204 361	
VAI		Hk. 778.	465,772	122	535,268,426	18,861,431	516,406,985	
	COUNTRY.	AUSTRALIA. NEW	ZEALAND ETC:— Imports from Exports to	SOUTH AFRICA (INCL. MAURTIUS):— Imports from Exports to	Total Imports 535,268,426		TOTAL: FOREIGN COUNTRIES Net Imports Exports	

VALUE OF THE WHOLE TRADE OF EACH PORT, 1919 TO 1920.

PORT.	19	19.	19	20.
Aigun :—	$Hk.\ Tls.$	TOTAL OF EACH PORT. Hk. Tts.	Hk. Tls.	TOTAL OF EACH PORT. Hk. Tls.
Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	2,665,460 1,321,397 225,707	4,212,564	716,819 1,397,580 362,426	2,476,825
Sansing: Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese Exports	170,507 189,461 1,852,095	2,212,063	295,300 484,294 4,137,020	4,916,614
Manchouli:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese Exports	* 23,407 5,259,744		* 40,555 4,223,885	4,810,014
HARBIN :— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	‡ 7,373,630 895,984	5,283,151	‡ 10,705,373	4,264,440
SUIFENHO:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,,	10,716,732	8,269,614	4,323,?41	11,368,888
Exports Hunchun:— Net Foreign Imports	6,492,338	17,209,070	5,734,574	10,057,815
Net Chinese ,, Exports Lungchingtsun :—	377,912	964,548	201,311	779,283
Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	2,234,406 1,080,972	3,315,378	1,640,066 — 593,585 ————	2,233,651
ANTUNG:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	31,983,240 3,952,950 25,436,436	61,372,626	34,165,934 3,787,023 25,118,566	63,071,523
TATUNGKOW:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese Exports	28,843 43 38,124		14,407 31,245	
		67,010		45,652

^{*}Excess of Re-exports over Imports: 1919, Hk. Tls. 6.301.383; 1920, Hk. Tls. 5.422,170. -
† Excess of Re-exports over Imports 1919, Hk. Tls. 4,667,445; 1920, Hk. Tls. 4,494,899.

1919 TO 1920.—Continued.

PORT.	19	919.	19	920.
Durane	Hk Tls.	TOTAL OF EACH PORT. Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	TOTAL OF EACH PORT. Hk. Tls.
Dairen:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	89,430,626 16,306,543 105,010,867	210,748,036	70,220,715 8,486,621 125,066,263	007 777 500
New Chwang:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese Exports ,,	11,320,358 11,795,479 18,225,449	210,740,000	15,635,628 16,499,596 13,994,544	203,773,599
CHINWANGTAO :— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,,	4,292,867 1,868,036	41,341,286	3,500,173 2,584,417	46,129,768
Exports TIENTSIN:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,,		15,700,440	11,095,926 89,201,524 39,692,488	17,180,516
Exports LUNGKOW:— Net Foreign Imports	71.,550,033	189,775,934	44,588,530	173,482,542
Net Chinese ,, Exports	1,657,027 838,253	2,802,703	2,768.454 924,149	3,968,089
Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports Kiaochao :—	6,211,841 12.420.572 19,050,724	37,683,137	6,569.397 11.675,480 .19,594,000	37,838,877
Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	20,191,124 8,441.092 38,744,608	67,376,824	25,557,009 9,374.003 32,653.098	67,584,110
CHUNGKING:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	10,388,355 14,517,935 16,666,042		8,867,671 14,006,941 12,554,797	
Wanhsien: Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese Exports	667,812 2,322,788 3,119,513	41,572,332	480,701 1,902,431 1,492,563	35,429,409
	0,110,010	6,110,113	1,492,300	3,875.695

1919 TO 1920.--Continued.

PORT.	19	19.	192	20.
Ichang :	$Hk.\ Tls.$	TOTAL OF EACH PORT. Hk. Tls.	$Hk.\ Tls.$	TOTAL OF EACH PORT. Hk. Tls.
Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	2.129.226	6,045,651	3,336,071 4,816,269 1,001,726	9,154,066
SHASI:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	2,580,647 3,447,511 1,545,390		3,093,506 3,039,223 1,434,822	9,134,000
CHANGSHA:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	3,891,132	7,573,548	11,176,081 4,753,349	7,567,551
Yochow :— Net Foreign Imports	2.744.627	25,011,268	17,044,046 	32,973,476
Net Chinese ,,	4,212,102	10,588,734	4,880,928	11,556,101
Net Chinese ,, Exports Kiukiang :—	22,491,761 124,920,650	200,398,431	23,003,128 88,208,239	169,951,530
Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	9,851,761 9,125,680 24,284,682	43,262,123	13,723,192 10,487,316 24,205,785	48,416,293
Wuhu:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese Exports	10,278,357 6,001,788 31,408,645	10,202,120	11,521,105 7,014,885 21,608,629	10,120,200
Nanking:— Net Foreign Imports	16,821,211	47,688,790	21,323,033 6,978,618	40,144,619
Net Chinese ,,		44,147,091	25,022,045	53,323,696
Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	7,700,077	24,739,141	8,500,951 5,300,380	28,836,607
1		(0	Continued on	next page).

1919 TO 1920.—Continued.

PORT.	19	919.	19	920.
	Hk, Tls .	TOTAL OF EACH PORT. Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	TOTAL OF EACH PORT. Hk. Tls.
Shanghai:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	119,605,093 53,421,955 237,721,719	410,748.767	224,632,688 54,618,144 232,664,201	511.915.033
SOOCHOW:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	3,315,771 1,176,809 18,055,403	22,547,983	4,313,777 1,310,008 12,690,987	18.314,772
Hangchow: Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	4,593,082 2,575,566 11,196,530	18,365,178	5.598,531 4.126,597 10.243,515	19.968,643
NINGPO:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	9,280,864 7,241,819 11,811,577	28,334,260	9.509.952 8.992.952 9.904.980	28,407,884
Wenchow:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese Exports	1,639,789 919,679 1,502,649	4,062,117	1,774,775 1,601,373 1,484,098	4,860,246
Santuao : Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	118,911 172,450 2,027,513	2,318,874	154.769 158.022 1.925.612	2.238.403
FOOCHOW:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	6.581,590 3,219,039 10,939,605	20,740,234	5.149.215 6,131,711 14,331,884	25,612,810
Amov:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	9,411,281 7,774,549 2,590,427		9.865.699 8.664.727 3.768.909	22,299,335
SWATOW:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	15.106.850 24.167,363 19,166.368	19.776,257	27,166,008 12,232,185 24,454,926	
		58,440,581	antinual on	63,853,119

1919 TO 1920.—Continued.

PORT.	19)19.	19	020.
Canton:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	Hk. Tls. 30,067,508 47,073,094 70,812,534	TOTAL OF EACH PORT. Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls. 32,095,248 41,715,054 67,004,015	Total of Each Port. Hk. Tls.
Kowloon:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports Kowloon:—	21,855,769 6,483,372 15,135,616	43,474,757	20,476,342 5,907,509 14,839,144	41,222,995
RAILWAY TRAFFIC. Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	1,966,690 — 825,827	0.700.517	2,867,433 — 1,372,815	4.040.040
Lappa:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	7,933,466 192,195 5,170,602	2,792,517	12,724,715 193,428 5,065,092	4,240,248
Kongmoon:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese Exports	3,298,136 1,086,766	13,296,263	5,134,373 	17,983.235
Samshui :— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	2,724,399 746,477 1,411,038	4,384,902	2,748,284 650,269 1,502,040	6,588,479
Wuchow:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese Exports	8,505,448 2,167,808 6,181,894	4,881,914	9.064.182 3,539,812 6,571,722	4,900,593
Nanning:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	3,904,942 1,108,879 2,972,717	16,855,150 7,986,538	3.736.023 1,477,815 2,772,018	19,175,716 7,985,856
KIUNGCHOW:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	2,553,397 241,086 2,921,611	5,716,094	2,883,858 402,523 2,535,691	5.822,072
			ontinued on	

1919 TO 1920.—Continued.

PORT.	19)19.	19	020.
D	Hk. Tls.	TOTAL OF EACH PORT. Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	TOTAL OF EACH PORT. Hk. Tls.
Pakhoi : Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	1,796,924 29,170 2,009,462	3,835,556	1,958,835 7.403 2,157,026	4,123,314
LUNGCHOW:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,,		3,333,333	63,878	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,
Exports	13,830	82,619	24,844	88,722
Mengtsz:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	8,523,260 548,924 9,886,638	18,958,822	9.601.284 372,776 12,252,083	22,226,143
SZEMAO :— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	189,337 32,997		285,527 61,443	
Tengyueh : Net Foreign Imports	3,505,271	222,334	4,042,570	346,970
Net Chinese ,, Exports		5,534,646	1,605,280	5,647,850
GRAND TOTAL:— Net Foreign Imports Net Chinese ,, Exports	338,649,915 984,361,922	† 1,637,162.362	774,028,744 362,669,149 922,423,028	† 1,696,451,772
Value of Exports abroad Value of Exports, Home Trade	630,809,411 353,552,511	1,001,102.302	541,631,300 380,791,728	1,000,701,112

[†] The figures given here are the sum of the Foreign Imports and Chinese Exports only (Chinese Imports into one port being Exports from another), and consequently represent the whole Trade (exclusive of Re-exports of Foreign Goods to Foreign Ports) carried on with and in China during each year by vessels under the supervision of the Maritime Customs.

RE-EXPORTS OF FOREIGN GOODS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES, 1919, AND 1920.

COUNTRY.	1919.	1920.
	Hk. Tls.	$Hk.\ Tls.$
MACAO	4,269	7,641
FRENCH INDO-CHINA	103,818	525,973
SIAM	35,276	26,552
SINGAPORE, STRAITS, ETC.	288,057	347,312
DUTCH INDIES	156,874	267,172
British India	253,897	591,196
TURKEY, PERSIA, EGYPT, ADEN, ALGERIA,	200,001	001,100
ETC.	40,992	617,658
GREAT BRITAIN		1,754,866
	848,907	10,215
	7 075	45,478
	3,935	
Denmark	3,769	809,598 64,122
GFRMANY	665	,
NETHERLANDS	21,922	96,894
Belgium	1,481,106	27,516
France	168,622	156,063
SPAIN (INCLUDING GIBRALTAR)		1,000
Portugal	_	_
SWITZERLAND		300
ITALY	5,023	29,663
Austria and Hungary	_	24,140
RUSSIA, EUROPEAN PORTS	90,754	accepted.
,, AND SIBERIA BY LAND FRONTIER	8,034,099	8,795,074
,, Amur Ports	2,256,551	2,247,602
,, PACIFIC PORTS	5,357,496	948,362
KOREA	2,156,982	1,708,662
Japan (including Formosa)	5,997,206	7,891,592
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS	99,515	458,889
CANADA	14,100	28,891
United States of America (including	1,100	,
HAWAII)	2,144,730	2,919,077
MEXICO AND CENTRAL AMERICA (INCLUDING	2,177,100	2,010,011
Panama)		_
SOUTH AMERICA		
	E 610	7,018
AUSTRALIA, NEW ZEALAND, ETC.	5,610	415
South Africa (including Mauritius)		410
		=0.400.611
To Foreign Countries direct	29,574,175	30,408,941
,, Hongkong	2,957,688	7,301,035
Total $Hk. Tls.$	32,531,863	37,709,976

TRADE FROM AND TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES, THE PROPORTION BORNE BY EACH SHARE TO THE WHOLE TRADE, WITH STATISTICS OF THE TRANSIT TRADE AT EACH PORT, 1920. THE CARRYING BETWEEN THE OPEN PORTS OF CHINA; AND NATIONALITY IN EACH TAKEN SHARE

Foreign Trade.
Imports.*
Hk. Tls. 73,848,178
5,324,132
9,812,286
780,048
1,385,179
846,445 9,075,234
1,676,781
104,822
72,248,108
799,960,206

goods TV TIV

(original shipments of Chinese goods and reshipments of Chinese and Foreign goods) departing in vessels cleared for Foreign Ports. goods shipped at one Treaty Port for another, i.e., Foreign goods reshipped and Chinese original eargies and reshipments, goods arriving from the other Treaty Ports, i.e., Chinese original cargoes and reshipments and Foreign reshipments.

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		FOR	FOREIGN IMPORT 1	TRADE.	
24 142	TONNAGE INWARDS.	INWARDS.	VALUES.	DUTIES	IES.
Lindo	No. of Entries.	Total Tonnage of Entries.	Foreign Imports	Import Duties.	Tonnage Dues.
American	818	1,616,197	Hk. Tls. 75,848,178	Hk. Tls. 2,348,640,936	Hk. T/s. 307,896.500
British	4,242	4,761,960	317,925,060	10,448,714.675	472,576.800
Danish	14	64,643	5,324,132	84.299.226	16,510.800
Dutch	143	173,562	9,312,286	287,548.732	27,032.400
French	225	334,041	19,781,891	479.853.756	58.389.600
ItalianIta	24	88,402	780,048	29,281.636	19,228.000
Japanese	4,065	4,974,957	287,152,044	8,733,652.124	424,142.600
Norwegian	51	67,979	1,385,179	48,978.278	8,167.600
Portuguese	274	48,160	846,443	31,084.332	803.400
Russian	264	117,636	9,075,234	227,335.543	8,053.600
Swedish	11	35,209	1,676,781	45,189.946	7,861.600
Non-Treaty Powers	34	35,646	104,822	2,963.035	3,425.500
Chinese	21,502	2,277,364	72,248,108	1.550,936.783	26,503.600
TOTAL	31,667	14,584,856	799,960,206	24,318,479.002	1,380,592.000

SHARE TAKEN BY EACH NATIONALITY IN THE CARRYING TRADE FROM AND TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES, 1920.—(Continued.)

			FOREIGN EXPORT TRADE	PORT TRADE.		
TA V	TONNAGE	OUTWARDS.		VALUES.		Duties.
FLAG.	No. of	Total Tonnage	Chinese	Re-exports.+	orts.†	Domont Darties
	Clearances	Clearances.	* Exports.	Foreign.	Chinese.	Lapoir Dances
American	820	1,587,737	Hk. Tls. 29,975,405	Hk. Tls. 3,239,435	Hk. Tls. 8,781,023	Hk. Tls. 593,061.712
British	4,151	4,542,806	133,554,371	8,625,173	58,455,143	2,712,272.969
Danish	15	68,876	3,483,119	181,534	277,932	100,946.264
Dutch	164	220,890	6,061,379	232,493	726,866	150,417.898
French	233	326,687	19,067,076	566,577	3,899,170	293,016.429
Italian	23	85,629	1,063,628	44,939	1,608,659	20,853.608
Japanese	4 000	4,948,979	172,214,511	11,533,229	35,684,213	4,013,321.850
Norwegian	57	63,850	880,533	10,015	32,209	24,640.400
Portuguese	273	47,715	697,544	5,424	1,999	14,555.639
Russian	245	107,678	11,374,335	11,017,006	947,410	228,984.812
Swedish	11	35,209	1,779,726	48,189	326,038	49,867.812
Non-Treaty Powers	32	36,565	160,647	5,008	34,007	5,379.105
Chinese	20,107	2,195,650	45,475,342	2,200,954	5,068,925	782,588.938
Total	30,131	14,268,271	425,787,706	37,709,976	115,843,594	8,989,907.436

* Original shipments direct.

† Reshipments direct.

SHARE TAKEN BY EACH NATIONALITY IN THE CARRYING TRADE, &c. (Continued).

	Total Tonnage	Dwes.	HE. T78. 227,677,900 605,072,864 18,098,400 55,380,400 59,408,900 19,304,700 524,014,000 1,056,500 24,880,780 22,800 7,861,600 4,178,300	1,791,743.960
	Total Duties,	Foreign and Coast Trade.	7.089,944,990 18,265,148,07 186,799,404 439,549,949 793,949,273 50,137,244 14,234,367,355 168,568,571 45,557,937 536,768,176 8,482,640 7,641,921,688	45,556,149.792
DUTIES.	COAST TRADE.	Import and Half Duties.	778. 28,416.080 1,366,413.121 1,553.314 547.829 8,073.419 445.223.882 13,003.659 14,451.159 ————————————————————————————————————	3,361,835.140
TOTAL DUTIES	Coas	Export Duties.	119,826,262 3,737,744,042 6,737,744,042 0,600 13,005,669 1,042,169,499 81,946,234 13,310 65,996,662 95,000 3,824,293,446	8,885,928.214
	TRADE.	Export Duties.	767. 778. 2,712.272.969 100,946.264 150,417.898 293,016.429 20,853.608 4,013,532.608 4,013,532.850 24,640.400 14,555.639 228,984.812 49,867.812 5,379.105	8,989,907.436
	FOREIGN TRADE.	Import Duties.	778. 2,348,640,936 10,448,714,675 84,299,226 287,548,732 479,853,756 29,281,636 8,733,652,124 48,978,278 31,084,532 227,535,543 45,189,946 2,963,035	24,318,479.002
	FLAG.		American British Danish Dutch French Italian Japanese Norwegian Portuguese Russian Spanish Swedish Non-Treaty Powers Chinese	Total

SHARE TAKEN BY RACH NATIONALITY IN THE CABBYING TRADE &c (Continued)

		Total Dues and Duties.	7.22 39.85 0.43 1.80 1.80 0.15 0.15 0.10 1.19 0.02 16.46	100.00
Continuea).	Revenue.	Tonnage Dues.	18.29 33.77 1.01 1.97 3.31 1.08 29.25 0.74 0.06 1.39 0.23 8.46	1.00.00
(ADE, &c. (Duties on Cargoes.	6.78 40.09 0.41 0.96 1.74 0.11 31.25 0.37 0.10 1.18 0.02 16.78	100.00
SHAKE TAKEN BY EACH NATIONALITY IN THE CARKTING TRADE, &c. (Conginued).		Total Foreign and Coast.	4.98 39.74 0.32 0.58 1.56 0.12 24.17 0.37 0.06 1.43 0.01 26.53	100.00
PERCENTAGES	TRADE.	Coast Trade.	1.93 41.66 0.01 0.01 0.15 12.97 0.55 0.62	100.00
MALLIE		Foreign Trade.	8.40 37.60 0.67 1.22 3.14 0.25 36.73 0.11 2.35 0.02 9.06	100.00
ACH NAIL	Tonnage.	Tonnage employed.	4.52 58.67 0.18 0.54 0.54 0.19 27.04 0.0 0.0 0.07 26.52	100.00
KEN BI E	Toni	Total Trips.	2.63 18.78 1.04 0.20 0.15 11.94 0.22 0.22 0.22 0.26 0.03 64.28	100.00
SHAKE 1A	FLAG.	,	American British Danish Dutch French Italian Japanese Norwegian Portuguese Russian Swedish Non-Treaty Powers Chinese	TOTAL

TRANSIT TRADE.

	VALUE	VALUE OF TRANSIT TRADE.	RADE.		VALUE	VALUE OF TRANSIT TRADE	FRADE.
PORT.	Inwards.	Outwards.	Total.	PORT.	Inwards.	Outwards.	Total
	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tils.	Hk. Tls.		Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
Sansing	3,128	1	3,128	Chinkiang	8,401,207	575,226	8,976,433
Harbin District :-				Shanghai	11,095,846	29.590.115	40,685,961
Manchouli	ļ	2,370	2,370	Southow	212,141	1	212,141
Harbin	13,899	.	13,899	Hangchow	332,635	1	332,635
Suifenho	8,980		8,980	Ningpo	1.010.290	1	1,010,290
Lungchingtsun	16,870	l	16.870	Wenchor	152.830	1	152.830
Antung	783,561	1	783,561	Santuan	111,845	4,001	115,843
	2,165,464	15,082	2,180,546	Foochow	759,988	81,170	841,158
Newchwang	3,079,742	8,550	3,088,292	Amoy	970,229	133.180	1,103,409
Chinwangtao	2,059,569	522,331	2,581,900	Swatow	303,47	9,863	313,333
Tientsin	30,262,522	17,695,791	47,958.313	Carton	773,705	1	773,705
Chefoo	537	1	527	Kongmoon	110,253		110,253
Kiaochao	218,474	15,039	233,513	Samshui	115.262	1	115,262
Chungking	1,005,819	49,834	1,055,653	Wuchow	73.878	1.307,736	1,381,614
Wanhsien	93	-	26	Nanning	244,024	104,159	348,183
Ichang	116,320	1	116,320	Kiri.g. how	231.885	309,390	541,278
Shasi	32,767	-	32,7767	Pakhoi	42,166	í	42,166
Changsha	21,557	1	21,557	Lungchew	43,501		43,501
Yochow	158,648	1	158,648	Mengtsz	7.421.970	214,723	7,636,693
Hankow	5,103,423	318,285	5,421,708	Szemao	236,538	1	236,538
Kiukiang	771,318	1,306,282	2,077,600	Tenggueh	2,086,123	770,890	2,857,013
Wuhu	0,072,879	AZ 075	1 879 870	Total 11/1	00 AEA 011	62 077 000	62 077 009 141 629 903
Nanking	1,020,000	70,010	T,012,000	TOTAL THE TOTAL	ij	20,110,00	141.356.200

EACH NATIONALITY IN THE CARRYING TRADE BETWEEN THE OPEN PORTS OF CHINA. ВҮ TAKEN SHARE

			COAST	COAST TRADE OUTWARDS	ARDS.		
\ \frac{1}{2}	TONNAGE OUTWARDS.	UTWARDS.		VALUES.		DUTIES	TES.
FLAG.	No. of	Total Tonnage	Chinese	Re-exports.	ports.	Daniel Duties	Tomagae Duce
	Clearances.	Clearances.	Exports.	Chinese	Foreign.	Export Duries.	1 outuage Daco.
			Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tle.	Hk. Tls.	Hle. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
American	1,949	778,643	5,182,509	1,631,611	8,282,875	119,826.262	19,781.400
British	12,234	23.206	56	34,021,001	75,026,465	5,757,744.042	1.587.600
Dutch	39	57,025	41,246		1,000	835.490	8,348.000
French	02	98,847	687,369	389,946	84,601	13,005.669	1,019.300
Italian	134	12,301	185			2.000	76.700
Japanese	8,547	9,128,080	64,945,27%	10,694,444	25,587,972	1,042,169.499	99,871.400
Norwegian	179	146,029	3,569,927	58,770	71,018	81,946.234	5,099.600
Portuguese	2	1,717	18,357		200	13.310	255.100
Russian	1.1.6	554,575	5,013,472	042,410	710,874	65,996,662	16,827.180
Non-Treaty							
Powers	2	531	6,863			95.000	752,800
Chinese	47,738	11,666,595	201,700,217	47,315,899	77,329,040	3,824,293.446	125,316.016
TOTAL	75,258	37,871,056	496,935,322	94,757,687	185,208,396	8,885,928.214	411,151.960

SHARE TAKEN BY EACH NATIONALITY IN THE CARRYING TRADE BETWEEN THE OPEN PORTS OF CHINA. (Continued).

COAST TRADE INWARDS.	Duties. Coast Trade Duties: Import Duties on Foreign Goods re-entered included.		Hk. T'ls. 28,416,.080 1,366,413.121 1,553.314 547 829 8,073.419 445,223.882 15303,659 4,656 14,451.159 45 500 1,484,102 £21	5,461,835.140
	VALUES.	Foreign Imports.	Hk. Tls. 8,252,009 74,795,890 74,795,890 74,504 11,303 230,932 27,997,731 47,690 305,562	196,986,910
		Chinese Imports.	H.k. T/1s. 6,510,994 245,052,623 110,789 923,332 71,401,118 4,781,151 18,204 4,816,642 5,607 5,607	573,270,430
	TONNAGE INWARDS.	Total Tonnage of Entries	735,674 15,408,332 27,439 107,343 93,404 9,568 9,139,576 150,653 1,272 553,669 1,882 1,882 11,513,700	37,542,512
		No. of Entries.	1,960 15,556 25 63 77 135 8,540 184 4 980	73,553
	FLAG.		American Buitish Danish Dutch French Italian Japanese Norwegian Portuguese Russian Spanish Non-Treaty Powers Chinese	TOTAL

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Export Department

Hides, Skins, Furs, Carpets, Hair, Strawbraid, Huts, Seeds, etc.

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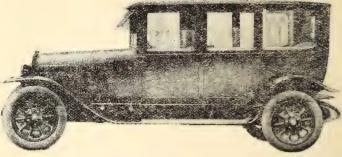
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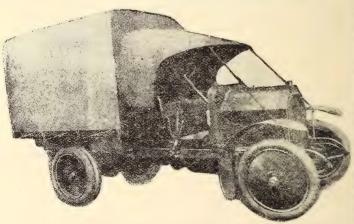
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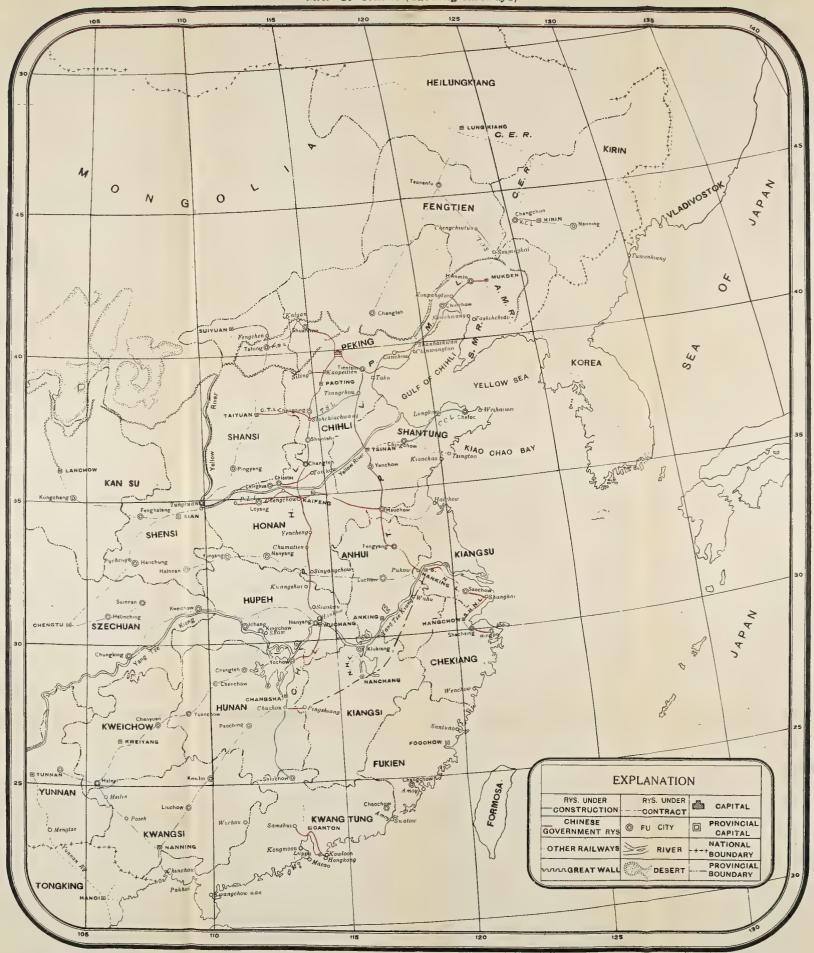


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Taishan, the first of the five sacred mountains in China, with its famous flight of steps and numerous tombs, monuments and temples; the Taminghu (Lake) in Tsinanfu, the capital of Shantung; and the Szesui bridge at Yengchowfu, a bridge about 800 feet long and running over fifteen culverts of stone, a relic of the Ming Dynasty.

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For Particulars, Pamphlets. Reservations, Tickets, etc., apply to the "IN-FORMATION BUREAU" at Peking Head Office.
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